

**An Investigation into the Role of Individual, Situational, and Contextual Facilitators
and Barriers of Bystander Intervention Intent in Image-Based Sexual Abuse Contexts**

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Goldsmiths, University of
London

by

Chelsea Mainwaring

Department of Psychology

Goldsmiths, University of London

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Statement of Originality

I confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, this has been indicated within the thesis.

Chelsea Mainwaring

Ethics Statement

Ethical approval for the research presented within this thesis was granted by the Research Ethics Committee at Goldsmiths, University of London. Ethics documentation have been provided within the appendices.

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Abstract

Image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) encompasses the taking, sharing, and making threats to share nude or sexual images of others, without consent. IBSA is an ever-growing problem within our society, and victims of IBSA can experience harms to both physical and mental wellbeing. Current avenues for prevention of this behaviour focus mainly on the use of law and education, both of which have limitations. An additional avenue for prevention is bystander intervention. Research to date shows that many individuals have been a bystander to IBSA, but most do not intervene despite having the opportunity to do so. Therefore, gaining an understanding of what facilitates and inhibits intervention in these contexts is a worthy endeavour.

This thesis examines what individual, situational, and contextual factors facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention intent in IBSA contexts. Using a mixed methods approach and an ecological framework to guide this research, a range of facilitators and barriers were identified. In line with past research in sexual violence (SV) contexts, key facilitators of intervention include feelings of responsibility, confidence to intervene, being friends with the victim, greater victim empathy, and more positive social norms towards intervention. Further, key barriers of intervention include fears for safety and audience inhibition. This thesis also identified facilitators and barriers not previously found in SV contexts, as well as those which are unique to IBSA, such as the inhibitive role of self-taken images (i.e., selfies) upon intended bystander intervention.

The facilitators and barriers of intervention identified within this thesis have important implications for theory, practice, and future research. In particular, these findings contribute to a growing knowledge base that can be used to develop theory and educational programmes aimed at encouraging greater bystander intervention, which ultimately, will help prevent and minimise the harm experienced by victims of IBSA.

Associated Publications

Parts of this thesis are currently under review or have been published by the author.

The systematic review in Chapter 2 has been published and is cited throughout:

Mainwaring, C., Gabbert, F., & Scott, A. J. (2022). A systematic review exploring variables related to bystander intervention in sexual violence contexts. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15248380221079660>

Professor Fiona Gabbert and Dr Adrian J Scott contributed to the planning of this research and provided feedback on the manuscript.

The focus group study in Chapter 3 is currently under review:

Mainwaring, C., Scott, A. J., & Gabbert, F. (under review). Behavioural intentions of bystanders to image-based sexual abuse: A preliminary focus group study with a university student sample.

Dr Adrian J Scott and Professor Fiona Gabbert contributed to the planning of this research and provided feedback on the manuscript.

Chapter 1: Introduction and Literature Review

As a whole, this thesis focuses upon bystander intervention in the context of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA), and more specifically, facilitators and barriers of intervention in these contexts. The current chapter will begin by providing a definition of IBSA, followed by research which has documented the prevalence of this behaviour and the impacts upon victims. Two current avenues for the prevention of IBSA, the law and education, will then be critically appraised before moving onto the main focus of this thesis, namely, the prevention and minimisation of harm of IBSA via bystander intervention. Following this, a critical overview of the bystander intervention literature will be presented, including theories of bystander intervention and empirical studies which have looked at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in sexual violence (SV) and IBSA contexts. Finally, this chapter will present the rationale and aims of this thesis and the overall strategy and structure of the chapters which follow.

Introduction

IBSA is a term which describes the non-consensual taking or creating, sharing, or making threats to share nude or sexual images of others, where images can be either photographs or videos (Henry et al., 2018; McGlynn et al., 2019; Powell et al., 2018). IBSA can take many forms and present itself in a variety of different contexts. These can include relationship retribution, where the goal is to seek revenge on a current or ex-partner; sextortion, where the goal is to seek money, additional images, or sexual acts; sexual voyeurism (e.g., upskirting or downblousing), where this behaviour acts as a form of sexual gratification for the perpetrator; sexploitation, where the goal is to obtain money through

trading images; and sexual assault, where incidents of sexual assault or rape are recorded and then shared (McGlynn et al., 2017; Powell et al., 2019).

The non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images has also colloquially been referred to as ‘revenge pornography’ (Henry et al., 2017). Despite its frequent use, the term has been criticised for focusing upon ‘revenge’, and therefore implying that the victim has done something to warrant this retaliation (Henry & Powell, 2016; Maddocks, 2018; McGlynn et al., 2019; McGlynn & Rackley, 2017). To shift the responsibility away from victims, the term ‘non-consensual pornography’ was introduced (Patel & Roesch, 2020). However, this term, and the term ‘revenge pornography’ have been criticised because the word ‘pornography’ implies that the images were created for public consumption (Maddocks, 2018). Additionally, ‘pornography’ is labelled as such because of its sexual nature, however, many instances of IBSA are not of a sexual nature, for example, images of victims showering (Henry & Powell, 2016). Both terms are also limiting in that they focus exclusively upon the non-consensual sharing of images whilst omitting the non-consensual creation or taking of nude or sexual images and threats to share these images (Henry et al., 2019).

Given these issues, the term IBSA is considered to be the most appropriate due to the broad spectrum of behaviours covered by this term and because it accurately describes the nature of these behaviours as sexual abuse whereby there is no element of blame on the victim, or focus upon the images as a form of pornography (McGlynn et al., 2019; Office of eSafety Commissioner, 2017b; Patel & Roesch, 2020). For these reasons, the term IBSA will be used to describe these behaviours throughout this thesis and will encompass three distinct forms: 1) non-consensual taking of nude or sexual images; 2) non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images; and 3) making threats to share nude or sexual images. It is important to specify at this point that this thesis focuses upon adult victims of IBSA only (i.e., over 18

years of age) and does not touch upon child exploitation material offences which are beyond the scope of this thesis.

Given the nature of these behaviours, IBSA has been conceptualised as sitting within the continuum of SV. This is due to the comparable nature of IBSA with other forms of SV in terms of the sexualised nature of the abuse (i.e., focus on sexual imagery), the impacts upon victims, and use of IBSA as a new and additional tool to facilitate SV (Henry & Powell, 2015a; McGlynn et al., 2017). By situating IBSA within this continuum, connections can be identified between IBSA and other forms of SV which can have important implications for practice, policy, and future research (McGlynn et al., 2017). Equally, although this thesis focuses upon facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, any meaningful prevention efforts in regard to the development of educational materials or agendas should consider more than one type of behaviour (i.e., SV and IBSA) given that there are likely to be commonalities across these contexts (Banyard, 2015; Hamby & Grych, 2013). This will be expanded upon in Chapter 7: General Discussion.

Overall, this placement of IBSA within the SV continuum has had important implications for the current thesis. Much of the discussions within each of the following chapters, including the current chapter, focuses heavily upon the SV literature, as well as similarities and differences between findings of the current thesis and that within SV contexts.

Prevalence of IBSA

Although the term IBSA may be relatively new, the perpetration of taking images, sharing images, and making threats to share images without consent are not new phenomena. For example, one of the first reported examples of non-consensual sharing was in 1953 when Hugh Hefner published nude photos of Marilyn Monroe in *Playboy* magazine without her consent (Hills, 2017). However, concerns about this behaviour, including non-consensual

taking and making threats to share images, have grown in recent years due to the ease in which these images can be created, uploaded, and downloaded, and the difficulties associated with removing images once they have been uploaded online (Maddocks, 2018; Powell et al., 2018). Not only have these technological advancements assisted in the perpetration of IBSA, they have also facilitated the consensual sharing of images (i.e., sexting) (Mori et al., 2020; Powell & Henry, 2014a). Sexting involves the creation and sharing of text, videos, or photos which are sexually explicit via a mobile phone or through social media (Powell & Henry, 2014a). Recent survey data, using a large sample of 6,109 participants from Australia, New Zealand, and the UK, found that approximately half of respondents aged between 16 and 64 had engaged in some form of sexual self-image behaviour, such as sending a nude photo of themselves to someone else (Henry et al., 2020). A recent meta-analysis confirms this high prevalence rate among young adults aged between 18 and 29 (Mori et al., 2020).

Although sexting between two consenting adults is no cause for concern, issues do arise when these images are used to blackmail, stalk, or harass those within the images (Singh, 2018). As such, engaging in the consensual exchange of images is one of the ways in which IBSA perpetration, particularly the non-consensual distribution and threat of distribution, can arise (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2016). However, it is important to acknowledge that although the consensual engagement in taking and sharing of images can increase the risk of IBSA (Henry et al., 2017), it does not always lead to non-consensual sharing. Equally, avoiding consensual taking and sharing does not guarantee protection against becoming a victim of IBSA (Henry et al., 2017, 2019; Powell et al., 2018).

Until recently, very little was known about the prevalence of IBSA (Powell et al., 2018). In the study conducted by Henry and colleagues (2020), they reported that 1 in 3 had experienced at least one form of IBSA (38%). When looking at each form, 1 in 3 reported having a nude or sexual image taken without their consent, 1 in 5 had an image shared

without their consent, and almost 1 in 5 had received threats to share an image. Similar victimisation rates were reported for both males and females. This study also reported that 1 in 6 had perpetrated at least one form of IBSA, and 1 in 7 had taken an image without consent, 1 in 10 shared an image without consent, and 1 in 12 made threats to share an image. Unlike victimisation rates, perpetration rates were gendered. Specifically, males were more likely than females to report any, and all, forms of IBSA perpetration (Henry et al., 2020; Powell et al., 2022). However, rates of IBSA victimisation and perpetration can vary greatly across studies. One recent systematic review reported victimisation rates between 1% and 24%, with an average rate of 9% across all three types of IBSA behaviour (Patel & Roesch, 2020). Similarly, perpetration rates varied between 0% and 23% (Patel & Roesch, 2020). It is also important to note that the prevalence of IBSA has increased over the past few years. In a recent report comparing self-reported rates of IBSA victimisation among two comparable samples of Australian adolescents and adults (Powell et al., 2020), they found that experiences of at least one form of IBSA had increased from 23% in 2016 to 38% in 2019.

Victim Impacts

The high and increasing prevalence of IBSA leads to concerns regarding the impacts upon victims of this behaviour. First, there are harms to the physical and mental health of victims of IBSA (Bates, 2017; Powell et al., 2018). In particular, victims experience high levels of stress, anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation, and engage in negative coping mechanisms such as excessive drinking and social isolation (Bates, 2017; Campbell et al., 2020; Champion et al., 2022; McGlynn et al., 2019). Although similar experiences are reported for all three types of IBSA behaviour, victims of receiving threats to share images experience the most psychological distress (Henry et al., 2017).

In addition to impacts on physical and mental health, victims report losses to their self-esteem, confidence, and sense of control (Bates, 2017). Victims also report fearing for

their safety, with this being more likely among female victims and those who received threats to share images (Henry et al., 2017). Conversely, victims of non-consensual sharing fear going out in public, making new relationships, and applying for jobs due to concerns about who has seen these images (Campbell et al., 2020).

Further, due to the nature of IBSA, the harms for victims are often constant and enduring. As images can be shared, uploaded online, or viewed repeatedly, the aftermath can be relentless due to the permanency of the images (McGlynn et al., 2019, 2020). Victims report living in fear that images will be discovered, continuously checking the internet, including pornography websites and social media, to see whether the images have been (re)uploaded (McGlynn et al., 2020). Recent survey data has shown that those who experienced any form of IBSA reported significantly higher levels of distress compared to those who had experienced sexual harassment or gender/sexuality-based harassment due to additional forms of victimisation which followed the incident, such as bullying, loss of control over images, privacy, and sexuality, and fears of being re-victimised in the future (Champion et al., 2022). An additional troubling experience for victims of IBSA is secondary victimisation through victim blaming. This is where those who are victims of IBSA are blamed for their victimisation or allocated at least some responsibility for the incident. Recent research has shown that of those who had been victims of non-consensual sharing after engaging in consensual sexting, 21% experienced secondary victimisation (Gassó et al., 2021). In some cases, these experiences have resulted in the victim taking their own life (Angelides, 2013).

Prevention and Minimisation of Harm

Overall, one can see that IBSA is highly prevalent and can have detrimental impacts on victims. Therefore, an important societal goal, and by extension, avenue for research is to investigate effective ways to prevent and minimise the harm of this behaviour. The

consideration of the public health approach to violence prevention, and by extension SV, can be helpful in this regard. This approach specifies three types of prevention: 1) primary prevention; 2) secondary prevention; and 3) tertiary prevention (P. M. McMahon, 2000). In applying these three types of prevention to SV contexts, primary prevention works to deter or inhibit SV before it occurs, by addressing the cultural or structural causes of SV such as personal attitudes, values, and beliefs (Larcombe, 2014). Such prevention measures often include educational programmes or campaigns to address these attitudes, values, and beliefs. Secondary prevention focuses upon identifying risks and working with groups who are identified as 'at risk' of perpetrating SV. Finally, tertiary prevention refers to measures in place after the event, such as supporting the victim or punishing the perpetrator. One of the main tertiary prevention measures is the criminal justice system (CJS) (Larcombe, 2014; P. M. McMahon, 2000).

In the context of IBSA, there are currently two main prevention measures focused on primary and tertiary prevention: 1) the law; and 2) education. These preventative measures, as well as their limitations, have received a lot of attention in the literature. An additional and potentially beneficial avenue for prevention and minimisation of harm which has received less attention is that of bystander intervention.

Law

The law is most appropriately described as a tertiary prevention measure given its main role in addressing the harm experienced after a crime has occurred (P. M. McMahon, 2000). However, laws also govern our behaviour, communicate society's beliefs, and enforce norms within our society (Larcombe, 2014; McGlynn & Rackley, 2017). Therefore, the law may also be described as a primary prevention measure, acting as a deterrent against IBSA perpetration (P. M. McMahon, 2000).

Although many countries now have laws governing the perpetration of non-consensual taking and sharing of images (e.g., Australia, US, UK), the specifics of these laws can vary (see Beyens & Lievens, 2016; Bothamley & Tully, 2018; Eaton & McGlynn, 2020). In England and Wales, the first law introduced to criminalise the perpetration of non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images was in 2015. The Criminal Justice and Courts Act (CJCA) (2015) section 33 made it an offence to disclose any private sexual photographs or films without consent. For an offence to be committed under this law, a person has to disclose, either by physically showing someone or through electronic sharing, a private sexual photograph or film to a third party, without the consent of the person depicted, and with intent to cause distress to that person. Photos or film which have been edited to appear sexual in nature are not covered by this Act (Criminal Justice and Courts Act, 2015). If someone were to be found guilty of this offence, they could receive a maximum of two years imprisonment (*Disclosing Private Sexual Images*, 2018). Currently, this Act does not include making threats to share images, however encouragingly, there are plans to extend section 33 to include this behaviour (*Threats to Disclose Private Sexual Photographs and Films*, 2022). In regard to the taking of nude or sexual images without consent, the Voyeurism (Offences) Act (2019) was introduced which made it an offence to take images beneath the clothing of another (i.e., upskirting), whether for own sexual gratification, to observe genitalia, buttocks, or underwear that would otherwise not be visible, or to cause humiliation, alarm, or distress, and without that person's consent to do so. If someone were to be found guilty of this offence, they could receive a maximum of two years imprisonment (Voyeurism (Offences) Act, 2019).

Despite the use of these laws in successfully prosecuting cases of IBSA in England and Wales (see Byrne, 2016; 'Revenge Porn', 2016), they are not without faults. First, the law governing the non-consensual sharing of images does not recognise this behaviour as a

sexual offence, which means that victims are not automatically granted anonymity. This creates a barrier for victims wanting to report this behaviour (McGlynn et al., 2019). Second, laws only provide a way to punish perpetrators, and are unable to stop further sharing of the images (Dymock, 2017), which as previously stated, can cause enduring harms to victims. Third, these laws do not cover images which have been created or altered (McGlynn et al., 2019). UK Government ministers previously rejected the proposition to extend the law by incorporating images which have been manipulated to appear sexual, by claiming that such images do not cause the same degree of harm (Ministry of Justice, 2016, as cited in McGlynn et al., 2017), which does not align with victims' reported experiences (McGlynn et al., 2017).

A further limitation concerns the stipulation within the CJCA (2015) that perpetrators intend to cause distress. This is problematic for many reasons. First, this wording focuses almost exclusively upon non-consensual sharing arising from a revengeful ex-partner, thereby failing to consider a range of other non-consensual sharing behaviours. It also implies some wrongdoing on behalf of the victim (Dymock & van Der Westhuizen, 2019; McGlynn et al., 2017). Equally, research shows that perpetrators of IBSA engage in this behaviour for a number of reasons, with a large percentage reporting to have engaged in this behaviour for non-malicious reasons (e.g., for fun) (Henry et al., 2020). Even police officers have reported that these legal requirements limit their powers to police and prosecute this behaviour (McGlynn et al., 2019).

In addition to the faults within the laws themselves which make it difficult for the police, there are obstacles which the police and the justice system across many countries face more widely. First, current evidence shows that police officers have limited understanding of these laws. In a sample of police officers from England and Wales, 95% reported having received no formal training on how to conduct investigations into cases of non-consensual sharing (Bond & Tyrrell, 2021). A related issue concerns the obtainment of evidence. In the

same study, 44% reported limited confidence when collecting evidence for cases of non-consensual sharing, with only 2% being very confident. This is particularly problematic when it comes to threats which were only verbalised, as even in cases where there is hard evidence, such as emails and text messages, it can still be difficult to determine who created, shared, or threatened to share the images (Henry et al., 2018).

In addition to the issues presented above in regard to the law as a tertiary prevention measure, there exist different, though equally problematic, issues when regarding the law as a primary prevention measure, as the law will only be successful in this regard if individuals within society are aware of them. A recent study conducted in Australia found that only 58% of respondents believed it was a crime to take a nude or sexual image without consent and 51% believed sharing a nude or sexual image without consent is a crime (Flynn et al., 2022b). Only 39% believed it is a crime to threaten to share an image of someone. In the UK, no data is available regarding societal knowledge of the law, however, given that many police officers have limited understanding of it (e.g., Bond & Tyrrell, 2021), it would be reasonable to assume poorer knowledge among lay people. However, when the law in 2015 was introduced, a campaign called *Be Aware B4 You Share* was created to raise awareness of this law and act as deterrent for potential perpetrators. Whilst the campaign aimed to raise awareness about non-consensual sharing and deter potential perpetrators, it focused upon victims who originally took and shared the images. This has been criticised for its victim blaming sentiment and exclusion of victims who have images taken without their consent in the first instance (Dymock, 2017).

Limitations of current statutes and public awareness of these statutes are not the only issues impacting the potential success of the law in preventing or minimising the harm of IBSA. Many victims fail to even engage with the CJS or report their victimisation to the police. Often this is due to fears that they would be blamed, their case would not be taken

seriously, that it would be made public (Campbell et al., 2020; McGlynn et al., 2019), or for fear of having to disclose the images to the police (Henry et al., 2018). In the small number of cases where victims do report to the police, the response is often unsatisfactory due to the lack of sufficient understanding of current legislation or how to effectively investigate the offence (Bond & Tyrrell, 2021; Henry et al., 2018; McGlynn et al., 2019; McGlynn & Rackley, 2017). Some victims have reported a lack of support from the police and felt that they were being blamed for the abuse, confirming the aforementioned fears (Henry et al., 2018; McGlynn et al., 2019). Many victims have also reported a preference for approaches which encourage greater recognition and attitudinal change among perpetrators and society rather than a criminal conviction (McGlynn et al., 2019), such as through the use of education.

Education

In line with needs for greater recognition and attitudinal change in regard to IBSA, as well as the aforementioned issues with using the law for prevention and minimisation of harm, a second avenue for primary prevention is the use of education. Within any educational programme for the prevention of IBSA, it is important for audiences to be encouraged to engage in a discussion about how to be an ethical user of technology, to encourage people to be more critical of their engagement with these types of images and the ethical issues of sharing them with their peers, the impacts of IBSA on victims, and the role of consent (Powell & Henry, 2014a, 2018). For non-consensual sharing in particular, educational programmes and campaigns are often considered the most appropriate preventative tool (e.g., Dodge & Spencer, 2018; Flynn et al., 2022b; McGlynn et al., 2019).

Although educational programmes should encourage greater critical thinking surrounding the non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images, many current educational campaigns actually try to deter people from engaging in consensual exchanges of images

(i.e., sexting). This is achieved by instilling fear as to the legal repercussions (for those under 18), the permanency of the images, and the public shame that may ensue if the images are shared (Albury, 2017; Flynn et al., 2022b; Henry & Powell, 2015a). For example, the *Think You Know* campaign created by the Australian Government featured a story about a girl who sent a sexual image of herself to a fellow male student, who then proceeded to share this image with others. The video acts as a warning regarding the dangers of sexting, with very little focus on the ethics or issues of consent when the image was forwarded by the perpetrator (Powell & Henry, 2014a). Such messages perpetuate victim blaming, reinforce unrealistic expectations around the abstinence of this behaviour, fail to acknowledge the right that young people have to explore their sexual identities, and minimises the role of perpetrators in engaging in this behaviour (Dodge & Spencer, 2018; Flynn et al., 2022b; Henry & Powell, 2015a; Powell, 2010; Powell & Henry, 2014a).

Increasingly, educational programmes aimed at prevention of SV, and some in the context of IBSA, have tried to extend the responsibility for addressing these behaviours beyond that of victims and perpetrators, to those of bystanders (Banyard et al., 2004; Casey et al., 2017; Flynn et al., 2022b; Powell & Henry, 2014a). Bystanders are individuals who may observe a situation of escalating risk of harm to an individual, criminal behaviour, or social rule violations and they may choose to act in a way which helps the victim and punishes the perpetrator, supports the perpetrator and punishes the victim, or they may do nothing (Banyard, 2015; Banyard et al., 2014; Hamby et al., 2016). As an example of such a campaign, Transport for London recently launched a series of posters on their transport services to highlight the zero tolerance of sexual harassment, including the non-consensual taking of images (i.e., upskirting). Not only did this campaign aim to send a message to potential perpetrators of this behaviour, but it also aimed to encourage bystanders to speak out against this behaviour (Transport for London, 2021). Equally, a campaign in Australia

called *Your Stories* was created to encourage bystander intervention in cases of non-consensual sharing. This campaign in particular was more positively received than those outlined above which focus on the victim's behaviour (Flynn et al., 2022b). Campaigns of this nature particularly address the limitations outlined above by creating a more positive and inclusive form of prevention by framing individuals, such as bystanders, as potential solutions to the problem (Fenton & Mott, 2017; Kettrey & Marx, 2020). Although the success of these materials for prevention of IBSA is not yet understood, educational programmes targeted towards increasing bystander intervention in SV contexts have been successful in increasing the likelihood of future intervention (e.g., Kettrey & Marx, 2020; Mujal et al., 2021).

Bystander Intervention

Focusing upon bystander intervention within educational programmes creates an awareness that everyone within the community has a potentially positive role to play in the prevention of IBSA (Banyard, 2015; Banyard et al., 2007). Bystanders can engage in a range of behaviours which align to each of the three types of prevention (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary) (Banyard, 2015; Powell, 2014). For example, bystanders can enact primary prevention behaviour, not in direct response to an incident but in working against the kind of behaviours that encourage and perpetuate attitudes that encourage the behaviour. They can engage in secondary prevention by recognising and addressing situations of heightened risk of an incident occurring. Finally, bystanders can engage in tertiary prevention after the incident, by supporting a victim or confronting a perpetrator (Powell, 2014).

Bystanders can also engage in direct intervention, to stop an incident that is occurring in real time (Powell, 2014). In the context of IBSA, and each of the three forms of IBSA, bystanders could intervene before, during, or after an incident. For example, in the case of non-consensual taking of images, a bystander could witness an incident of upskirting and

intervene by confronting the perpetrator and telling them to stop what they are doing. Equally, in the context of non-consensual sharing, such as a bystander being forwarded a nude or sexual image, they could intervene by condemning that behaviour. Finally, in the context of making threats to share, a bystander may be informed that someone's partner is threatening to share their images and could intervene by supporting the victim and helping them to access relevant support.

There is great potential for bystanders to successfully prevent IBSA and minimise the harm caused. First, by mere definition of the non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images, there will be a third party who is sent, shown, or views these images (i.e., a bystander). Research conducted in the US found that 63% of an undergraduate sample reported that they had a nude or sexual image shared with them when it was meant to be private (Hudson et al., 2014). When considering all three forms of IBSA, more recent evidence using a sample of Australian adults found that 64% of respondents had witnessed, or become aware of, someone perpetrating IBSA (Flynn et al., 2022a). The most prevalent was the sharing of an image (46%) followed by making threats to share (29%) and taking an image (20%). Reports of being a bystander of IBSA were similar for males (67%) and females (63%), although females reported higher rates for witnessing, or becoming aware of, downblousing (i.e., non-consensual taking of images) (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b). Overall, this shows that there are a large number of bystanders who are in a position to intervene in some way.

Although there is a high likelihood of being a bystander to IBSA, this does not always mean that intervention will occur. Of the respondents who reported being a bystander to IBSA in Flynn et al. (2022a), just under half (46%) reported that they said or did something in response. The most common actions reported were confronting the perpetrator (56%), telling a friend, family member, or colleague (50%), distancing themselves from the

perpetrator (47%), and supporting the victim (47%). Infrequent responses included raising the issue with the internet platform (15%), reporting to the police (15%), threatening the perpetrator or taking physical action (13%), and reporting the perpetrator to the internet provider (7%) (Flynn et al., 2022a).

Despite less than half of bystanders reporting having intervened, initial evidence has shown the importance of social support for victims following IBSA (Bates, 2017; Office of eSafety Commissioner, 2017b), as well as the perceived helpfulness of bystander intervention in these cases (Flynn et al., 2022b). In particular, victims of non-consensual sharing reported that seeking support from friends and family was a positive coping mechanism, and these support systems and responses were vital for the victim's wellbeing and feelings of safety following their victimisation (Bates, 2017; Office of eSafety Commissioner, 2017b). However, some research has shown that although bystander responses to disclosures from victims of sextortion have been helpful and supportive in some instances, they also experienced ambivalent (e.g., judgemental but still willing to help) and even harmful responses (e.g., judgemental and unwilling to help) (Walsh & Tener, 2022). When looking at real experiences of bystanders to IBSA, the most commonly reported actions taken (e.g., confronting the perpetrator, supporting the victim) were considered, by the bystanders themselves, to be helpful actions in these situations (Flynn et al., 2022b).

Overall, bystander intervention as a form of prevention for IBSA has great potential, both in terms of the high likelihood of being a bystander to this behaviour as well as the potential for minimisation of harm for victims post-IBSA. However, the evidence clearly shows that being a bystander does not necessarily mean that intervention will occur, nor does it mean that bystanders will always respond appropriately. To work towards encouraging bystander intervention, an understanding of what can facilitate or inhibit a bystander to take action in these cases is required.

Bystander Intervention: Facilitators and Barriers

With bystander intervention as a viable avenue for the prevention of IBSA, but with a large proportion of bystanders not intervening in these cases (see Flynn et al., 2022a), it is important to understand what may facilitate or inhibit intervention. This evidence is vital for providing the building blocks for the development of educational materials which aim to encourage greater bystander intervention by capitalising on facilitators and removing barriers of intervention (Banyard, 2015; Henry et al., 2017; Powell & Henry, 2014a).

The literature regarding bystander intervention, including theoretical models and empirical evidence is vast, and many studies have considered facilitators and barriers of actual and intended bystander intervention, in different contexts, including SV, domestic violence, and bullying, to name a few. Given the saturation of this literature, a full review is not possible. Therefore, only the most influential theoretical models for this thesis will be reviewed. Equally, given the dearth of literature looking at bystander intervention in IBSA contexts specifically, as demonstrated below, literature from SV contexts will be reviewed. This literature is particularly relevant given the placement of IBSA within the SV continuum as outlined above.

Theoretical Frameworks

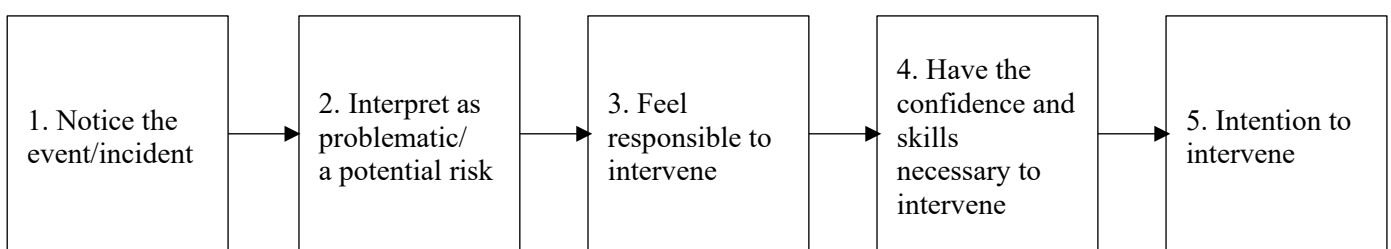
Many theoretical frameworks and models have been put forward to help explain bystander intervention behaviour, and the associated decision making process, and by extension what facilitates or inhibits intervention. In some cases, these models were created for specific applications in bystander intervention contexts. In others, the models are of general decision-making processes which have been applied to bystander intervention contexts.

Bystander Intervention Model (Latané & Darley, 1970)

One of the first and most influential models, which has been applied in a range of different contexts, is the Bystander Intervention Model (also referred to in the literature as the situational model; Latané & Darley, 1970). The model explains the decision-making process that bystanders go through when deciding whether or not to intervene in emergency situations, specifying that bystanders must move through five stages before they engage in any form of intervention. As can be seen in Figure 1, firstly, bystanders must notice the incident. The bystander must then interpret that incident as a problem or as a potential risk. Once the incident has been assessed as a problem or as presenting a risk, the bystander must feel responsible for finding a solution to address this. If the bystander feels responsible, they will then assess whether they have the confidence and appropriate skills to intervene. Finally, if the bystander considers themselves to have the appropriate skills, they will form an intention to intervene and decide what specific action they will take (Latané & Darley, 1970).

Figure 1

Bystander Intervention Model (Latané & Darley, 1970)



In addition to a series of internal cognitive processes, there are some barriers and associated psychological processes which are important. The model was originally put forward to account for the bystander effect, which describes the phenomenon where the presence of other bystanders reduces the likelihood that bystanders will intervene (Darley &

Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1970). The authors hypothesised that the presence of other bystanders impacted the likelihood of intervention due to three main psychological processes: 1) diffusion of responsibility; 2) audience inhibition; and 3) pluralistic ignorance. First, when in the presence of other bystanders, feelings of responsibility are shared by all those who are present, thereby reducing one's own personal responsibility to act (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1968, 1970). Second, intervention likelihood can be reduced due to fears of embarrassment or being judged by other bystanders for any inappropriate actions taken (i.e., audience inhibition). Third, pluralistic ignorance occurs when bystanders look to other bystanders for their reactions to an ambiguous incident. Therefore, if other bystanders display a calm reaction or appear unaffected, bystanders may not define the situation as an emergency and therefore will not intervene (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1970).

Overall, Latané and Darley's (1970) model provides an insight into elements of a bystander's decision-making and cognitions, and the impact of these cognitions upon the likelihood of bystander intervention, as well as situational characteristics that may impact this process (e.g., presence of other bystanders, audience inhibition), and ultimately, the likelihood of intervention. In the context of SV, Burn (2009) adapted and applied this model to these contexts, and highlighted barriers that may occur at each stage of this decision-making process. Specifically, at step 1, bystanders may be distracted by their surroundings or incapacitated by alcohol, such as when at a large social gathering where a sexual assault may take place. At step 2, bystanders may struggle to interpret the situation as high risk for sexual assault, or as problematic when the situation is ambiguous or if they are ignorant to risk markers for SV. At step 3, bystanders may not feel a sense of responsibility to intervene when in the presence of other bystanders or due to perceptions of victim unworthiness. At step 4, bystanders may lack the confidence, skill set, or knowledge in how to respond to the

incident. Finally, at step 5, bystander intervention can be impeded by concerns of embarrassment (i.e., audience inhibition) (Burn, 2009).

Using a sample of undergraduate students from the US, Burn (2009) went on to show support for the validity of the Bystander Intervention Model and associated barriers of intervention specified above in cases of SV through the use of a survey. Specifically, all barriers identified were predictive of a reduced likelihood of intervention. Further recent evidence has supported the application of this model in SV contexts. Specifically, inability to notice the incident or distractedness (Kania & Cale, 2021), inability to identify the incident as risky or problematic (Katz et al., 2017), reduced feelings of responsibility to intervene (e.g., Katz, Colbert, et al., 2015), and reduced confidence in ability and skills to intervene (e.g., Zelin et al., 2019) are all associated with a reduced likelihood of intervention. In IBSA contexts, very little research has been conducted looking at the validity of this model and the associated cognitive processes and barriers. However, there is some initial evidence to suggest that a lack of concern about the situation and personal responsibility can act as barriers of intervention in these contexts (Flynn et al., 2022b). The role of other components of this model, such as confidence to intervene, has not yet been considered.

Despite having been supported in SV contexts, and with some preliminary evidence of its application to IBSA contexts, there are limitations of this model both generally and for the purpose of explaining bystander intervention in these situations due to simplicity. This includes: 1) the omission of other internal cognitive and individual characteristics such as attitudes and beliefs (Casey et al., 2017); 2) omission of other situational factors such as the relationship between the bystander and victim/perpetrator; and 3) omission of factors related to the wider context and social processes such as peer norms (Storer et al., 2021). Further, the Bystander Intervention Model was initially developed for more general emergency situations (Edwards et al., 2019), which can present difficulties in applying this model to SV and IBSA

contexts. First, general emergency or helping situations do not necessarily include the presence of a victim and perpetrator or the potential for negative consequences for the bystander (Banyard, 2015). Second, one study found that the barriers identified in Burn (2009) were only relevant in cases of SV where the bystander did not know the victim (Bennett et al., 2014). These limitations may also apply to IBSA contexts given that in many cases, a perpetrator will be present, there may be negative consequences for the bystander if they intervene, and the bystander is likely to know at least one of the individuals involved (Flynn et al., 2022b).

One model which does address some of these limitations is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1991). This model centres upon the role of intentions in predicting actual behaviour (i.e., greater intentions equals greater likelihood of enacting the behaviour), and shares similarities with the Bystander Intervention Model in regard to specifying the importance of perceived ease in performing the behaviour (i.e., step 4 in the Bystander Intervention Model). However, this model also specifies two further components: 1) attitudes towards the behaviour being enacted; and 2) subjective norms towards the behaviour. Specifically, more favourable perceptions of the behaviour (i.e., intervention), by both the individual and others, means the behaviour is more likely to be performed (Ajzen, 1991). Having said this, the TPB also has limitations in regard to its simplicity in explaining bystander behaviour in cases of SV and IBSA, and its lack of consideration of other facilitators and barriers which may be important (Casey et al., 2017; Storer et al., 2021). Again this is likely due to its original development in explaining the decision-making process for behaviours unlike that of bystander intervention. Given these limitations, a framework which guides empirical investigations for a more holistic understanding of bystander intervention is required, for example, an ecological model.

The Ecological Model of Bystander Intervention (Banyard, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1977)

The use of an ecological model to explain behaviour, such as that put forward by Bronfenbrenner (1977), and expanded upon by Banyard (2011) for bystander intervention in a SV context, can help expand our understanding of key facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention beyond that outlined in the aforementioned models. In particular, Bronfenbrenner (1977) stressed the importance of examining ‘multiperson systems’ and taking into account environmental and contextual factors beyond the immediate situation and individual characteristics which featured heavily in the models detailed above. Banyard (2011) expanded upon the work by Bronfenbrenner to create an ecological model for bystander intervention in SV contexts, and described four layers within the model, each housing particular variables which may facilitate or inhibit bystander intervention: 1) ontogenic level; 2) microsystem; 3) exosystem; and 4) macrosystem.

Variables at the ontogenic level represent intrapersonal variables such as gender, personality, emotions, and cognitions. The microsystem includes variables that are proximal to the individual, such as peer and family groups (e.g., peer norms) and the situation that the bystander may be in (e.g., presence of other bystanders). The exosystem includes variables that the bystander is not directly in contact with but which can still influence their behaviour, such as the broader community. As an example, this may include whether an organisation such as a university or workplace has appropriate measures in place to handle incidents of SV. Finally, variables within the macrosystem include those related to social organisations and belief systems (i.e., broader societal attitudes). Banyard (2011) also stressed the importance of considering time and interactions between these different layers (i.e., mediation and moderation) in understanding bystander intervention behaviour. Overall, the identification of facilitators and barriers of intervention in SV contexts across each level within the ecological model has been supported (see Banyard, 2011 for a review), and further

empirical support for a range of facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention will be presented below.

Overall, an ecological model addresses limitations of previous models and helps uncover new levels of analysis, particularly those related to contextual variables (i.e., beyond the individual and immediate situation), as well as exploration of mediation and moderation between different levels of the system (Banyard, 2011). Furthermore, with the potential implications regarding the identification of facilitators and barriers of intervention for educational purposes, it is important for these materials to be informed by a holistic understanding of the behaviour, looking at a variety of facilitators and barriers, which the ecological framework provides (Banyard, 2015; Powell & Henry, 2014b). Therefore, in line with the ecological model, this thesis will focus on facilitators and barriers regarding the individual bystander, including demographic characteristics, cognitive processes, emotions, attitudes and beliefs (i.e., henceforth called *individual variables*), the IBSA situation itself, including characteristics of the situation itself, the behaviour, individuals involved, and the bystanders interaction with the situation (i.e., henceforth called *situational variables*), and finally, the wider context in which the bystander functions within, including peer groups, work or university environments, and wider society (i.e., henceforth called *contextual variables*).

Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention in SV contexts

For a holistic and multifaceted understanding of what facilitates and inhibits bystander intervention, the aforementioned models lead to the consideration of individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention. As previously stated, given the placement of IBSA within the continuum of SV, evidence regarding facilitators and barriers in SV contexts are worthy of consideration.

One systematic review which looked at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in SV contexts within university campuses in the US found a range of individual, situational, and contextual variables to be important to bystander intervention (Labhardt et al., 2017). In particular, they highlight the many studies that have focused upon gender differences, and report that females are more likely to intend to intervene, and subsequently more likely to engage in actual bystander intervention, compared to males. Further, many internal cognitive processes have been considered. Labhardt et al. (2017) confirmed that higher confidence in ability to intervene is associated with a greater likelihood of intervention. Greater acknowledgement of the behaviour of SV as problematic (e.g., Kania & Cale, 2021) and feelings of responsibility to intervene (e.g., Yule & Grych, 2020) are also associated with greater likelihood of intervention. Other individual variables found to increase likelihood of intervention include a sense of morality (e.g., Casper et al., 2021), positive attitudes towards intervention (e.g., Banyard, Mitchell, et al., 2020), and reduced endorsement of rape myths (e.g., Kania & Cale, 2021).

In regard to situational variables, the only variable reviewed by Labhardt and colleagues (2017) was the relationship with the perpetrator and victim. Specifically, they reported that sharing in-group membership (i.e., being friends) with the victim or the perpetrator increases intention to intervene. Other situational variables found to increase likelihood of intervention within the literature include concerns for victim safety (e.g., Casper et al., 2021), greater victim empathy (e.g., Yule et al., 2020), greater severity of the behaviour (e.g., Ball & Wesson, 2017), and absence of other bystanders (although this is dependent upon the severity of the behaviour, e.g., Ball & Wesson, 2017).

Finally, in regard to contextual variables, Labhardt et al. (2017) summarised the literature which considered peer attitudes and exposure to media. Evidence consistently shows that perceived supportive attitudes among peers towards intervention is associated

with a greater likelihood of intervention. Conversely, supportive attitudes towards engaging in SV decreases intervention likelihood. In regard to the role of media, very few studies have considered this in regard to bystander intervention, but those which have, have found that exposure to pornography and sports media is associated with a decreased likelihood of intervention (Labhardt et al., 2017). Other facilitators and barriers related to the wider context have also been considered in the literature. Specifically, likelihood of intervention is increased when there is a greater sense of community (e.g., Banyard et al., 2018) and wider knowledge of the issue of SV (Edwards et al., 2019).

Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention in IBSA contexts

Despite the wealth of research looking at bystander intervention in SV contexts, there has been very little empirical investigation into bystanders within IBSA contexts. Much of the literature to date has focused upon perpetrator proclivity and motivations (e.g., Henry et al., 2020; Karasavva et al., 2022; Pina et al., 2017, 2021), the experiences and impact upon victims (e.g., McGlynn et al., 2020), and general perceptions of the behaviour (e.g., Attrill-Smith et al., 2021; Zvi, 2021). In SV contexts, the literature has identified the relationship between perceptions of, and attitudes towards SV, and intervention likelihood (e.g., Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Tebbe, 2021). Therefore, the literature concerning perceptions of IBSA is particularly relevant to draw upon given the likely impact that these could have for bystander intervention likelihood.

Most research has looked at general, as well as differing perceptions of IBSA based upon differing individual and situational characteristics. Generally, most studies find high levels of sympathy and empathy and low levels of anger or contempt towards victims of IBSA (e.g., Zvi & Shechory-Bitton, 2020b). However, when looking at individual differences, research consistently shows that male respondents are more likely to blame victims of IBSA compared to female respondents (Attrill-Smith et al., 2021; Bothamley &

Tully, 2018; Flynn et al., 2022b). Furthermore, recent research using a sample of Australian participants found that when asked to consider a recent bystander experience of IBSA, female respondents were more likely than male respondents to report feeling uncomfortable, annoyed, and angry at the perpetrator (Flynn et al., 2022b). Females were also more likely to report feeling sorry for the victim, whereas males were more likely to report feeling okay with the behaviour, being unbothered by it, or finding it funny. Other individual characteristics of the perceiver found to be related to perceptions of the behaviour include empathy, whereby more lenient judgements of non-consensual sharing are made when the perceiver has lower empathy (e.g., Fido et al., 2019).

In addition to individual characteristics, studies have documented how variations to the IBSA incident can change perceptions of the behaviour. For example, perceptions of criminalising the behaviour is influenced by the perceived motivation behind the offence, whether the lack of consent is made clear, and the normalisation of sharing nude or sexual images (Flynn et al., 2022b). Equally, if the image was self-taken (i.e., a 'selfie') then respondents are less likely to support the criminalisation of the behaviour (Lageson et al., 2019; Zvi, 2021), and more likely to assign blame to the victim (Attrill-Smith et al., 2021). Further, the non-consensual sharing of images of male victims is judged more leniently than that of female victims (Fido et al., 2019).

Although the literature looking at perceptions of IBSA is extensive, only a small number of studies have looked at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in cases of IBSA (see Banyard, Edwards, et al., 2021; Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b), and only one has investigated bystander intervention among adults. Even so, there is preliminary evidence that individual, situational, and contextual variables can act as facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention. First, Banyard, Edwards, and colleagues (2021) created regression models for the prediction of actual intervention in cases of the non-consensual sharing of

images among youth in the US (mean age of 14). They found that race, proactive behaviours, violence perpetration experience, and social norms were all significantly predictive of intervention. Specifically, less engagement in proactive bystander behaviour (i.e., spreading positive prevention messages), less positive social norms, being of White ethnicity, and past experience of violence perpetration were associated with decreased odds of intervention (Banyard, Edwards, et al., 2021).

In a sample of Australian adults, the study by Flynn and colleagues (2022a) adopted a survey method and reported that the most common reasons (or facilitators) for taking action were considering the behaviour to be wrong, believing that taking action would be the right thing to do, and knowing that the behaviour was illegal. Respondents were least likely to have acted due to personal experiences of IBSA. For those who did not take action, this was most often due to feeling uncomfortable or not feeling responsible to intervene. Respondents were least likely to have avoided action due to concerns of perpetrator violence against the victim or themselves, or because of their relationship with the victim (Flynn et al., 2022a).

In addition to survey data, Flynn and colleagues conducted focus groups with the same respondents to look at behavioural intentions in hypothetical cases of the non-consensual taking and sharing of images (Flynn et al., 2022b). Participants discussed hypothetical scenarios of IBSA, where the gender identity of the victim and perpetrator was manipulated, and where details of non-group majority and marginalised groups were added to encourage discussion of these factors. Barriers of intervention in cases of non-consensual sharing included the potential for social repercussions from the perpetrator and broader social group, lack of relationship with the perpetrator, lack of supportive responses from other bystanders, and fears of relationship breakdown with the perpetrator. Conversely, in some cases, having a relationship with the perpetrator facilitated intervention due to reduced concerns for safety if they did intervene. Concerns were also raised about personal safety and

risks of intervening, although it was less applicable in the scenario which depicted a case of non-consensual sharing among a group of friends, compared to the scenario which depicted a case of upskirting on a train. Further, in cases of non-consensual sharing, concerns for safety were reduced when other bystanders were present. Facilitators of intervention included empathy for the victim and the perpetrator having a derogatory attitude and tone when sharing the image (Flynn et al., 2022b).

For the non-consensual taking of images, barriers included ambiguity of the situation, perceived feelings of the victim, power imbalances between the perpetrator and themselves (e.g., due to physicality), relationship between the victim and perpetrator, being the only bystander or not knowing other bystanders and therefore having a lack of social support, and being less likely to recommend reporting to the police due to difficulties of the court process (Flynn et al., 2022b). Interestingly, female bystanders were less likely to intervene when the perpetrator was male, due to safety concerns, whereas male bystanders reported being less likely to intervene if the perpetrator was female, due to a lack of confidence of appropriate skills to handle the situation and disbelief that this behaviour could be committed by a woman. Across both forms of IBSA, having a personal relationship with the victim facilitated bystander intervention (Flynn et al., 2022b).

Overall, although some studies have examined bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, and more specifically, facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in these contexts, the number of studies are minimal and have some limitations. Specifically, studies to date have only considered two forms of IBSA (non-consensual taking and sharing of images) and have been limited in their range of facilitators and barriers considered and methodologies used. The current thesis extends our understanding by looking at all three forms of IBSA within an ecological framework, using both qualitative and quantitative

methodologies. This will provide a holistic understanding of facilitators and barriers to complement and inform our understanding of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts.

Aims, Rationale, and Structure of Thesis

The prevalence and impacts upon victims of IBSA makes the investigation of preventative measures a worthy endeavour for research. Current avenues for prevention focus mainly on the law and education targeted at potential victims and perpetrators of IBSA, both of which have limitations. An additional avenue for prevention is that of bystander intervention. The bystander intervention literature in SV contexts is extensive, and many theoretical models and empirical investigations have been conducted to identify facilitators and barriers of intervention. However, there has been very little empirical investigation of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. Gaining an understanding of facilitators and barriers in these contexts could have important practical implications for the development of educational materials, campaigns, or agendas aimed at encouraging bystander intervention, and eventually help decrease the prevalence of this behaviour and minimise the harm experienced by victims.

Therefore, the overall aim of this thesis is to gain a holistic and multifaceted understanding, guided by an ecological framework, of the variables that can facilitate or inhibit bystander intervention intent in IBSA contexts. For the purposes of this thesis, and in line with the definition provided at the start of this chapter, all empirical work will focus on each of the three forms of IBSA: 1) non-consensual taking of nude or sexual images of others; 2) non-consensual sharing of nude or sexual images of others; and 3) making threats to share nude or sexual images of others. Therefore, the overall research question of this thesis is as follows: What individual, situational, and contextual factors can facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention intent in IBSA contexts, namely, the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and making threats to share nude or sexual images?

To begin to address this question, first, the available literature looking at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in SV contexts has been reviewed systematically (see Chapter 2). Following this review, an exploratory focus group study was undertaken to determine how bystanders would intervene in cases of IBSA (see Chapter 3) as well as what may facilitate or inhibit intervention for all three forms of IBSA (see Chapter 4). Drawing upon both the systematic review and focus group study to determine what factors may be the most important in the context of IBSA, two large multicomponent, quantitative studies were developed to investigate the role of a range of individual, situational, and contextual factors on bystander intervention intent. Specifically, three experiments were conducted which focused upon the role of situational variables and potential mediating processes for each of the three forms of IBSA (see Chapter 5). Three surveys were also conducted to explore the relationship between individual and contextual variables and bystander intervention intent for each of the three forms of IBSA (see Chapter 6). Finally, the General Discussion synthesises the findings of this thesis to provide an answer to the research question and the implications of this work (see Chapter 7).

Chapter 2: A Systematic Review of Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention in Sexual Violence Contexts

As shown in Chapter 1, there is little understanding of bystander intervention in image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) contexts. Therefore, the overall aims of this thesis are to identify what facilitates and inhibits bystander intervention in these contexts. To guide the proceeding empirical work of this thesis, the current chapter presents a systematic review of the literature looking at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in sexual violence (SV) contexts, structured using an ecological framework. This systematic review has been published in Trauma, Violence, and Abuse (see Mainwaring et al., 2022).

Introduction

The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines SV as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion...” (Krug et al., 2002, p. 149) and encompasses a range of different behaviours, including rape, sexual assault, sexual harassment, and sexual abuse. As outlined in the previous chapter, researchers have situated IBSA within the continuum of SV due to their comparable nature regarding the sexualised nature of the abuse (i.e., focus on sexual imagery), the impacts upon victims (see McGlynn et al., 2017), and the engagement in this behaviour as a tool to facilitate SV and harassment (Henry & Powell, 2015b).

Given our limited understanding of what factors may facilitate or inhibit bystander intervention in the context of IBSA, a systematic review exploring facilitators and barriers of intervention in SV contexts was conducted. Not only will this guide future research looking at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, but by aligning IBSA

within the SV continuum in conducting this review, it will reveal connections that exist between these different but related forms of abuse which can have important implications for future research and policy (McGlynn et al., 2017).

Although systematic reviews have been carried out looking at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention, these have considered a wide variety of violent and emergency situations rather than exclusively focusing upon SV. One review which considered the role of contextual factors upon bystander intervention in a range of emergency settings found that social norms, a sense of community, prosocial modelling, policies and accountability cues, and the physical environment, all had an impact on bystander intervention (S. McMahon, 2015). A qualitative meta-synthesis also showed the importance of peer perceptions in influencing bystander behaviour (Robinson et al., 2020). This review further highlighted the role of individual characteristics of the bystander, such as feelings of responsibility, in addition to other situational characteristics such as the role of alcohol, the presence of peers, and behavioural indicators from victims. Similarly, a recent scoping review looked at the facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in a range of contexts among adolescent bystanders with similar results (Debnam & Mauer, 2021). In particular, they identified having a relationship with the victim, feelings of responsibility, and confidence to intervene facilitated intervention.

The reviews which have been conducted to date are limited in terms of their applications to SV contexts specifically, with most having focused upon a range of physical and psychological abuse contexts in addition to, or excluding, SV contexts. One systematic review which has focused upon SV contexts found a range of individual (e.g., gender), situational (e.g., relationship between the victim and bystander), and contextual (e.g., peer attitudes) variables to be important to bystander intervention (Labhardt et al., 2017).

However, many studies included in the review focused upon both SV and physical violence

contexts without evidencing a clear distinction between the two. Therefore, it is difficult to interpret the applicability of these variables in SV contexts. This review also focused solely upon studies which utilised university samples which limits its applications to the general population. Collating the literature from general and student populations will create an even stronger evidence base for the purposes of gaining an understanding of what facilitates and inhibits bystander intervention, and therefore what variables may be important for IBSA contexts.

As a whole, the absence of reviews focused solely upon SV and the restricted scope of variables within these reviews limits our understanding of bystander intervention in SV contexts. As outlined in Chapter 1, it has been argued that to sufficiently understand human behaviour, and for prevention efforts to be most successful, it is important to understand the role of individual characteristics and the wider situational and contextual settings in which we function in our everyday lives (Banyard, 2011, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1977). The application of an ecological framework is helpful in addressing this issue (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; see Chapter 1). This review aims to address the limitations of previous reviews and will be the first to provide a systematic and broad understanding of the bystander intervention literature in the context of SV within an ecological framework.

This systematic review addresses the following question: What individual, situational, and contextual variables are related to bystander intervention in SV contexts? There is an accompanying Searchable Systematic Map (SSM) which documents all the individual, situational, and contextual variables which have been considered in the literature and can be viewed on the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/m2rd4/?view_only=01d17a8b93db4aa39da2b06d370e9a08). The specific aims of this systematic review and the SSM are twofold. First, to provide an overview of the literature regarding what variables have been considered in relation to bystander intervention

in SV contexts. Second, to organise this literature within an ecological framework to determine the role of individual, situational, and contextual variables in bystander behaviour, and therefore guide future research in looking at potential facilitators and barriers in IBSA contexts.

Method

Identification

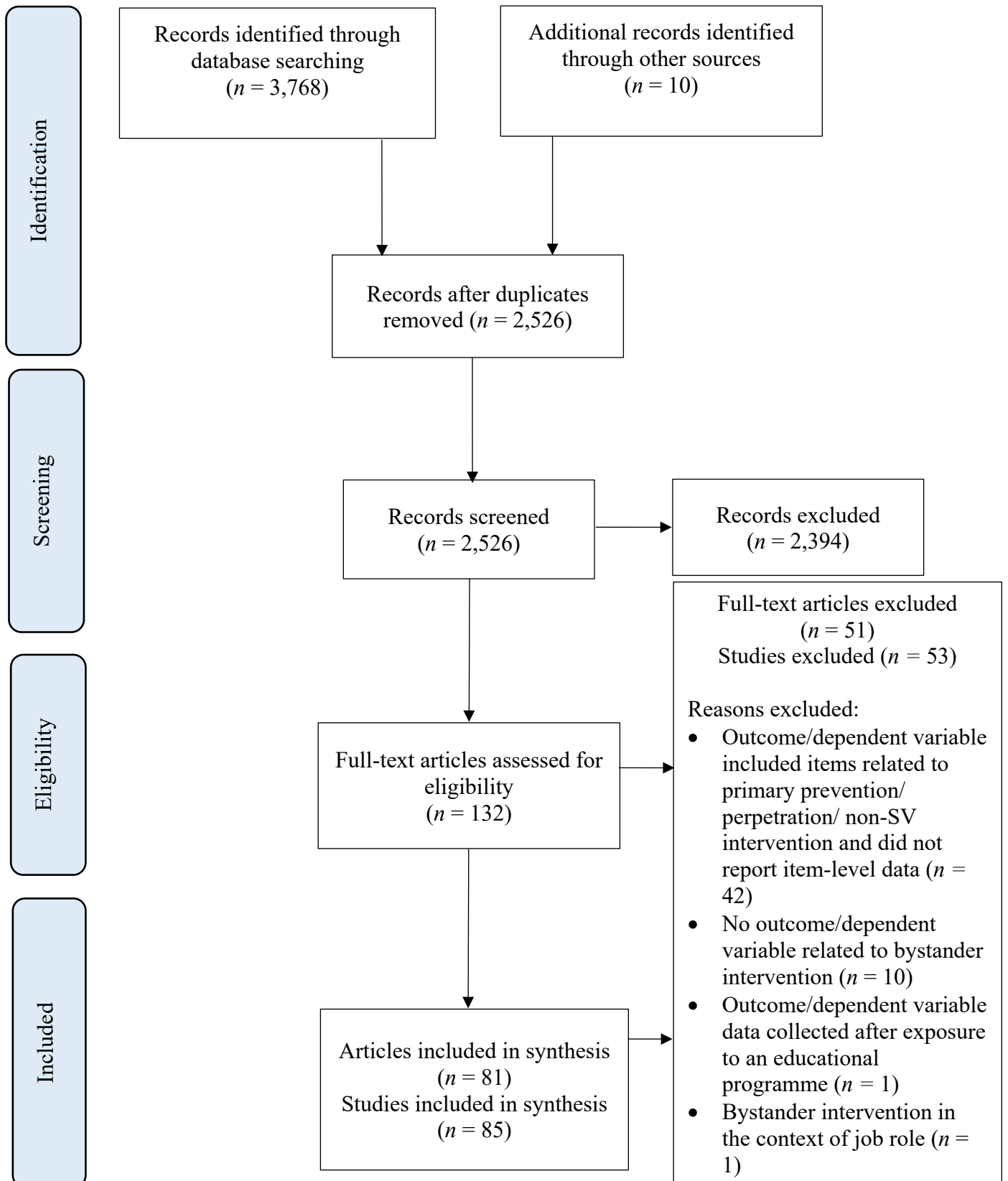
A search of PsycInfo, Web of Science, Academic Search Complete, and Psychological and Behavioural Sciences Collection databases was conducted in November 2019 to locate published empirical articles. Search terms were refined until all relevant studies from a similar systematic review (Labhardt et al., 2017) appeared in the search results (see Appendix A for search terms). In November 2019 and March 2020 ‘hand-search’ steps were taken to identify additional studies. This included searching reference lists of frequently cited articles and ResearchGate profiles of researchers who frequently publish in this field. An additional 10 studies were included at this stage. See Figure 2 for a summary.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Studies were included if they examined the relationship between, or effect of, any individual, situational, or contextual variables upon bystander intervention in online and offline SV or unwanted sexual behaviour contexts. ‘Bystander intervention’ in the context of SV or unwanted sexual behaviour could include direct intervention (i.e., intervention to stop an incident of SV occurring in the present), tertiary prevention (i.e., intervention after an incident), or secondary prevention (i.e., intervention when a risk of SV occurring has been identified) (see Chapter 1 for further information regarding these types of intervention). For inclusion, ‘bystander intervention’ had to have been reported upon in respect of actual bystander behaviour (either past or present) or willingness/intent to intervene (future), but there were no restrictions in terms of how these behaviours were measured.

Figure 2

PRISMA Flow Diagram Summarising the Literature Searching and Sifting Process



Studies were excluded if they: 1) were non-empirical (e.g., literature reviews); 2) published in a non-English language; 3) focused upon evaluating bystander intervention educational materials, programmes, or campaigns; 4) were unpublished, to ensure that the knowledge obtained was peer reviewed; 5) reported upon ‘primary prevention’ behaviours (i.e., those addressing cultural or structural causes of SV, see Chapter 1), given they do not relate to actual bystander behaviour for a specific incident of SV, and the unmanageable scope of the review should this have been included with regard to the additional key search terms and number of hits; and 6) looked at bystander intervention in the context of one’s job role, for example the interventions offered by forensic interviewers upon a victims disclosure of sexual assault. These studies were excluded because individuals are likely to have specific work-based obligations and training to behave in particular ways, which is at odds with how the general population would behave.

Screening

The screening process was conducted by the primary researcher. First, titles and abstracts of articles were read and assessed against the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Screening was carried out using Zotero using tags to label articles which were excluded at this stage. Articles that met the inclusion criteria progressed to full-text screening. Here, the full text of the articles was read; articles that did not fully satisfy the inclusion criteria or breached the exclusion criteria were excluded from the review. See Figure 2 for the full list of reasons for exclusion at this stage. For both screening stages, if the primary researcher was unsure about the inclusion of any studies, this was discussed further with the Research Team. In total, 81 articles and 85 studies met the inclusion criteria and were included in this review.

Coding

The extraction of relevant information for all 85 studies was carried out by the primary researcher using MAXQDA 2020 (VERBI Software, 2020). Variables of interest

were assigned codes using a bottom-up approach. Study characteristics were predetermined in the SSM and then extracted using a top-down approach. A random sample of 45 studies was checked by an independent researcher to ensure that the study information, methods, measures of variables, outcome variables, and analyses were correctly inputted into the SSM. Any conflicts were resolved through discussion between the independent researcher and the primary researcher. To code the individual, situational, and contextual variables, the primary researcher created strict definitions and criteria for each variable category. Lower level categories as outlined in the SSM and results that follow were grouped based on ease of interpretation within the review. The following definitions were used to categorise the variables:

- Individual variables reflect individual characteristics and experiences of the bystander. These include gender, personality, attitudes, or cognitive and emotional processes which occur for that individual. In addition, personal cognitions regarding bystander intervention in specific situations (e.g., feelings of responsibility) and more generally (e.g., attitudes towards intervention) are classified as individual.
- Situational variables reflect characteristics of the SV incident itself, both in terms of the SV and the people involved. These include characteristics of the potential perpetrator or victim, relationships among individuals involved, or physical aspects of the space and context at the time of the incident. Characteristics of the situation and those involved which are personal perceptions of the bystanders themselves are also classified as situational.
- Contextual variables reflect characteristics of the wider contextual environment. They are about the bystander's 'world' and the people around them. They reflect the 'setting' that the bystander is in. These include organisational culture or exposure to messages about

SV. Characteristics of the context which are personal perceptions of the bystanders themselves are also classified as contextual.

Results and Discussion

Overview of Study Characteristics

Of the 85 studies included in this review, the majority were published between 2010 and 2020 (89%) and conducted in the US (84%). Most utilised a university student sample (80%) and the average age was 20.79 years¹. A quantitative methodology was the most common (79%), with just over half of these studies utilising self-report methods (55%) followed by experimental methods (30%), with the remainder using a combination of methods (15%). Of those using a qualitative methodology, the majority used interviews (38%), followed by focus groups (25%), and written narratives (19%), with the remainder using a combination of methods (19%). Only two studies combined quantitative and qualitative methods (2%). Of those studies using a quantitative methodology, most measured bystander intention (65%), followed by actual bystander behaviour (33%), and only one study measured both (1%). The findings in relation to intent versus actual behaviour will be discussed where relevant, for example, where this distinction helps to explain inconsistencies within the literature.

Variables Relating to Bystander Intervention

The goal of the current review was to examine the individual, situational, and contextual variables that are related to bystander intervention in SV contexts, to be able to use these findings to guide future research looking at bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. Findings relating to each variable are summarised and then the implications for future research in both SV and IBSA contexts are discussed. Brief considerations of

¹ Only 54 studies reported an average sample age.

theoretical and practical implications are provided, although these are expanded upon in Chapter 7: General Discussion. Table 1 provides a summary of the critical findings. Given the large number of articles identified for this review, variables that received little attention in the literature and/or produced inconsistent findings are not reported here. The variables which have been excluded can be found in the SSM and Appendix B.

Table 1*Summary of Critical Findings*

Variable	Critical findings	Example references ^a
Individual variables		
Gender	When differences are found between males and females, generally, female bystanders are more likely to intervene, but this also depends on the type of intervention behaviour. Males are more likely to intervene by confronting a perpetrator, physically interrupting, or choosing an indirect method (e.g., finding someone else to help). Females are more likely to directly intervene with victims and provide post-assault intervention. However, not all studies report differences between males and females	e.g., Franklin et al. (2020); Hoxmeier et al. (2015)
Age	Generally, no effect of age of bystander, although in some cases older bystanders are more likely to intervene. Caution is warranted due to use of restricted samples	e.g., Collazo and Kmec (2019); Hoxmeier, Acock, et al. (2017)
Feelings of responsibility to intervene	Bystanders are more likely to intervene when they feel greater responsibility to intervene	e.g., Arbeit (2018); Katz, Colbert, et al. (2015)
Confidence to intervene	Bystanders are more likely to intervene when they have greater confidence in their ability to intervene	e.g., Hust et al. (2019); Zelin et al. (2019)
Rape myth attitudes	Bystanders are more likely to intervene when they do not endorse rape myths	e.g., Gable et al. (2017); Zelin et al. (2019)
Previous victimisation	Generally, no effect of previous victimisation upon bystander intervention	e.g., Jacobson and Eaton (2018); Reynolds-Tylus et al. (2019)
Bystander fear of violence	Bystanders are more likely to intervene if they do not fear punitive actions as a result of intervention	e.g., Hoxmeier et al. (2019); Lamb and Attwell (2019)
Situational variables		
Presence of other bystanders	The impact of the presence of other bystanders is unclear. However, bystanders are more likely to intervene when they feel less audience inhibition	e.g., Burn (2009); Katz, Colbert, et al. (2015)

Relationship between the bystander and victim	Generally, bystanders are more likely to intervene if the victim is a friend or known to them. This is due to greater feelings of empathy, responsibility, loyalty, and the ability to determine whether intervention is warranted	e.g., Franklin et al. (2020); Katz, Paziienza, et al. (2015)
Relationship between the bystander and perpetrator	The impact of relationship between the bystander and perpetrator is unclear. However, interventions which avoid embarrassing the perpetrator are more likely when the perpetrator is a friend or known to the bystander	e.g., Kaya et al. (2019); Wamboldt et al. (2019)
Severity of the sexually violent behaviour	Bystanders are more likely to intervene when the SV is of greater severity	e.g., Bennett et al. (2017); Jacobson and Eaton (2018)
<hr/> Contextual variables <hr/>		
Social norms towards intervening against SV	Bystanders are more likely to intervene if there are positive social norms towards intervening	e.g., Reynolds-Tylus et al. (2019); Savage et al. (2017)
Organisational response to SV	Bystanders are more likely to intervene if an organisation exhibits positive or supportive responses towards the handling of SV, or the bystander has trust in the handling of incidents of SV within an organisation	e.g., Allnock and Atkinson (2019); Holland et al. (2016)

^aAdditional references can be found in the SSM

Individual Variables

Individual variables are operationalised as variables which are reflective of the characteristics and experiences of the individual bystander. Overall, 72 studies measured, manipulated, or discussed the impact of individual variables upon bystander intervention in SV contexts. The most researched individual variables (based on the number of studies which reported upon these variables) included *bystander demographics* (including gender and age, n 's = 43 and 8 respectively), *bystander cognitions within a SV context* (including feelings of responsibility to intervene and confidence to intervene, n 's = 11 and 13 respectively), *rape myth attitudes* ($n = 9$), *previous victimisation* ($n = 9$), and *bystander fear of violence* ($n = 7$). These are discussed in turn.

Bystander Demographics

The variables of gender and age represent the most researched bystander demographics. In regard to gender, where studies reported a difference between males and females, the majority reported that females showed a greater propensity to intervene compared to males (e.g., Franklin et al., 2020; Savage et al., 2017). However, many studies found no significant differences between males and females in their willingness to intervene (e.g., Banyard, Rizzo, et al., 2020; Galdi et al., 2017).

Where differences were identified, most of the evidence available suggests that female bystanders appear more willing to intervene, although some evidence suggests that this may depend on the type of intervention behaviour. Specifically, males have been shown to be more likely to intervene by confronting a perpetrator, physically interrupting an assault, or by choosing an indirect strategy such as finding someone else to help the victim (e.g., Franklin et al., 2017; Holland et al., 2016). Conversely, females tended to be more likely to directly intervene with the victim during the incident, by either pulling them away from the situation or asking if they are okay (e.g., Holland et al., 2016; Moschella et al., 2018).

Females have also been shown to be more likely to intervene post-assault (i.e., supporting the victim after the assault), indicating the use of more tertiary prevention measures (Franklin et al., 2020; Hoxmeier et al., 2015). However, studies have not always found gender differences in regard to different types of intervention behaviour (e.g., Katz & Nguyen, 2016; Palmer et al., 2018) and some studies have found the opposite to be true (e.g., Hoxmeier et al., 2015; Hoxmeier, McMahon, et al., 2017).

Despite some inconsistency, overall, the findings suggest that females take actions that are less risky to their personal safety and focus their attention on the victim rather than the perpetrator. It is also possible that female and male bystanders take different actions due to the gender of the victim and the perpetrator. There is some indication that bystanders feel it is more appropriate to address perpetrators of their own gender (Arbeit, 2018), and given that many sexually violent scenarios involve a male perpetrator and a female victim (Smith et al., 2017), this may explain the distinct actions taken by male and female bystanders in targeting their efforts towards perpetrators and victims respectively. However, additional evidence is needed to determine whether this theory holds.

The differences in female and male actions may explain why some studies fail to find a difference between males and females. Specifically, if outcome measures are constructed using a variety of different types of intervention behaviour, then the differences between males and females may cancel each other when statistical analyses are performed with a single outcome variable which is made up of different intervention behaviours. It is also possible that females express a willingness to intervene which does not translate into actual behaviour. Nearly all studies which measured actual bystander behaviour did not find any gender differences in regard to likelihood of intervention (e.g., Banyard, Rizzo, et al., 2020; Galdi et al., 2017). There were only two exceptions where females were found to have intervened more than males in real-life contexts (Hoxmeier, Acock, et al., 2017; Hoxmeier,

McMahon, et al., 2017). Given that inconsistencies remain without a clear understanding as to why suggests that there are mediating or moderating variables at play which need further attention when considering differences between males and females. Altogether, these findings show the importance of considering additional situational variables (e.g., gender of the victim and perpetrator) and the outcome measures which are being used when investigating the role of bystander gender.

With regard to age, many studies found no significant effect of age upon bystander intervention (e.g., Collazo & Kmec, 2019; Hoxmeier, Acock, et al., 2017). However, some did find that bystanders who are older are more likely to intervene (e.g., Franklin et al., 2020; Hoxmeier, Acock, et al., 2017). Most of the literature which has considered the role of age has utilised restricted samples (e.g., students) and therefore caution is warranted in concluding whether age has an impact upon bystander intervention.

Bystander Cognitions in SV Contexts

The most consistently researched bystander cognitions are feelings of responsibility to intervene and confidence to intervene. In terms of responsibility, studies have consistently shown that when bystanders feel greater responsibility to intervene they are more likely to do so (e.g., Arbeit, 2018; Katz, Colbert, et al., 2015). Similarly, bystanders who have not intervened when they could have, position themselves as outsiders to the incident and shift the responsibility to others (Lamb & Attwell, 2019).

With regard to feelings of confidence to intervene, studies have consistently shown that those who have greater confidence in their ability to intervene and prevent SV from occurring are more likely to do so (e.g., Hust et al., 2013; Zelin et al., 2019). Relatedly, studies have found that the perceived ease of intervention is significantly associated with the likelihood that bystanders will intervene (Hoxmeier, Flay, et al., 2018; Savage et al., 2017). When included in a regression model with other predictors, only one study found that the

perceived success or ease was not significantly associated with intentions to intervene (Collazo & Kmec, 2019). Altogether, the literature leads one to conclude that greater feelings of responsibility and confidence are associated with greater likelihood of intervention.

Rape Myth Attitudes

Rape myth attitudes represent stereotypes and false beliefs regarding experiences of SV that support victim blaming and minimise experiences of SV (Burt, 1980). Most studies have shown that bystanders who endorse rape myths are less likely to intervene (e.g., Gable et al., 2017; Zelin et al., 2019). When included in a regression model with other predictors, only one study found this variable to be unrelated to bystander intervention behaviour (Franklin et al., 2017). The endorsement of rape myths can negatively impact bystander intervention because such beliefs minimise the perceived importance of SV incidents (Arbeit, 2018). Altogether, the literature consistently shows that reduced endorsement of rape myths is associated with greater intervention likelihood.

Previous Victimization

This variable refers to the bystander's previous victimisation experiences in both SV and other physical violence contexts. Most studies have shown that previous victimisation does not impact bystander intervention (e.g., Jacobson & Eaton, 2018; Reynolds-Tylus et al., 2019). Where studies have found a relationship, the direction of this relationship is inconsistent. These inconsistencies suggest other variables may be impacting if and how a bystander's victimisation experiences influence their intervention behaviour. One such variable may be whether their past experiences were positive or negative, both in terms of input from bystanders and experiences in engaging with external services. Altogether, the literature suggests that previous victimisation is not a variable with a strong association to bystander intervention, but one cannot be certain until the inconsistencies within the literature are investigated further. Given the high prevalence of SV victimisation (see World Health

Organization, 2021), it is vitally important that the responses to victims of SV continue to be improved. Not only is this important for the wellbeing of the victims themselves, but also for their willingness to advise future victims to engage with these services.

Bystander Fear of Violence

This variable refers to the bystander's fear of violence when they are considering whether to intervene. Currently, the role of fear has only been highlighted in qualitative research, but all studies have consistently shown that bystanders are less likely to intervene if they fear getting hurt or injured or if there would be punitive actions against the bystander (e.g., Hoxmeier et al., 2019; Lamb & Attwell, 2019). In such cases, more indirect intervention measures are considered, such as contacting an authority (Salazar et al., 2017). In sum, concerns of safety are important in determining the best action to take in response to SV and can impact if action is taken as well as the type of action.

Individual Variables: Summary and Implications

The current literature has shown the importance of some individual variables in their impact upon bystander intervention, many of which have important implications for theory and future research within the SV and IBSA literature. First, this review has shown that generally, being female is associated with an increased likelihood of bystander intervention in SV contexts. This aligns with previous reviews for other violent contexts (Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Labhardt et al., 2017). However, the current review has also shown that these differences are not always present and that, when considering specific actions, male bystanders are more likely to intervene through confronting the perpetrator and seemingly more likely to undertake actions which are more of a risk to their safety in comparison to female bystanders. There are many gendered reasons why differences between males and females occur. For example, research has shown that the endorsement of masculine norms can inform bystander intervention behaviours (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019), which may explain the

differences seen between males and females in their willingness to intervene. Future research could help better understand the causes of these differences. In considering the implications of these findings for IBSA contexts, recent evidence shows that both males and females are equally as likely to be a bystander to IBSA, with higher rates of female bystanders to behaviours such as downblousing (i.e., non-consensual taking of images) (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b; Henry et al., 2020). Altogether, with some evidence suggesting males are less likely to intervene in SV contexts and given the overall equal rates of being a bystander to IBSA across males and females, it would be important to see if similar patterns in bystander intervention occur in IBSA contexts.

In contrast to the role of bystander gender, the role of feelings of responsibility and confidence, rape myths, and bystander fear of violence is much clearer. Notably, both greater feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene has been shown to increase the likelihood of intervention in SV contexts. Similar findings exist in the broader bystander intervention literature for other contexts (Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020). Importantly, these findings align with the Bystander Intervention Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). Specifically, the Bystander Intervention Model describes how greater feelings of responsibility and greater feelings of confidence to intervene will encourage greater likelihood of intervention, and therefore the current evidence provides support for the applicability of this model to SV contexts. The TPB also identifies feelings of confidence as important for behavioural intentions. Investigating whether such variables are important in IBSA contexts would be a worthwhile endeavour given the potential to influence these variables using educational materials (i.e., we can encourage greater feelings of responsibility and confidence). Equally, programmes to date which have incorporated techniques to foster feelings of responsibility and build the necessary skills to intervene have had some success in increasing bystander intervention (e.g., Kettrey et al., 2019).

Regarding individual characteristics of the bystander, rape myth endorsement has received a lot of attention in the SV literature. Consistently, research shows that endorsement of rape myths is associated with reduced likelihood of bystander intervention. Literature reviews of other violent contexts (including SV) have also shown endorsement of rape myths to be a barrier of intervention (Labhardt et al., 2017; Robinson et al., 2020). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that beliefs regarding minimisation and blame are at play in IBSA contexts. Victims of IBSA have often reported experiencing victim blaming, particularly if they took and sent the images in the first instance (Campbell et al., 2020; McGlynn et al., 2020), and perception studies have shed light on problematic attitudes regarding victim responsibility in these situations (Gavin & Scott, 2019). This suggests that IBSA-myths may be a barrier of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts and therefore worthy of future investigation.

Finally, when considering bystander cognitions related to the situation, the SV literature has shown that fear of violence or retaliation from perpetrators is associated with reduced likelihood of bystander intervention. This has also been found in reviews of other violent contexts (Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020). In IBSA contexts, fear of violence may be particularly important when being a bystander to the non-consensual taking of images (e.g., upskirting), given the shared characteristics between these contexts and SV contexts, such as the likely physical proximity between the perpetrator and bystander. Conversely, the role of fear or concerns for safety may be less pronounced for the non-consensual sharing and making threats to share images. Nonetheless, investigating these variables in IBSA contexts would have important implications.

Situational Variables

Situational variables are operationalised as variables which are reflective of the SV incident itself, both in terms of the sexually violent behaviour and the people involved.

Overall, 49 studies measured, manipulated, or discussed the impact of situational variables upon bystander intervention in contexts of SV. The most researched situational variables (based on the number of studies which reported upon these variables) included *the presence of other bystanders* ($n = 17$), *the relationship between the bystander, victim, and perpetrator* ($n = 19$), and *severity of the sexually violent behaviour* ($n = 13$). These are discussed in turn.

Presence of Other Bystanders

This variable refers to the presence of other bystanders during the potential SV incident and how this presence impacts bystander intervention. Despite the pervasive idea in the bystander literature that the presence of other bystanders inhibits bystander action through a diffusion of responsibility – the well-known ‘bystander effect’ (Darley & Latané, 1968) – this is not consistently supported by the literature. Some studies have found that the presence of other bystanders inhibits intervention (e.g., Ball & Wesson, 2017; Katz, 2015), whereas other studies have shown that this can encourage intervention (Harari et al., 1985; Katz, Colbert, et al., 2015).

This lack of consistency in the literature may be due to the role of other variables. For example, audience inhibition, which refers to a fear of looking foolish in front of others (Burn, 2009), may explain why the presence of others can be inhibiting. All studies have shown that where bystanders feel a greater sense of audience inhibition they are less likely to intervene (e.g., Burn, 2009; Katz, Colbert, et al., 2015). Research has also shown that bystanders feel greater comfort when intervening if they see others intervening or have successfully convinced others to intervene too (Oesterle et al., 2018; Reid & Dundes, 2017). However, when an incident is already under the care of relevant authorities or being handled by others, bystanders have not intervened (Hoxmeier et al., 2019; Lamb & Attwell, 2019).

Conversely, feelings of safety can help explain why the presence of other bystanders can increase the likelihood of intervention, as the fear of physical or violent retaliation may

be reduced. Supporting this, studies have shown that being in the presence of peers can encourage intervention as it mitigates any fears about being physically attacked in response to intervening (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Oesterle et al., 2018). Having said this, one study found that bystanders may avoid intervention when in the presence of peers due to fear that it might escalate the situation (Hackman et al., 2017). For example, intervening with friends may cause the perpetrator's friends to retaliate and thereby making the situation worse. Equally, when the perpetrator is surrounded by their peers, this can result in a reluctance to intervene (Reid & Dundes, 2017).

Altogether, the role of the presence of other bystanders remains unclear. However, there is some evidence to suggest that our understanding of the role of this variable requires further scrutiny in terms of potential mediating and moderating variables. The literature to date indicates that audience inhibition and feelings of safety may be two important variables to consider in this endeavour.

Relationship Between the Bystander, Victim, and Perpetrator

The second most researched situational variable is the relationship between the bystander and the victim. Overall, research has found that, regardless of gender, bystanders who are friends with or know the victim are more willing to intervene (e.g., Franklin et al., 2020; Hackman et al., 2017). Only a few studies have reported no impact of the bystander's relationship with the victim upon intervention (e.g., Moschella et al., 2018; Zelin et al., 2019). Studies have also shown that bystanders who know the victim or are friends with the victim are more likely to directly intervene and less likely to delegate (find someone else to help) compared to those who do not know the victim (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Palmer et al., 2018).

The facilitative role of a personal relationship with the victim is due to increased feelings of empathy, responsibility (Katz, Paziienza, et al., 2015), and sense of loyalty and

obligation (Gable et al., 2017). Bystanders who are friends with the victim are also in a better position to assess the situation, and determine whether it is problematic and warrants intervention (Oesterle et al., 2018; Pugh et al., 2016). For example, friends are able to provide signals to other friends when they are in trouble (Pugh et al., 2016).

Despite the clear facilitative impact of a relationship with the victim, the impact of the relationship between the bystander and the perpetrator is much less clear. Some studies find no effect of the relationship between the bystander and perpetrator upon bystander intervention (e.g., Franklin et al., 2020; Moschella et al., 2018). However, most research has shown that this relationship does have an impact, but the specific nature of this impact is inconsistent. Some research has shown that bystanders who know the perpetrator are more likely to directly intervene or confront them but are less likely to help the victim or engage with outside resources, such as the police or university campus support (e.g., Bennett et al., 2017; Katz & Nguyen, 2016). Other research has shown that bystanders are less willing to directly confront someone they are friends with as they feel there should be a level of trust for their friends (Butler et al., 2017). Strategies that have been reported to manage this situation are for bystanders to use discrete actions to avoid embarrassing their friends in public, such as pulling them away from the situation or distracting them rather than making a scene (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Wamboldt et al., 2019).

Overall, the current literature shows that relationships are important in the context of bystander intervention, and despite a greater lack of clarity for the role of the relationship with the perpetrator, one can conclude that bystanders are more likely to engage in actions which support or protect whomever they are friends with.

Severity of Sexually Violent Behaviour

This section groups together all the ways in which studies have measured or manipulated the severity of the sexually violent behaviour. Despite operationalising and

measuring the severity of the behaviour in different ways, the overall message from these studies is clear: bystanders are more likely to intervene when the behaviour is of greater severity (e.g., Bennett et al., 2017; Jacobson & Eaton, 2018). This includes when the immediate danger to the victim is apparent (Oesterle et al., 2018; Pugh et al., 2016), or when the behaviour is perceived to meet the threshold of sexual harassment or considered to be unethical (e.g., Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Collazo & Kmec, 2019). Similarly, bystanders appear to wait for a situation to escalate before intervening, or will avoid intervention if the situation is de-escalating (e.g., Arbeit, 2018; Hoxmeier et al., 2019). Altogether, the evidence suggests there are internal ‘thresholds’ of severity that bystanders use to assess whether they will intervene. Inversely, these thresholds act as a barrier in contexts where behaviour is not considered to be serious enough, or to have escalated sufficiently, for bystander intervention.

Situational Variables: Summary and Implications

The current literature shows that being friends with or knowing the victim and witnessing more severe behaviour both increase the likelihood that bystanders will intervene in SV contexts. This aligns with previous review articles which found that in a range of bystander contexts, intervention is more likely when a member of one’s own peer group is the victim (Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020). Additionally, a relationship with the perpetrator seems to encourage greater intervention, but in these cases, intervention will focus upon that which limits the potential negative repercussions for their friend. When considered together, the role of relationships and behaviour severity both seem to play a role in the perceived ambiguity of the situation. For example, witnessing more severe behaviour is likely to reduce the ambiguity of the situation because it would be clear to the bystander that the situation is one where intervention is necessary, thereby increasing the likelihood of intervention. Equally, having a relationship with the victim has the potential to provide

greater insight of whether there is a risk to the victim in that case and increases feelings of bystander responsibility.

The role of relationships may also be relevant in IBSA contexts. Often the perpetration of IBSA, particularly the non-consensual sharing of images, occurs within peer groups, with victims reporting that images have been shared with friends and work colleagues (Henry et al., 2020). However, more recent evidence has shown that, for respondents reporting on their most recent experience of being a bystander to IBSA, a large proportion (47%) did not know the victim. Further, in regard to the relationship with the perpetrator, only 30% were strangers whilst 62% were known to the bystander (i.e., intimate or former intimate partners, family member or friend, or acquaintance) (Flynn et al., 2022b). If there are inhibitive effects upon bystander intervention when the victim is a stranger or the perpetrator is a friend, this would be important to know given the potential implications.

Despite the clarity of the previously mentioned variables and the associated implications, there are still gaps in understanding regarding the presence of other bystanders in SV contexts. Evidence has shown the presence of other bystanders to be both facilitative and inhibitive, which is likely due to mediating or moderating variables which are yet to be properly considered in the literature. Two variables that have been considered here are audience inhibition and feelings of safety. Given that many instances of SV and the non-consensual taking of images occur in public settings (e.g., upskirting on public transport), and that the non-consensual sharing of images can occur within peer groups, an understanding of how the presence of others, and the relationships between the bystander and these other individuals, impacts the likely help that a victim receives is vital. Equally, as the presence of other bystanders is not something under one's own control, it is important for future research endeavours to consider the role of other variables (e.g., audience inhibition or feelings of

safety), which could be controlled or at a minimum, help inform the advice or education provided to potential bystanders if they are to find themselves in such situations.

Contextual Variables

The third and final group of variables are contextual variables, and these are operationalised as variables which reflect the wider contextual environment. Overall, 42 studies measured, manipulated, or discussed the impact of contextual variables upon bystander intervention. The most researched contextual variables (based on the number of studies which reported upon these variables) included *social norms towards intervening against SV* ($n = 14$) and *organisational response to SV* ($n = 7$). These are discussed in turn.

Social Norms Towards Intervening Against SV

Social norms towards intervening against SV reflect beliefs about whether peers would approve of intervention against SV (injunctive norms) or whether peers would enact intervention behaviour against SV themselves (descriptive norms) (Cialdini et al., 1991). Generally, studies have shown that if bystanders believe that peers would approve of them intervening, or they believe that peers would intervene themselves, they have greater intentions to intervene (e.g., Reynolds-Tylus et al., 2019; Savage et al., 2017). Only two studies found no significant relationship (Hust et al., 2019; Leone & Parrott, 2019b).

Social norms which are unsupportive of intervention can impact bystander behaviour due to fears of social disapproval or exclusion for taking such actions, thereby making them less likely to intervene (Allnock & Atkinson, 2019; Reid & Dundes, 2017). Some specific fears that bystanders have reported are those of being labelled a ‘cock-blocker’ or a ‘snitch’ by their peers (e.g., Allnock & Atkinson, 2019; Butler et al., 2017). Altogether, these findings suggest that social norms towards intervention is an important contextual variable to consider, and that fears of an unwelcomed response or disapproval from peers can inhibit bystander intervention.

Organisational Response to SV

This variable groups together all the ways in which the response of an organisation or individuals within an organisation have been shown to impact bystander intervention. All the variables, in one way or another, reflect the cultural position of an organisation regarding their handling of SV, which has been considered in a variety of different ways in the literature. In military, sporting, and school contexts, both the anticipated response to poor behaviour or to claims of SV, and the response of those in authority, appear to be important to bystanders. Specifically, research has shown that the anticipation of less negative outcomes to the reporting of, or seeking of mental health services (Allnock & Atkinson, 2019; Holland & Cipriano, 2019), and more positive responses from those in charge, are associated with greater intentions to intervene (e.g., Holland & Cipriano, 2019; Kroshus et al., 2018). Relatedly, evidence has shown that having positive relationships with those in authority can increase the likelihood that a bystander will intervene (Allnock & Atkinson, 2019).

Similar findings are reported when looking at organisational expectations and policies. Specifically, evidence has shown that when bystanders receive greater communication about appropriate behaviour in social settings (Kroshus et al., 2018), and the possible legal or financial consequences that may arise should any form of SV take place (Wamboldt et al., 2019), they are more likely to intervene. Studies have also found that bystanders are more likely to report sexual harassment when companies have a zero-tolerance policy towards sexual harassment, as opposed to a standard policy or no policy at all (Jacobson & Eaton, 2018). Of course, the positive impact of policies and procedures in any setting can only be realised if bystanders have trust that the organisation will appropriately enforce them, and may be reluctant to intervene in cases where they do not have this trust (Allnock & Atkinson, 2019). Bystanders who have a greater sense of trust in an

organisation's sexual assault system are more likely to take some form of action (Holland et al., 2016). Altogether, despite a lack of consistency in the way in which organisational responses are operationalised, one can see that organisational responses towards SV have an impact on bystander intervention.

Contextual Variables: Summary and Implications

Overall, the clear role of both social norms towards intervention and organisational responses to SV shows the importance of a bystander's wider peer and community context in bystander intervention. Specifically, more positive social norms towards intervention and more positive organisational responses to SV both increase the likelihood that bystanders will intervene in SV contexts. These findings mirror those found in previous reviews which showed that such peer perceptions and cultures within organisations can impact bystander intervention in a range of violent and emergency settings (e.g., Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Robinson et al., 2020). Further, social norms towards intervention are a component of the TPB in predicting behavioural intentions, thereby providing further support for the application of this model in SV contexts. The role of social norms towards intervention is equally worthy of investigation in IBSA contexts. Many instances of IBSA, particularly the non-consensual sharing of images, occur within peer group settings both online and offline (Henry et al., 2020). Research has also shown that many teen victims of non-consensual sharing prefer to receive support from their friends and handle the incident within their peer groups (Dodge & Lockhart, 2021). Given the role of peers within IBSA contexts, looking at this variable in this context is important.

Finally, the findings regarding organisational responses to SV have important implications for guiding future research in both SV and IBSA contexts. This variable is likely to be important in IBSA contexts given that victims report images being taken and shared in these settings (e.g., workplaces) (Henry et al., 2020). However, this review has documented

significant variation in the operationalisation of this variable across the literature. An obvious implication of this is the need to have greater consistency in investigating the role of an organisational culture. Until there is greater clarity on the specifics of an organisational culture, any specific recommendations for future research endeavours remain unclear.

General Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to present a systematic review of the literature which has considered the role of key variables in bystander intervention in SV contexts, with the associated aim of guiding future research looking at facilitators and barriers for IBSA contexts. The second aim was to present the literature in the context of an ecological framework by distinguishing between individual, situational, and contextual variables.

The results section above outlined the findings of this SV in regard to facilitators and barriers in SV contexts and identified the potential applications of these variables to IBSA contexts. However, there are also more general implications of these findings for future research which are important. First, due attention should be given to the type of bystander intervention behaviour under investigation, in terms of how the behaviours are operationalised, study design, and in the development of outcome measures. Much of the literature within this review did not acknowledge the different types of intervention, either in terms of when or how the behaviour is enacted (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention, and direct intervention; Powell, 2014), nor the target of the intervention behaviour (e.g., the victim or perpetrator). These types of intervention behaviours are vastly different so it stands to reason that some individuals are likely to engage in some forms of intervention but not others, and equally that some variables may have an impact upon some, but not all, forms of bystander intervention. This lack of consideration is likely one of the causes of inconsistent or null findings across the literature. To address this, the development of research questions and/or measures should allow for greater specificity regarding the

bystander behaviour under investigation. A second implication regarding the use of outcome measures is transparency relating to questionnaires and measurement items. Many articles purported to have modified or revised already existing measures in their study but failed to detail how. Therefore, to ensure greater consistency across the literature regarding the measures used, the data, and the reduction of noise within the data, efforts should be made to give greater consideration to measure development and the types of bystander intervention behaviour under investigation. Any modifications to existing measures should also be described.

In line with the second aim of this review, in using an ecological framework it was important to consider the interactions between variables, both within and outside of their primary groups (i.e., individual, situational, contextual), as well as mediations and moderations (Banyard, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Unfortunately, very few studies considered these aspects despite the benefits of doing so. In both SV and IBSA contexts, uncovering any underlying causes for an effect of, or relationship between, variables and bystander intervention behaviour would allow a greater understanding of human behaviour in these contexts. This would be particularly insightful when looking at variables which cannot be modified (e.g., gender or relationship with the victim) if one wants to work towards utilising these findings in practice (i.e., development of education materials to encourage bystander intervention).

Limitations

The current review has some limitations which relate specifically to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. First, as only published articles were included in this systematic review, it is possible that excluded unpublished articles were relevant, including theses and dissertations. Therefore, this systematic review may be subject to the effects of publication bias. However, this decision was made to ensure that the knowledge obtained was peer

reviewed to protect against the inclusion of low-quality studies. Future research may benefit from considering unpublished literature alongside quality assessment criteria to ensure a suitable level of quality is upheld.

Second, it is important to acknowledge the strict exclusion of studies which investigated primary prevention bystander behaviours, either as their main focus or by the inclusion of related questionnaire items, as this limits the scope of the review. Primary prevention behaviour remains an important consideration and avenue for research for the prevention of SV and IBSA, and the exclusion of such studies from this review should not be taken as an indication of irrelevance. However, given the aim of this thesis and the range and scope of behaviours that could be classified as primary prevention behaviours, the inclusion of these would have significantly burdened the review in terms of the number of additional articles. Primary prevention behaviours also have important differences compared to tertiary, secondary, and direct intervention measures, namely that such actions are not in response to a specific incident of SV. Therefore, including studies which looked at primary prevention behaviour would have reduced the clarity of the review's narrative and the identification of variables of potential relevance for bystander intervention in IBSA contexts in line with the aim of this thesis, particularly since many articles did not directly specify the type of intervention behaviour being studied.

Finally, although not a limitation of the current review per se, but rather a consequence of the available literature, there was a lack of diversity considered, such as ethnicity, nationality, or culture, both in terms of the variables investigated and the samples used within the studies reviewed. As can be seen within the SSM, most of the literature in this field, and therefore the studies included in this review, utilised university student samples in the US which limits the diversity and generalisability of the findings. Equally, most of the literature utilised white-majority samples. Furthermore, perceptions and attitudes towards SV

differ greatly across cultures (Kalra & Bhugra, 2013), and the current review has shown the importance of a wider context in impacting bystander behaviour. Altogether, greater diversity within samples should be used in future research.

Conclusion

This review has provided a summary and synthesis of the most important findings regarding variables which are related to bystander intervention in SV contexts. These findings were structured using an ecological framework by considering the role of individual, situational, and contextual variables to provide a holistic understanding of this behaviour. In particular, facilitators of intervention include greater feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene, being friends with the victim, greater severity of the SV incident, positive social norms towards intervention, and supportive organisational cultures and responses to SV. Barriers of intervention include the endorsement of rape myth attitudes, fears of violence occurring as a result of intervening, and audience inhibition. Overall, these findings have important theoretical and practical implications which are expanded upon in Chapter 7: General Discussion. Further, these findings have important implications for guiding future research in looking at facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA (and other SV) contexts. These findings have informed the empirical work within the chapters that follow.

Chapter 3: A Focus Group Study Looking at Intended Behavioural Responses of Bystanders in Image-Based Sexual Abuse Contexts

Across this chapter and the next, findings from the first empirical study of the thesis are presented. This study utilised a focus group method to gain insight into the behavioural responses of bystanders to image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) and identify facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in these contexts. These findings were split into two chapters, with each addressing one of the two research aims. The current chapter presents the findings in relation to the first aim: to identify how bystanders think they would react in a variety of different IBSA contexts. This focus group study is currently under review in Journal of Child Sexual Abuse.

Introduction

As shown in Chapter 1, there is a growing interest from the public, academics, and policy makers in IBSA (Powell et al., 2019) and research to date has shown that IBSA is highly prevalent and can have detrimental impacts on victims (e.g., Henry et al., 2019, 2020; McGlynn et al., 2020). However, despite this increase in attention, there remains little focus or empirical investigation of the role of bystanders in the prevention of, or minimisation of harm from, this behaviour (Flynn et al., 2022b; Harder, 2020).

Although little research has considered bystanders in the context of IBSA, many empirical studies and reviews have documented bystander behaviour in sexual violence (SV) and domestic violence (DV) contexts. For example, a recent study by Lee et al. (2021) asked high-school students to write a plan of action for a future encounter of SV or DV. They found that the most common action reported was confronting the perpetrator by telling them to stop the behaviour. Bystanders also reported being likely to help the victim by checking in with them, offering emotional support, or by removing them from the situation. Furthermore,

some described how they would get in the middle of a situation to physically break it up, create a distraction, or engage in some kind of discussion, such as asking the perpetrators why they were engaging in that behaviour. Finally, many described how they would engage with others to help them intervene, such as school personnel, peers, or the police. Research looking at actual bystander experiences found that in situations where a man was seen talking to a woman who looked uncomfortable, the most common type of intervention was distraction (e.g., start talking to the victim), and a combination of distraction and distancing (e.g., start talking to the victim and make an excuse to take victim away) (Casper et al., 2022). In cases where a bystander witnessed an intoxicated person being taken to someone's room, direct intervention was the most common response (e.g., checked intoxicated individual knew what was happening and told other individual to leave them alone).

Further, a recent systematic review by Debnam and Mauer (2021) summarised five trends in the literature to describe the range of intervention behaviours from adolescent bystanders in DV contexts: direct verbal confrontation, direct physical confrontation, distraction, indirect intervention, and passive or active acceptance. Direct verbal confrontation encompassed verbal confrontation of the perpetrator or offering support or advice to the victim. Direct physical confrontation included instances where bystanders would use physical aggression or a physical act to separate the perpetrator and the victim. Distraction techniques referred to instances where bystanders would try to distract the perpetrator or remove the victim from the situation. Indirect methods referred to accessing outside support, such as from adults or by helping a victim to access support services. Finally, passive or active acceptance referred to behaviours that are not supportive of the victim or work towards stopping the abuse (i.e., the bystanders do not do anything).

Despite the gap in our understanding regarding how bystanders would react to witnessing or becoming aware of IBSA, there is good reason to believe that bystanders could

play an important role in the prevention of this behaviour. First, individuals may be approached by friends who have experienced or are experiencing these forms of abuse and thereby may act as a potential source of informal support. Second, the non-consensual sharing of images prescribes the sharing of images with other people, and these 'other people' are bystanders to the non-consensual sharing of images. Equally, individuals may witness public acts of the non-consensual taking of nude or sexual images, such as upskirting on public transport. Third, in terms of prevalence, a recent survey found that 64% of respondents had witnessed some form of IBSA (Flynn et al., 2022a). Altogether, this suggests that there are many opportunities for someone to become a bystander and that there is a high likelihood of this happening (see Chapter 1 for further information).

Initial findings from the limited research considering bystanders in the context of IBSA have shown comparable bystander actions to those from SV and DV contexts. For the non-consensual sharing of images, Harder (2020) reported that some bystanders to this behaviour have intervened by verbally confronting the person who was sharing these images. However, participants also reported more passive responses such as simply acknowledging the behaviour, despite feeling ambivalent towards the behaviour. Furthermore, a recent survey reported that bystanders to real-life incidents of IBSA were most likely to confront the perpetrator (56%), tell a friend, family member, or colleague (50%), distance themselves from the perpetrator (47%), and support the victim (47%) (Flynn et al., 2022a). Comparatively fewer contacted the police or other officials (15%), threatened the perpetrator or took physical action (13%), or reported the perpetrator to a provider or online platform (7%). Further, although Flynn et al. (2022b) conducted focus groups with hypothetical scenarios similar to the current study, they focused on understanding the key facilitators and barriers of bystander behavioural intention in response to two forms of IBSA: the non-consensual taking and sharing of nude or sexual images. Therefore, the current study both

complements and extends the research of Flynn and colleagues by focusing on understanding bystander behavioural intentions, and the nuances of these behavioural intentions, in response to all three forms of IBSA: the non-consensual taking and sharing of, and threats to share, nude or sexual images.

The aim addressed in this chapter, is to identify how bystanders think they would react (i.e., their behavioural intentions) in a variety of different IBSA contexts. To achieve this aim, focus groups were used to explore three hypothetical IBSA scenarios whereby participants were asked to put themselves in the position of a bystander and describe how they would react. Each scenario addressed one of the three IBSA behaviours: non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and making threats to share images (i.e., taken, shared, and threatened scenarios). The findings of this study were also used to guide and inform the development of measures and items for future empirical studies within this thesis, thereby addressing one of the limitations identified in Chapter 2, namely the lack of acknowledgement and consideration of different types of intervention behaviour in empirical investigations.

Method

Participants

Thirty-five university students took part in one of seven focus groups, with between four and eight participants per focus group. Thirty-one participants identified as female and four identified as male. This resulted in four female-only focus groups and three mixed-gender focus groups. The average age of participants was 23.00 years ($SD = 7.41$, range of 18 to 53 years). Most participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 22$), followed by bisexual ($n = 11$), homosexual ($n = 1$), and asexual ($n = 1$). Most participants identified as White ($n = 20$), followed by Asian/Asian British ($n = 7$), Mixed/multiple ethnic groups ($n = 2$), and Other ($n = 6$).

Materials

Participants were provided with a participant information sheet, a data privacy information sheet, a consent form, a debrief sheet, and a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix C). For the focus group discussions, they were provided with three scenarios (via PowerPoint and print), with each scenario describing a different form of IBSA: 1) the taken scenario described an incident where the bystander witnesses a person trying to take an intimate image of someone on a train; 2) the shared scenario described an incident where the bystander receives a sexually explicit image of one of their friends from their friend's ex-partner, and finally, 3) the threatened scenario described an incident where the bystander is informed by a friend of theirs how an ex-partner is threatening to share sexually explicit images of them with their parents. These scenarios can be found in Appendix D. The researcher followed a semi-structured schedule to facilitate the discussions (see Appendix E).

Pilot Study

A pilot focus group was conducted to assess the suitability of the scenarios and semi-structured interview schedule before the main stage of data collection commenced. A total of five participants, including four females and one male, took part. After the pilot focus group was conducted, feedback was collated from the focus group members and the research team, who then reflected and acted upon this feedback in revising the materials and procedure. The feedback and reflections from the pilot study resulted in four main changes: 1) introduction of an ice-breaker task; 2) changes to the wording of the scenarios and probes for greater clarity; 3) removal of the focus group facilitator from the focus group discussions (i.e., sitting away from the group) to avoid question-and-answer style discussions; and 4) removal of redundant questions.

Procedure

All participants were recruited via a research participation scheme, posters displayed on the university campus, and word-of-mouth. Participants received course credits or a monetary reward of £10 for their participation. The study received ethical approval from Goldsmiths University's Research Ethics Committee. This study was preregistered on the Open Science Framework prior to any data collection (see Appendix F for preregistration).

Participants were instructed to read the participant information sheet and informed consent was obtained. The focus group facilitator began the session with an ice-breaker task, explaining the aim of the focus group, and the ground rules for the discussions. The main focus group discussions were split into three parts. In part one, participants were given each scenario sequentially and asked to consider how they would react in that scenario and why. The presentation of these scenarios was counterbalanced across all seven focus groups. Given the aim of this chapter in considering how bystanders think they would react in a variety of different IBSA contexts, part one of the discussions was most relevant. In part two, participants were asked to consider: 1) which of the three scenarios is the most problematic and why; 2) which they felt most responsible to help with and why; and 3) what they felt might influence their behaviour and why. In part three, participants considered whether particular factors would influence their behaviour in response to the incidents (e.g., gender of the victim/perpetrator, presence of other bystanders, relationships between the individuals involved, etc.). The questions and probes within part three were informed by the literature concerning facilitators and barriers of intervention described in Chapter 1 and the findings from the systematic review in Chapter 2. Finally, all participants were debriefed. All focus groups were recorded, and the duration of each focus group was between 70 and 85 minutes.

Analysis

The data were analysed using thematic analysis, following the five steps outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012). This analytical method was used given its systematic approach to identifying, organising, and providing insights into the commonalities within a data set and how a topic is spoken about. A primarily inductive approach was taken given the exploratory nature of the research, whereby the codes and themes were derived from the content of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

First, familiarisation with the data was carried out (step 1). This involved transcribing the audio recordings, checking the accuracy of the transcripts, and re-reading transcripts whilst making initial notes about the topics discussed. Second, initial codes were generated using MAXQDA 2020 (step 2; VERBI Software, 2020). After coding was completed, an initial search for themes was carried out (step 3). This involved collating codes into themes and refining these by ensuring the codes were addressing the research questions, combining codes where there was significant overlap, moving codes under different themes, making a note of codes which were only present in a small number of focus groups, and then summarising the codes to create higher level themes. The initial themes were then reviewed, including being modified or merged, to ensure that they worked in relation to the coded extracts and the entire dataset (step 4). Finally, themes were defined in relation to the two research aims and named (step 5).

The results presented are separated into themes and subthemes (where applicable) and direct quotes are used to illustrate relevant and important points. The name (a pseudonym to ensure anonymity) and gender of the participant, the focus group number, and IBSA scenario being discussed are presented for each quote e.g., (Lexi, f, FG2, taken scenario). For this study, the term 'victim' refers to those individuals who are the target of IBSA, for example, they have had a nude or sexually explicit image taken, shared, or threatened to be shared,

without their consent. Similarly, the term ‘perpetrator’ refers to those individuals who have taken, shared, or threatened to share a nude or sexually explicit image of another without that person’s consent. Finally, the term ‘bystander’ refers to those individuals who witness or become aware of the taking, sharing, or threatening to share a nude or sexually explicit image of another person without that person’s consent.

Results

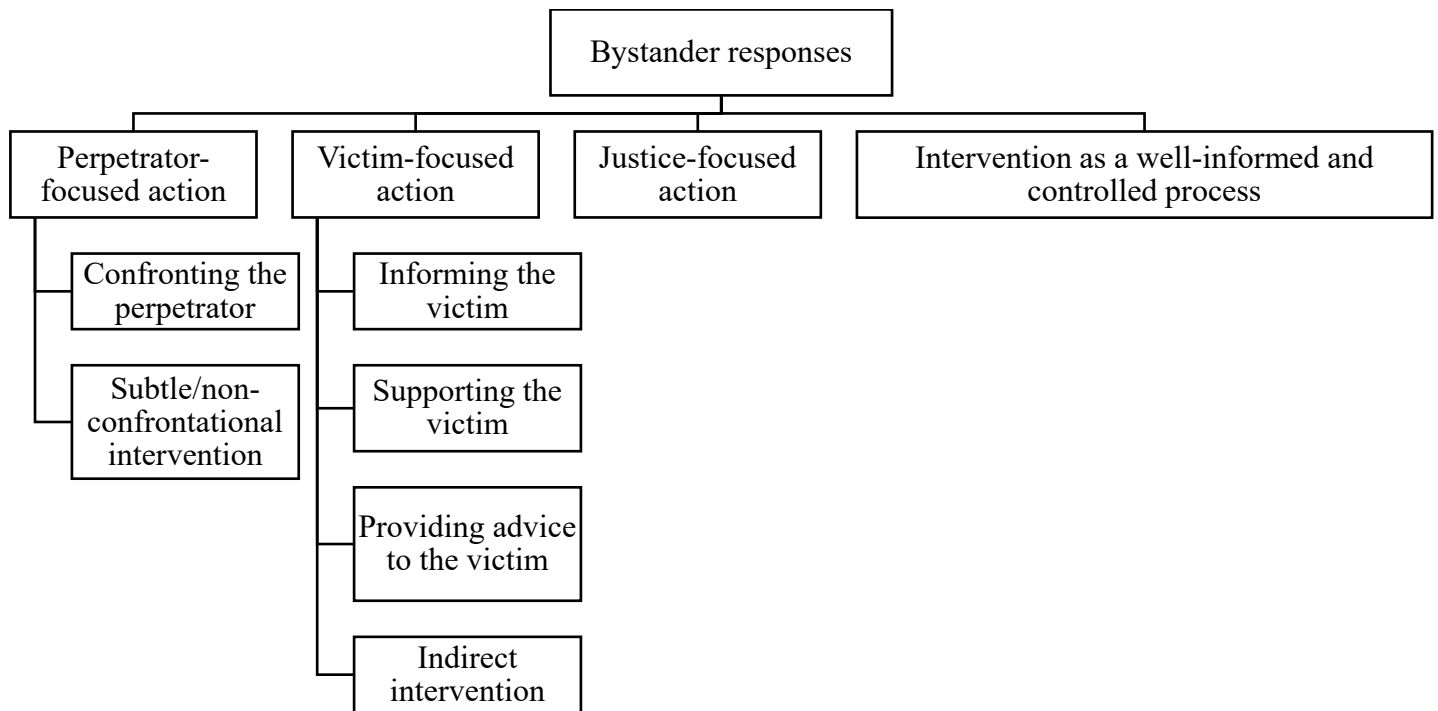
In addressing the aim to understand how bystanders think they would react in a variety of different IBSA contexts, the following themes were identified from the data: *perpetrator-focused action*, *victim-focused action*, *justice-focused action*, and *intervention as a well-informed and controlled process*. Each of these themes and associated subthemes are addressed in turn and can be identified in the thematic tree below (see Figure 3).

Perpetrator-Focused Action

This theme captures data which considers the variety of perpetrator-focused actions that participants discussed as a way to intervene. There are two subthemes which further distinguish the types of perpetrator-focused action that could be taken by bystanders: *confronting the perpetrator* and *subtle/non-confrontational intervention*.

Figure 3

Thematic Tree of Themes and Subthemes for Bystander Responses to IBSA



Confronting the Perpetrator

Across all focus groups and all three scenarios, participants discussed confronting the perpetrator as a way to intervene. Confronting the perpetrator appeared to manifest in a variety of ways depending on which scenario was being considered. As bystanders to the taken scenario, participants outlined how they would verbally confront the perpetrator about their behaviour, “If the person sitting next to me is the person taking the picture, I’d definitely be like ‘what are you doing? Like I can obviously see what you’re doing.’” (Lexi, f, FG2, taken scenario). Some participants even suggested that they would knock the phone out of the perpetrator's hand to stop them from taking the photos. As Imogen described, “I think I’d have probably hit the phone out of the guy’s hand before I’ve even thought about what’s even happening.” (f, FG1, taken scenario).

For the shared and threatened scenarios, participants described how they would confront the perpetrator, but in many instances, this was to try and gain some understanding of why they had sent or threatened to send these images:

George: My initial response would be to talk to this ex-partner ... there must be some reason why this ex-partner has, feels the need for actually sharing it so, perhaps talking to this ex-partner and umm and trying to understand why. (m, FG4, threatened scenario)

Anabelle: I would confront the person and ask them first of all, if you split up why are you still in possession of those images and why do you think you have the right to send them round and share them to people ... I'd definitely try and have a conversation with them and see why it is they're doing those things ... (f, FG7, shared scenario)

Despite many participants describing actions they would take to confront the perpetrator, some were adamant that they would not confront the perpetrator, as Amy described, "I wouldn't interact with them [the perpetrator]; I'd just leave that ..." (f, FG2, shared scenario). Stacey also described how she would not confront the perpetrator in the taken scenario, "I wouldn't go straight to the guy ... I don't feel capable of saying like 'excuse me', especially cause I don't know how they're going to react in case they hit me or something ..." (f, FG3, taken scenario).

Other participants described how confronting the perpetrator would not be an option particularly in cases where the perpetrator is intoxicated, as Stacey described, "If he's [the perpetrator] drunk ... I wouldn't try to even say anything to him ... cause there's just no point in reasoning with someone who's drunk." (f, FG3, taken scenario). Participants emphasised the importance of approaching the victim in these particular cases rather than confronting the perpetrator, "I think if the perpetrator was intoxicated, I'd be more

likely to go and support whoever it was [the victim] ... I wouldn't confront them." (Georgina, f, FG1, taken scenario).

Other participants spoke of being hesitant to respond by confronting the perpetrator, seemingly considering the potential negative outcomes or consequences of this. As Anabelle described, "...if I have the inner power like I would confront the person, but you never know how they're going to react ..." (f, FG7, taken scenario). Similar fears were described regarding the threatened scenario:

Bella: ... if he's threatening the friend then he's not going to be nice about it at all, in any way, so maybe it would [do] more harm than good ... I think the second you send anything to the ex; he's just going to send the pictures ... (f, FG1, threatened scenario)

Participants also described how confronting the perpetrator may not be the best course of action as it may not bring about any positive behavioural changes:

Logan: ... I know for a fact that my getting involved is just another person shouting, and it kind of ... removes the purpose of the, the constructive argument ... it just [be]comes more of a, social, social justice warriors like attacking one person, and it's like, it's not fixing the problem. (m, FG6, threatened scenario)

Eloise: I wouldn't have much hope with that [talking to the perpetrator], if I were, the friend, that I would have much success talking to the ex-partner 'cause he is clearly, clearly has no trouble violating like you know, basic, basic decency ... I wouldn't have much hope. (f, FG4, threatened scenario)

Subtle/Non-Confrontational Intervention

In contrast to confrontational actions towards the perpetrator, across most focus groups, there was also discussion surrounding the type of intervention directed at the perpetrator being more subtle or non-confrontational. This subtheme appeared to be most

relevant to the taken scenario. In contrast to directly confronting the perpetrator, as outlined previously, some participants described how they might take a kind of middle ground, where they would speak to or signal to the perpetrator that they were aware of their behaviour, but in a non-confrontational manner. As Lily described, “I wouldn’t particularly shout, but I would kind of make them aware that I saw type of thing.” (f, FG4, taken scenario). In most cases this option was put forward as a way to minimise the potential negative repercussions of talking to the perpetrator:

Imogen: If you just ... make the person aware, that you know what they are doing, by like, coughing or like moving your coat over ... do it subtly ... somehow make aware that ... like you know what they are doing then they will probably stop doing it. (f, FG1, taken scenario)

Eloise: If you are not 100% sure, you could say ‘I saw you taking ... an intimate photo of somebody, would you mind showing me your camera roll, I could be wrong?’, you don’t have to say you know ‘you were taking a photo’, so you don’t have to kind of outright accuse him, you can allow for the possibility that you were wrong. (f, FG4, taken scenario)

Also specific to the taken scenario, participants described how they would try to block the view of the camera as a less-confrontational way to deal with the situation. Molly described how she would use this technique, “I feel like what I would probably do is talk to the person who was standing and like maybe stand up and try and like get in the way.” (f, FG3, taken scenario).

Victim-Focused Action

In addition to perpetrator-focused action, victim-focused action was discussed as a way to intervene. There are four subthemes which further distinguish the types of victim-

focused action: *informing the victim, supporting the victim, providing advice to the victim, and indirect intervention.*

Informing the Victim

Across all focus groups, participants discussed how they would inform the victim of their victimisation. This subtheme was present for both the taken and shared scenarios². Specifically, in the taken scenario, participants described how they would approach the victim to let them know that someone was trying to take an intimate image of them, “I think I’d try and capture the attention of the person who was being photographed ... and then I’d tell them what happened.” (Georgina, f, FG1, taken scenario). In the shared scenario, the participants described how they would inform the victim that they had received an intimate image of them. Some participants expressed how they thought that this was the most important action that a bystander could take and needed to be done before anything else, “For me at least, the right thing to do would be to tell my friend, like the initial response would be to tell my friend.” (Lily, f, FG4, shared scenario). One focus group member described how he had been in a similar situation before, and described how he informed the victim what was happening in this case:

George: Yeah I remember when I was 13 ... one of my friends, umm, kind of showed me a picture of a girl in our class ... what I ended up doing was to send her a message and tell her that I knew someone had been kind of sharing pictures of her. (m, FG4, shared scenario)

Supporting the Victim

In addition to informing the victim of their victimisation, across all focus groups and all scenarios, participants discussed some element of supporting the victim in the situation.

² This would not be applicable to the threatened scenario because the victim has approached the bystander in this case and is therefore already aware of their victimisation.

However, showing concern and support for the victim was most commonly reported for both the shared and threatened scenarios. Specifically, participants described how they would be supportive of the victim, using reassurance and validation of how the victim feels:

Amy: I think maybe one of the most important things to do would be giving like moral support ... so saying like, even if, worst case scenario, the pictures do get sent, you're always going to be there, so that they have kind of like a safety net. (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

Hope: I would want to be there for them and be like "are you ok?" and like "how are we going to go about it, because obviously this person is like disrespecting you ..." (f, FG7, shared scenario)

Although this sentiment was most often discussed regarding the shared and threatened scenarios, it was still present when discussing the taken scenario. As Anabelle described, "... you just need to be able to support the person who that's happening to ... there needs to be this whole like societal supporting of things." (f, FG7, taken scenario). Furthermore, supporting the victim was key if the victim was intoxicated in the taken scenario. As Imogen described, "I think I'd focus more on the victim like and stay with them if they were drunker ..." (f, FG1, taken scenario). Stacey also described how she would feel protective of a victim who was intoxicated, "... if the woman was intoxicated, I would go full mumma bear on her ... I'd protect her ... I feel like I would want even more to protect her ... than if she wasn't." (f, FG3, taken scenario).

Additionally, many participants described how they would be concerned about the victim's mental health as a result of being victimised in this way, and some described personal experiences where victims of IBSA have been suicidal, and how this concern would ensure that they are emotionally supportive of the victim:

Hope: ... the most important thing is seeing how my friend is feeling ... how they're coping with it ... just supporting them as much as I can ... I would, yeah, really want to make sure that mentally that they're OK. (f, FG7, threatened scenario)

Relatedly, participants described how they would try to maintain composure and look beyond their own emotions and anger to help support the victim, almost by trying to be the voice of reason. As Georgina described, "I'd be furious ... but I'd try and maintain a level of composure so that I could support the friend." (f, FG1, shared scenario).

In terms of practical support, some participants described how they would go with the victim to the police if they wanted to report the incident. As Ola described, "I would also probably tell her to go to the police, and I'd be like 'I'll go with you.'" (f, FG3, shared scenario). This also shows evidence of providing advice to the victim, in the form of advising the victim to contact the police, which is linked to the theme below. Nina also described having been in a similar position with a friend, "I did have a friend that was in this situation actually ... and I went with her to the police." (f, FG7, threatened scenario).

Providing Advice to the Victim

Alongside actions of emotional support for the victim, participants considered more practical support for the victim. Specifically, across most focus groups, participants discussed how they would provide advice to the victim. This subtheme was present only in regard to the threatened scenario where participants said they would recommend that the victim talks to their parents about the threats as a way to minimise the potential damage. As Ola described, "I would like, actually probably tell my friend to tell her parents it's happening ..." (f, FG3, threatened scenario). Although, a few participants felt that this would have to be handled sensitively and may only be advisable in contexts where the relationship between the victim and the parents was appropriate:

Anabelle: ... I think it really depends on their standing with their parents ...
 depending on their relationship with their parents and the things that they talk about,
 if they had a relationship that allowed them to discuss this with them that would really
 help them, and it would alleviate a lot of the stress and pressure that this is causing ...
 (f, FG7, threatened scenario)

Finally, some participants discussed how the victim could deny that it is themselves in the images, particularly if the image did not display the victim's face. Imogen described how she would suggest this course of action, "I think if their face isn't in it, I'd advise them ... to just deny it's them." (f, FG1, threatened scenario).

Indirect Intervention

Lastly, some participants described actions that were more indirect or subtle but still focused upon the victim. This was particularly in regard to the taken scenario. Specifically, participants described how they would offer the victim their seat as a way to avoid confronting the situation directly. As Logan described, "I'd probably just swap seats with them, I'd stand and let them sit down, cause you don't have to bring any attention to it." (m, FG7, taken scenario). Georgina described a similar course of action, "I think I'd try and capture the attention of the person who was being photographed and say, 'do you want to come and sit with me or do you want to swap seats' ..." (f, FG1, taken scenario).

Justice-Focused Action

In addition to the consideration of actions focused upon the perpetrator and the victim, focus groups considered justice-focused action. Across all focus groups and all three scenarios, there was discussion surrounding the involvement of the police as a way to intervene. Most participants recognised that the behaviours described in the scenarios were illegal and therefore felt that one of the ways in which they would intervene would be by contacting the police or suggesting that the victim contact the police. For example, Lily

described how the behaviour in the threatened scenario is illegal and would encourage them to tell the victim to go to the police, “I would tell the person to go to the police. 'Cause it’s actually illegal and can be put down as harassment ...” (f, FG4, threatened scenario). Molly also described how informing the police in the shared scenario would mean it would be “on the record” and that if the images spread further, it would show that “he’s the only person that did that” (f, FG3, shared scenario). Furthermore, Nina described how in the shared scenario, there would be evidence of this behaviour in having received the image, and therefore, “I really would encourage contacting the police because you do have the evidence, right, if it was texted ... you might have some evidence and you could bring forward to the police.” (f, FG7, shared scenario).

Relatedly, and as can be seen from the previous quote, many participants discussed the importance of obtaining evidence of the behaviour to ensure that the police can help. Specifically, for the taken scenario, participants discussed recording the incident or the use of security cameras to obtain evidence. One focus group member drew upon a real-life example where the recording of an upskirting incident had a positive outcome:

Amy: I would probably record it ... 'cause that happened recently on a train and the guy got recorded and his family ended up finding out, only simply cause they had evidence ... if the person being recorded wanted to take things further and have some kind of legal action then there’s actually evidence that it went down. (f, FG2, taken scenario)

For the shared and threatened scenarios, participants felt that they should keep hold of the image sent to them or encourage their friend to retain evidence of the perpetrator’s threats, as such actions would be helpful in the pursuit of justice:

Georgina: I’d tell the friend to collect evidence of them doing this, of them threatening them ... by recording this, these threats, you can make a case and you can

say ‘look this is not OK, I can take you to court’ ... (f, FG1, shared and threatened scenarios)

Conversely, a large minority of participants actively discussed not involving the police or that involving the police would not be their first course of action:

Lucy: So I’d deal with it first, like I’d go find him, do what I can, and then we can take it to the police, like, but the initial thing needs to be stopped first, like the police aren’t going to be that fast ... (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

George described a similar reluctance to inform the police in the taken scenario, “... I feel like calling the police it wouldn’t, wouldn’t necessarily help in this situation cause it’s not like ... something that has been done already.” (m, FG4, taken scenario).

Intervention as a Well-Informed and Controlled Process

Alongside themes which focused upon particular actions in response to these IBSA scenarios, were considerations of bystander intervention behaviour more generally. Specifically, across all focus groups and all scenarios, there were discussions which suggested that as bystanders, their type of intervention needed to be well-thought-out, informed, and controlled. Participants described how they would want to get more information about the situation before deciding how to proceed. As Ola described, “... I’d be like, what ... when, what, where, how, what, you know, give me all the details.” (f, FG3, threatened scenario). Troy proposed a similar course of action for the taken scenario, “Well I think I would try and contact either of the people to see what the situation actually is because this could be like either blown out of proportion or go out of control.” (m, FG7, taken scenario). This theme is linked to the ‘confront the perpetrator’ subtheme outlined previously, whereby bystanders would seek to question the perpetrator’s motives as this may provide additional insight and understanding of how best to approach the situation.

Participants discussed their fears surrounding the uncertainty of what they had seen or heard if they were to find themselves in any of these situations, and the desire to be well-informed often resulted in hesitation amongst the participants. As Nicola described, “I’d be scared that I might get it wrong, and that the repercussions of that ... I’d be second guessing myself.” (f, FG1, taken scenario). Furthermore, this desire to be well-informed appeared to have an impact on the actions that they would take:

Troy: 'Cause you don’t know like ... what's really happening, whether this situation is what you think it is ... so it’s a good thing to check with one of them, preferably the person on the aisle, as to what we think is happening is actually happening, or if it’s something else. (m, FG7, taken scenario)

In addition to feeling hesitant in their actions due to second-guessing what was happening, some participants described initial concerns regarding how they should intervene with some suggesting that they would be unlikely to do anything. As Ola described, “I think I would freeze up; I would not know what to do.” (f, FG3, taken scenario). Troy described similar concerns, “... it would be a mixture of panic and worry in the sense that panic ... in terms of how am I supposed to react now, what am I supposed to do? ...” (m, FG7, taken scenario). Lola even felt that she would likely ignore what was happening, “...realistically I wouldn’t, I’d just like ... yeah probably block it out ...” (f, FG6, taken scenario).

Across both the taken and threatened scenarios participants showed evidence of a conflict between the ‘correct’ actions and those that they would want to perform. For the taken scenario, the ‘correct’ action appeared to be to say something or bring attention to the situation, but many participants felt that this may not be what they would actually do (i.e., they might do nothing). As Frankie explained, “There’s what I want to do because I want to do the morally right thing, which is make a big fuss, and then there is what I’d really do, would I really make a fuss, I don’t know” (f, FG4, taken scenario). Another focus group

member also highlighted the conflict between what they would like to do and what they would be likely to do in the moment:

Sophia: I think that instinctually I would want to react in the ways that you've [another participant] mentioned, like I would want to hit them, I'd like whack their phone out of their hands and have a go but I don't know if in the moment I would end up doing that. (f, FG5, taken scenario)

For the threatened scenario, the 'correct' action appeared to be maintaining composure and trying to be logical in their approach to dealing with the situation, but some felt that they might not be able to do this because they would be angry and would want to confront the perpetrator. Esme described this conflict, "I just like, all the answers, like that I'm giving are what I'd logically do but I know in this actual situation I would just be trying to tear down this ex-partner's door." (f, FG6, threatened scenario).

Relatedly, participants spoke of wanting their response to be rational and diplomatic rather than emotionally charged. Hope described wanting to "... look at all the things logically." (f, FG7, threatened scenario). However, some participants were less concerned about this, and felt that their reactions would be emotionally motivated and therefore that they would react first and think about the consequences later. As Lily described, "Where there are friends involved, I can get quite angry and not very calculated in my actions ... it's stuff like that I usually react first, think later." (f, FG4, shared scenario). Some also felt that their decisions to intervene were time-sensitive which may explain the need for a quick, less well-thought-out response:

Mia: I think like with scenario 1 [threatened scenario] you've got that opportunity to kind of see what the footings like in that situation, to discuss ... how would that friend want you to react and how, and what would be appropriate ... but in scenario 3 [taken scenario], you kind of have to make that split decision in a second ... I might have to

act on this person's behalf, the victim's behalf, because they might not know it's happening ... (f, FG5, taken and threatened scenarios)

Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to identify how bystanders think they would respond in a variety of different IBSA contexts using focus groups. In this section, these actions are summarised and considered in relation to past research. The wider implications of these findings beyond that of informing future empirical studies within this thesis, for example, implications for practice, are discussed in Chapter 7: General Discussion.

The current findings have shown that there are three main ways in which bystanders intend to intervene in IBSA contexts: by focusing their attention on the perpetrator of the behaviour, the victim of the behaviour, or by involving the criminal justice system. In addition to these three main avenues for intervention, a fourth theme reflected the need for the engagement in any bystander intervention behaviour to be a well-informed and controlled process.

In terms of perpetrator-focused behaviour, participants discussed confronting the perpetrator directly in response to being a bystander to IBSA. For the taken scenario, participants described how they would verbally confront the perpetrator to stop them from taking the photo or may physically confront the perpetrator by knocking their phone from their hand. These findings mirror those found in the SV and DV literature whereby bystanders reported using direct verbal confrontation techniques in these instances (Casper et al., 2022; Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Lee et al., 2021). Similarly, for the shared and threatened scenarios, participants described confronting the perpetrator via text, but often this form of confrontation was a way for the bystander to obtain an understanding of why the perpetrator had sent or threatened to send, this image. Again, this aligns with the findings of Lee et al. (2021) who reported that bystanders would engage in a discussion with the perpetrator to

understand why they did what they did. This also aligns with the findings of Flynn et al. (2022a) and Harder (2020) in IBSA contexts. However, not all participants in the current study felt that they would confront or approach the perpetrator. Often this was due to fear of how the perpetrator would respond to such confrontation. Relatedly, more subtle and non-confrontational intervention towards the perpetrator was described, whereby participants would try to indicate that they were aware of the behaviour without using direct verbal confrontation. These more subtle forms of intervention have not been highlighted in previous literature. This may reflect the nuances associated with IBSA behaviours in comparison to SV and DV more generally, whereby bystanders may consider more subtle forms of intervention to be suitable and proportionate to the threat being presented.

The second theme related to victim-focused action. Participants discussed how they would inform the victim of what was happening in cases where the victim was seemingly unaware. Again, this is a unique form of intervention in this context as generally victims of SV or DV are aware of their victimisation and therefore there is no need for a bystander to inform them of what is happening. Equally, participants described how they would want to provide some sort of support to the victim in these situations. This form of intervention also aligns with that found in previous literature in SV and DV contexts, as well as IBSA contexts (Debnam & Mauer, 2021; Flynn et al., 2022a; Lee et al., 2021). Support for victims of SV is vital for their mental health (Ahrens, 2006), so it is encouraging to see that bystanders to IBSA are willing to provide this support. In a similar vein to providing support, participants described how they would offer the victim advice on how to deal with the incident and how they may engage in more indirect forms of intervention with the victim. In particular, participants suggested that they may offer the victim their seat in the taken scenario as this would avoid any conflict or confrontation which may arise in the context of any other form of intervention behaviour. This form of intervention is similar to the distraction techniques

described in DV contexts (Debnam & Mauer, 2021), again showing consistency in the behaviour of bystanders in other abusive contexts.

The third main theme related to the legal and criminal justice avenues available to bystanders of IBSA. Many participants acknowledged the illegality of the behaviours described in the scenarios, and as such, outlined how they would inform the police or advise the victim to inform the police of the situation. The engagement of resources and people outside of the immediate context aligns with past research (Flynn et al., 2022a; Lee et al., 2021). Equally, participants discussed the importance of obtaining evidence of the behaviours, which is important given that prosecuting cases of IBSA can be made difficult due to evidentiary challenges (Henry et al., 2018; Marcum et al., 2020). Therefore, it is encouraging that participants thought ahead in terms of the difficulties that may be faced if the victim chooses to pursue a conviction, and how this can be minimised. However, despite many considering this to be a suitable course of action, some felt that they would not inform or involve the police. Few respondents reported engaging in this type of action in previous research also (Flynn et al., 2022a). It is crucial for future research to consider why bystanders are reluctant to engage with the police if there is to be a cultural shift towards prosecuting these behaviours, in the hopes of removing these barriers in the future. Overall, these three main themes (perpetrator-, victim-, and justice-focused action) demonstrate the preference for more informal channels of intervention over more formal channels (e.g., contact with relevant organisations). This preference of bystanders for informal action has also been identified in SV contexts (Tebbe, 2021).

Finally, in addition to these three distinct routes for bystander intervention, there was a much more general theme applied across all forms of intervention behaviour. Specifically, participants discussed the importance of their behaviours being well-informed and controlled. As bystanders, they described how they would want to have as much information about the

situation as possible and that fears regarding uncertainty of what they had seen or heard may lead to some hesitation in taking action. This particular element of bystander intervention has not been considered or reported upon in past research. It is necessary for future research to consider whether a lack of confidence regarding how to intervene, or fears related to misinterpreting the incident, may be hindering bystanders' likelihood of intervening in the context of IBSA.

Overall, there are important implications for future research both within this thesis and beyond. Currently, there are no established questionnaires which measure behavioural intentions to intervene in IBSA contexts. Therefore, the findings and themes identified in this study have been used to develop items and surveys that measure behavioural intentions in IBSA contexts within quantitative research (see Chapters 5 and 6). As highlighted in Chapter 2, one of the limitations of the existing literature looking at bystander intervention in SV contexts is a lack of consideration given to the different types of intervention in both the study design and development of the measures themselves. Use of these findings in the development of future measures will increase the validity of such measures and be a positive step towards addressing the limitations previously identified.

Limitations

It is necessary to acknowledge limitations regarding the sample and methods used in the current study. First, as this study used a small student sample, and given the high prevalence of SV and IBSA reported among university students and young adults (e.g., Fedina et al., 2018; Henry et al., 2019), this may reduce generalisability to the general population. Equally, it is likely that greater heterogeneity exists in the general population regarding responses to IBSA given the exposure that university students usually have to SV campaigns and educational programmes. Therefore, it is feasible that the engagement in the actions identified here are less likely, or there are additional nuances present, among the

general population. The second limitation regarding the sample relates to the use of a majority-white, heterosexual, and cisgender sample, therefore limiting the applications of these findings to non-white, transgender, or sexual minorities. As some preliminary evidence has shown that ethnic and sexual minority groups are more likely to be victims of IBSA (Powell et al., 2020), it is important that future research investigates this further and utilises samples with greater diversity.

It is also important to highlight the small number of male participants with the sample, the absence of any male-only focus groups, and use of mixed-gender focus groups. Given some evidence has shown that females are more likely to intervene than males in SV contexts (e.g., Franklin et al., 2020; Savage et al., 2017; see Chapter 2), it is possible that the number and range of intended bystander actions identified here are more applicable to female bystanders. However, given the purpose of this study to inform future empirical work within this thesis, this is less of a concern. Further, quantitative studies within Chapters 5 and 6 use larger and more representative samples from the general population to address this limitation.

A second limitation is that this study used focus groups with hypothetical scenarios. The use of focus groups relies on participants being honest about their behavioural intentions, therefore it is possible that the findings are reflective of personal ideals or the pressures of social desirability, and misrepresentative of actual intentions or behaviour thereby reducing the validity of the findings. However, given the identification of behaviours consistent with previous research looking at actual bystander behaviour (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022a), there are reduced concerns in this regard. Further, regarding the hypothetical scenarios, although they were created to reflect real-life situations, it is possible they reflected ‘worst-case scenarios’ or those which are more likely to elicit certain behaviours from bystanders (e.g., for the shared scenario, the victim was a friend, and it was implied that the photo was being shared with malicious intent). It is vital that bystander intervention in the context of IBSA

behaviours which are perceived as less serious is considered, to gain an understanding of the impact of normalisation and minimisation upon the nuances of bystander responses. For example, if bystanders condone these 'less serious' behaviours, it can become more difficult to determine how, when, or if, to intervene in more serious contexts. Consequently, the normalisation of less serious behaviours can have a negative impact upon bystander intervention for behaviours which are considered more serious. Therefore, future research should give due attention to instances of IBSA which are at the 'lesser' end of the severity scale.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to understand how bystanders think they would react in a variety of different IBSA contexts. Participants described their likely engagement in both direct forms of intervention (e.g., confronting the perpetrator) and forms of victim support when faced with incidents of IBSA. Specifically, their actions fell under four main themes: perpetrator-focused action, victim-focused action, justice-focused action, and intervention as a well-informed and controlled process. Many of these forms of intervention mirrored those found in previous research which has looked at bystander intervention in SV and DV contexts, however, these results highlighted the high likelihood of informal actions in IBSA contexts. Important nuances for bystander behaviour in the context of IBSA were also identified. These findings have the potential to inform future lines of research in terms of measure development and addressing further gaps in knowledge which have been utilised in the empirical quantitative work which follows (see Chapters 5 and 6).

Chapter 4: A Focus Group Study Looking at Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention Intent in Image-Based Sexual Abuse Contexts

Chapter 3 presented a focus group study which addressed the research aim of how bystanders think they would respond to instances of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA). The current chapter draws upon the same seven focus groups to address the second research aim: to explore the factors that facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention in the context of three different IBSA scenarios.

Introduction

As shown in Chapters 1 and 2, the role of bystanders in the context of sexual violence (SV) is well-established in the literature, and much time has been dedicated to understanding what factors facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention (e.g., Burn, 2009; Mainwaring et al., 2022). However, little attention has been given to the role of bystanders in IBSA contexts, despite many individuals being bystanders to IBSA, and less than half of these bystanders intervening (Flynn et al., 2022b). Exploring what facilitates and inhibits bystander action in IBSA contexts can help us better understand this behaviour and inform practical applications that encourage intervention.

Given the limited evidence regarding bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, the consideration of theoretical models and empirical evidence from other contexts can inform this research, as covered in detail in Chapters 1 and 2. Specifically, one of the most influential models in the literature, the Bystander Intervention Model, suggests that bystanders go through a five-stage process, that involves: 1) noticing the event; 2) identifying the event as one which is problematic or presenting a risk; 3) taking responsibility for intervention; 4) deciding whether one has the skills and competency to intervene; and 5)

forming an intention to intervene (Latané & Darley, 1968, 1970). At each stage, there are barriers including a diffusion of responsibility and audience inhibition when other bystanders are present (Burn, 2009; Latané & Darley, 1968, 1970). Further models of decision-making, such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), as outlined in more detail in Chapter 1, also provide valuable insight into facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention. In particular, this model considers the role of additional cognitive and contextual variables in decision-making and bystander intervention intent and action.

Empirical evidence looking at bystander intervention in the SV literature can also provide valuable insight. Recent systematic reviews, including that within Chapter 2, have found that the following factors increase the likelihood of intervention in SV contexts, and therefore act as facilitators of intervention: feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene, being friends with the victim and, greater severity of the SV incident, positive social norms towards intervention, and organisational cultures against SV (Labhardt et al., 2017; Mainwaring et al., 2022). Furthermore, research has shown that when the victim is female compared to male (e.g., Katz, 2015; Savage et al., 2017), and when bystanders have greater empathy for the victims of SV (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Yule et al., 2020), they are more likely to intervene. Barriers identified include rape myth attitudes, fears of violence, and audience inhibition (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2).

The only study to have investigated bystander intervention in the context of IBSA with an adult sample aimed to better understand bystanders' capacity and willingness to take action in response to the non-consensual taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (Flynn et al., 2022a). Using a survey method with an Australian sample it was found that the main reasons for bystander intervention in real-life IBSA contexts were that the behaviour was deemed wrong and/or illegal and that intervention was considered the right thing to do. Conversely, one of the main reasons for a lack of intervention was feeling no personal

responsibility. Focus groups were also conducted as part of this research, whereby participants discussed hypothetical scenarios of IBSA, where the gender identity of the victim and perpetrator was manipulated, and details of non-group majority and marginalised groups were added to encourage discussion of these factors (Flynn et al., 2022b). Additional facilitators identified during these discussions included having a personal relationship with the victim or perpetrator and empathy towards the victim. They also found that bystanders were less likely to intervene if they believed there was a personal risk to themselves, and that some male bystanders were less likely to intervene when the perpetrator was female due to increased ambiguity of the situation.

The aim addressed in this chapter, is to explore factors that facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention in the context of three different IBSA scenarios. Despite a wealth of evidence looking at factors related to bystander intervention in SV contexts, there is little understanding of intervention in the context of IBSA. Furthermore, the current study replicates and extends the limited research available (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b) by considering all three forms of IBSA (i.e., taking, sharing, and making threats to share nude or sexual images), and using broader and more ambiguous hypothetical scenarios with a UK sample. It is important to consider threats to share images because of all three IBSA behaviours, victims of threats are the most likely to experience high levels of psychological distress (Henry et al., 2017), and therefore likely in need of support that a bystander could offer. Furthermore, the use of broader and more ambiguous scenarios allowed for greater control and consideration of a wider range of variables. Consistent with Chapter 3, the findings of this study were used to inform the development of further research questions and materials for future empirical studies within this thesis.

Method

The method, including *participants, materials, procedure, and analysis* was the same as that presented in Chapter 3. Given the aim of this chapter to identify facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in a variety of IBSA contexts, parts two and three of the focus group discussions as outlined in Chapter 3, were most relevant for this chapter.

Results

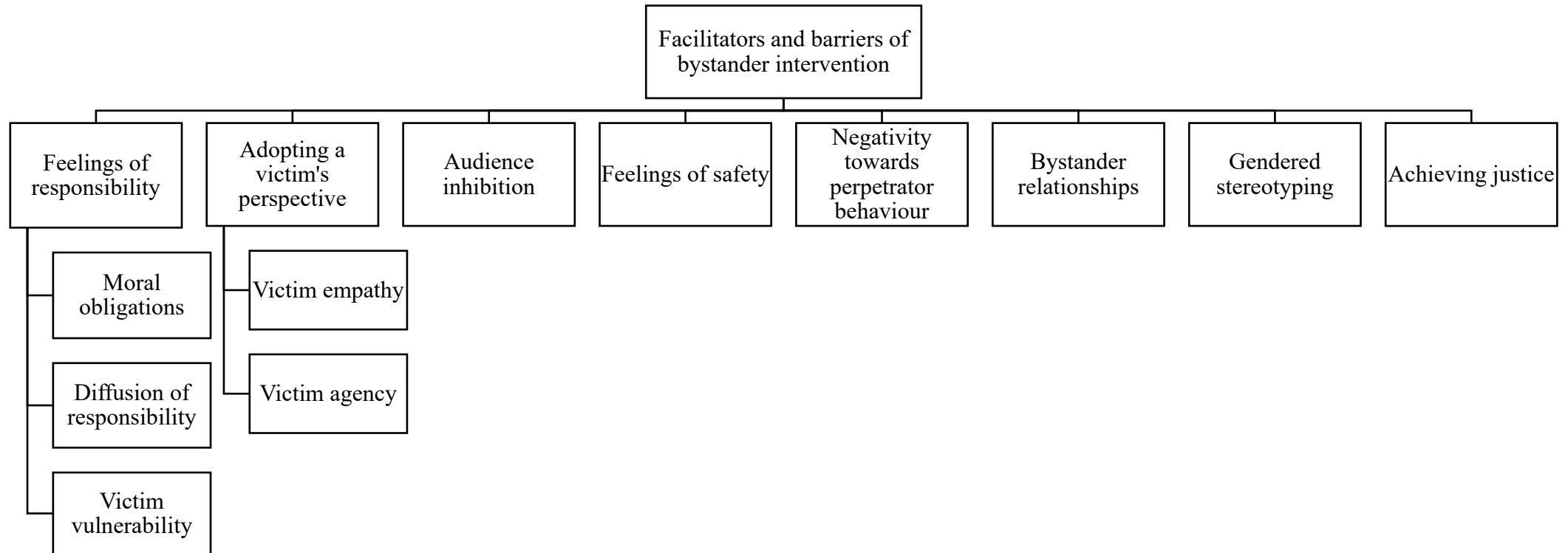
In addressing the aim of this chapter, namely, to understand what facilitates and inhibits bystander intervention in a variety of IBSA contexts, the following themes were identified: *feelings of responsibility, adopting a victim's perspective, audience inhibition, feelings of safety, negativity towards perpetrator behaviour, bystander relationships, gendered stereotyping, and achieving justice*. Each of these themes and their subthemes are addressed in turn and can be identified in the thematic tree below (see Figure 4).

Feelings of Responsibility

This theme relates to feelings of responsibility to intervene as a bystander in these scenarios, and how greater feelings of responsibility results in a greater likelihood of intervention, and therefore acts as a facilitator of intervention. There are also three subthemes: *moral obligations, diffusion of responsibility, and victim vulnerability*.

Figure 4

Thematic Tree of Themes and Subthemes for Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention



Moral Obligations

This subtheme relates to how moral obligations and feelings of guilt for not intervening would impact intervention and was only observed in the taken scenario. Participants stated that they would be motivated to do something to help the victim because they would feel extremely guilty if they did not. This suggests that feelings of responsibility and a sense of moral obligation facilitates intervention. As Lauren described, “If you’re seeing that and you don’t do anything, it’s just going to make you feel so guilty” (f, FG2, taken scenario).

Participants also expressed how they would like to see themselves as good people, and how it is important to look out for and protect others. As such, these beliefs appeared to facilitate intervention. Stacey described how “...too many people are quiet, too many people see injustice and they just stay quiet and it’s just like we can’t live in a world where it’s like you stay quiet.” (f, FG3, taken scenario). Amelia similarly described how such interventions may provide a way of “...making ourselves feel better that we actually helped someone ... so that might be one more reason to actually go and help” (f, FG5, taken scenario).

Diffusion of Responsibility

In addition, there were instances in which participants described how they may feel a diffusion of responsibility, which would decrease the likelihood that they would intervene. This was considered in all scenarios. For example, the company of other bystanders diffused feelings of responsibility and therefore acted as a barrier of intervention. This manifested in slightly different ways depending on the type of scenario. In the taken scenario, participants described feeling more responsible to help if they were the only person who witnessed what was happening, and that if other people saw, they may be less likely to intervene as they would think other bystanders may step in. For the shared scenario, there was a sense that if the image was shared more publicly, they had less of an obligation to act as there would be

more collective responsibility. Finally, for the threatened scenario, some participants felt that they had a responsibility to help the victim as they may be the only person who the victim confided in:

Amelia: If there is ... a carriage full of people I think I would just kind of distribute the responsibility so I would just think 'oh maybe the other person saw that too, they're probably thinking the same thing, they'll do something' ... so for me, having less people would make me do more. (f, FG5, taken scenario)

Emma: Publicly gives me less feeling of obligation to act myself, if it's been shared on the group chat, then I know that 12 other people have seen it and so I don't feel like I have to decide what am I going to do ... like I know that it's public so then it's like we have a collective responsibility to act ... (f, FG1, shared scenario)

Anabelle: Also, with [threatened scenario], if, if you're the only person they've told then you more or less have like a responsibility to act upon that, but if you know that they have a whole like support group or a network of people that are helping them you don't necessarily have to be there 24/7... (f, FG7, threatened scenario)

Similarly, a greater sense of responsibility was described if participants felt that they had been directly involved or implicated in the situation. Therefore, feeling directly involved in the incident would facilitate intervention. Particularly in the shared and threatened scenarios, there was a sense of feeling implicated as the image was sent to their phone, or the victim directly disclosed the threats. Equally, in the taken scenario, being a witness to this behaviour resulted in a sense of feeling directly involved, and therefore a greater sense of responsibility and likelihood of intervention:

Emma: I guess with [shared scenario], I feel like I'm complicit, like it's on my phone and not responding, or not doing anything, it's almost like saying that that's OK, I'm in agreement with this. It's like no, I need to take some action. (f, FG1, shared

scenario)

Anabelle: ... you are completely involved ... you're seeing all of this happen, you're like watching it, you're observing what's happened, so it's almost like your duty to step in and do something about it ... (f, FG7, taken scenario)

Victim Vulnerability

Finally, there were discussions related to perceptions of victim vulnerability and how perceptions of greater vulnerability increased the feelings of responsibility, and therefore facilitated intervention. This was considered in all scenarios.

First, vulnerability regarding the victim's lack of awareness of their victimisation was discussed. For the taken and shared scenarios, participants felt that victims were particularly vulnerable because they were unaware that they were being victimised, and this acted as a facilitator of intervention:

Georgina: ... I need to tell someone that this is happening to them ... if you're on a train, you kind of, you're on your own and in your own little world or whatever, and someone's violating you without your consent, without your knowledge ... (f, FG1, taken scenario)

Anabelle: ... it's almost like, your duty to step in and do something about it, especially in the first one [shared scenario] cause ... people are doing things with their pictures, with their body that they might not even be aware about ... (f, FG7, shared scenario)

Regarding the taken scenario specifically, participants commented on the increased vulnerability of intoxicated victims, and their associated increased feelings of responsibility as bystanders in these situations. Therefore, they felt that they would be more likely to intervene, protect and support an intoxicated victim in this situation. As Poppy described, "I would react more if like, if the person that they were taking a picture of was intoxicated ...

that is not OK, they can't really defend themselves" (f, FG6, taken scenario). This shows further evidence of victim vulnerability, in the form of victim intoxication, as a facilitator of intervention.

Victim vulnerability was also considered with reference to the extent the nude images were shared in the shared scenario. Participants described how they would be concerned about who may have seen the images, who the images could be sent to, and the permanency of the images once they have appeared online. This concern and the realisation that images can spread "like wildfire" (Mia, f, FG5, shared scenario) seemed to facilitate intervention:

Eloise: I think I would ... advise her that she actually does approach the police because ... the ex-partner ... may be considering sending it to kind of a wider circle of people so there may be more damage to be done. (f, FG4, shared scenario).

Sophia: I mean I'd probably just immediately want to go and tell my friend that this horrible thing has just happened and that they need to watch out like something bad could really come of this, like maybe they sent it to somebody else ... (f, FG5, shared scenario)

Concerns regarding further sharing of these images also encouraged some participants to direct their intervention towards the perpetrator in finding out who else they had sent the images too, or in trying to stop them from doing so, as Imogen stated, "I'd want to know who else they'd sent it to, I think I would ask them that, because obviously that's like really important for the friend to know ..." (f, FG1, shared scenario). Logan had similar thoughts regarding confronting the perpetrator due to concerns over the spreading of the image, "I think I would probably tell them that it had been sent to me but my overall reaction to try and dissuade them from sending it to anyone else ..." (m, FG6, shared scenario).

Finally, across all scenarios, participants felt the age of the victim would be an important consideration. Specifically, they felt that perpetration against a child would be

worse and that as bystanders, they would be obliged to intervene because such behaviour would constitute the handling or creation of child exploitation material. Therefore, if the victim was under 18, this would act as a facilitator of intervention. As Georgina described, “if the person ... is under 18 ... you’ve received child pornography, so you’ve got an obligation...” (f, FG1, shared scenario).

Adopting a Victim’s Perspective

This theme relates to understanding a victim’s perspective and how doing so would facilitate intervention. This theme has two subthemes: *victim empathy* and *victim agency*.

Victim Empathy

This subtheme relates to empathy for the victim and how such feelings would facilitate intervention. In all scenarios, participants adopted the victim’s perspective to understand how the victim would feel. Displays of empathy ranged from consideration of emotional responses (e.g., “I would be so upset”; Lola, f, FG6, shared scenario), to concern about the impact of others seeing the images (e.g., “I’d be mortified ... if my parents saw explicit pictures of me, I’d just want to die”; Frankie, f, FG4, threatened scenario), to how they would want others to react (e.g., “I would want someone to cover [me], I would want someone to tell me”; Ola, f, FG3, taken scenario). All displays of empathy appeared to facilitate intervention. As Emma described, “I guess my main motivation was like if it was me I’d want someone to do something” (f, FG1, taken scenario). Logan and Lexi described similar considerations:

Lexi: ... if the person sitting next to me is the person taking the picture, I’d definitely be like ‘what are you doing?, like I can obviously see what you’re doing’, and tell the person in the aisle that someone is trying to take a picture of them ... I feel like they have the right to know ... if I was in that situation, I’d want someone to tell me, I wouldn’t want someone to have a picture of me and not know about it at all. (f, FG2,

taken scenario)

Logan: I think with number 2 [shared scenario] ... you [either] have the choice of making your friend aware or not ... I personally would ... I'd want to know about it ... especially if they're still holding images of me after we've split up, like I'd still want to know ... (m, FG6, shared scenario)

Participants also empathised with victims by considering the potential consequences of being a victim in these scenarios. Although the potential consequences were considered in all scenarios, most discussions related to the shared and threatened scenarios. Specifically, participants described how they would be concerned about the victim's mental health and wellbeing, which would facilitate intervention and dictate what kind of action to take. In many cases, concerns for wellbeing acted as a facilitator of supportive action towards the victim. Amelia described how concerns for her friend would facilitate supportive action, "Before I do all of that I would just try and see how my friend is, if they're stable at the moment ... I mean it is quite emotional" (f, FG5, threatened scenario). Hope described similar concerns and supportive actions:

Hope: ... I'll try to calm the situation down kind of thing cause it's like they're probably going to be really freaked out too, and the best thing to do is to stay calm I guess, help them ... as much as you can. (f, FG7, shared scenario)

Furthermore, participants considered how certain types of intervention could impact the victim. For example, in the threatened scenario, participants were concerned that approaching the perpetrator could lead to them leaking the photos in retaliation, thereby acting as a barrier for this type of intervention:

Georgina: That's what my concern would be, if you contacted the ex or if you contacted them and just said 'look I know what you're doing', they'd just be like, they'd have known that your friend had spoken to you, and they'd be like ... could

then be more threatening or send the photos. (f, FG1, threatened scenario)

Equally, in the threatened scenario, participants commented that the advice they would give to the victim would depend on the relationship between the victim and the recipient of the images, as well as the cultural or religious views of the victim and those who may see the images. For example, participants were less likely to suggest telling the parents if this would put the victim in danger for cultural or religious reasons, or if the victim's parents would not be sympathetic to their situation. Therefore, relationship and cultural considerations could act as inhibitors of providing this particular advice:

Lexi: Not everyone's parents would probably be understanding about the situation and maybe there might be a kind of like blaming of the victim like 'it's your, kind of your fault for sending the pictures in the first place, like you've kind of put yourself in that situation', so I feel like it really depends on the persons relationship with their parents. (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

Emma: ... but that depends on the nature of the images ... there are cultures and situations and communities within which they might just not be OK, that could be a death sentence, it could certainly be the end of your relationship ... (f, FG1, threatened scenario)

Victim Agency

In addition, concerns for the victim's agency facilitated particular actions. This was considered in all scenarios. Participants stressed the importance of victims being aware of their victimisation so that they can decide how best to respond. For example, participants described how they would inform the victim of the situation in the taken and shared scenarios because the victim had the right to know what was going on. This suggests that beliefs regarding the importance of victim awareness acts as a facilitator of intervention. As Anabelle described, "I would inform that person of what's, like what's happening just because

they deserve to know what's happening with their own images and their body, and like that being shared” (f, FG7, shared scenario). Similarly, in the taken scenario, participants described how the importance of victim awareness would facilitate actions directed towards informing the victim of what is happening:

Troy: The thing about addressing the person in the aisle is that you can inform them of what is actually happening in case they don't know, so then they can react in a way that feels appropriate to them. They can take the action they feel they need to towards the person that is doing that. (m, FG7, taken scenario)

Relatedly, in all scenarios, some participants had concerns regarding how the victim would want the situation to be handled, and therefore discussed that they would engage in asking, and carrying out, intervention that the victim would want. As Amy described, “... listen to what they want ... what your friend is happy to do, not happy to do ...” (f, FG2, threatened scenario). Georgina also showed evidence of being concerned for the victim's wishes in the taken scenario, “I think I'd try and capture the attention of the person who was being photographed, ... and then I'd tell them what happened, and let them decide ...” (f, FG1, taken scenario). Participants also discussed how they would seek permission from the victim before reporting to the police in both the shared and threatened scenarios. As Imogen described, “Yeah they might want to report it themselves, but you could like support them, even reporting it, but I don't think I'd report it without speaking to them” (f, FG1, shared scenario).

In contrast, some participants discussed how the victim's wishes would not always direct the actions they would take. For example, they described how it would be ‘morally correct’ to make the perpetrator aware of the unacceptability of their behaviour, irrespective of whether this is what the victim would want. This subtheme links to the aforementioned subtheme ‘moral obligations’, with concerns for engaging in morally correct actions

overriding the victim's wishes. As George explained, "It's kind of a moral right and moral duty to kind of to speak up against this, even if the victim doesn't, in the moment, appreciate that" (m, FG4, taken scenario). Such beliefs allow bystanders to focus on the greater good:

Lauren: You don't want to go behind their back, and like straight away tell the police ... but if like their safety's in danger and they are still really kind of like holding things back, and they don't want to let people know ... I feel like you should look out for your friend ... at least then ... you've potentially prevented something actually like worse than the initial threat from happening. (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

Audience Inhibition

This theme relates to feelings of audience inhibition and how these feelings would inhibit intervention. For the taken scenario, participants described how they would feel apprehensive because they would not want to embarrass themselves in front of other bystanders, particularly if they misunderstood the situation, thereby inhibiting intervention:

Amelia: I think for me it would be easier if it was only three of us because then I would feel more in charge, and I wouldn't be as scared as what other people think of me then for causing maybe a scene ... (f, FG5, taken scenario)

Equally, participants described how they would worry that other bystanders would not help them if they did decide to intervene. Therefore, fears that other bystanders would be apathetic acted as a barrier of intervention:

Eloise: Something else that would make me hesitate umm, would be fear of how the other passengers would respond because I would actually be scared that it would be me umm, shouting or raising my voice and the other passengers would remain silent. (f, FG4, taken scenario)

Additionally, participants described how they may feel a sense of audience inhibition because of the presence of the victim in the taken scenario. Specifically, they were concerned

that the victim may not want them to make a fuss or that the victim would respond negatively to their intervention, thereby embarrassing themselves. This concern acted as a barrier of intervention. As described by Katie, "... that's what I'm worried about ... what if they don't mind, like then I just look stupid?" (f, FG3, taken scenario). This theme links to the subtheme of 'victim agency', as participants' concern about the reaction of the victim was reflected in their desire to understand how the victim would want them to respond.

Conversely, there were instances where having other bystanders present would facilitate intervention. Participants commented on how the presence of other bystanders may increase their confidence and feelings of 'power' because they would be able to confirm what was happening or discuss how best to respond to the situation. This applied in both the taken and shared scenarios:

Sophia: I know that in the case of if there were more people ... they would acknowledge it and react ... I'm much more likely to react as well because obviously you've got that support from the people around you ... (f, FG5, taken scenario)

Emma: If [the photo] has just been sent to me, the only people I can talk to are the person in the images or the person who sent it to me ... but if I know that everyone's seen it then I can offline message you and go 'holy shit did you see what he just sent us, or what are we going to do? ...', and then I just feel like I've got more of a community with me. (f, FG1, shared scenario)

Feelings of Safety

This theme relates to the feelings of safety as a bystander in these scenarios and how this would impact the likelihood of intervention. Participants described how fear for their own safety as a bystander would be a barrier of intervention, or impact their choice of intervention, in all scenarios. For example, Georgina stated, "if I was concerned for like my safety, or the safety of the person in the image, I probably wouldn't confront the person ..."

(f, FG1, shared scenario). Generally, fears of safety were borne out of concerns that the perpetrator may react negatively or violently to any form of intervention:

Stacey: Like I wouldn't go straight to the guy ... I don't feel capable of saying like 'excuse me', especially cause I don't know how they're going to react in case they hit me or something like that, I would go straight to the [victim], and be like 'hey, umm this guy next to you is trying to take a picture of you, I would suggest like you move or anything' or I'll try and cover her ... (f, FG3, taken scenario)

Sophia: I suppose at that point it could depend on umm what this ex is like if you know the ex-well, then you might be more likely to confront them about it, especially if you don't think they're particularly violent. (f, FG5, threatened scenario)

Conversely, some participants commented that safety concerns would not inhibit intervention, particularly in the taken scenario. As Katie described, "I would slap his phone I'm not going to lie. No I wouldn't care, literally, even if he's rough" (f, FG3, taken scenario).

In addition, participants focused on two situational characteristics that would impact the risk of safety in the taken scenario, and therefore impact the likelihood of intervention.

First, participants suggested that perpetrators would be more of a threat if they were intoxicated. Specifically, they felt that there was a greater risk of violence from an intoxicated perpetrator and as a result, this would act as a barrier to confronting the perpetrator. As Bella described, "if the person taking the photo was drunk I wouldn't approach them, like I wouldn't at all" (f, FG1, taken scenario). Similarly, Ola described her hesitation, "I would be less likely to do anything because ... I find people who are drunk scary and like unpredictable, and so I would feel less likely to be able to do anything" (f, FG3, taken scenario). Alternative courses of action were also considered in these situations, such as approaching the victim instead:

Anabelle: [If] it was the person taking the picture who was intoxicated ... alcohol can

exacerbate a lot of things and emotions that could then also put me in danger, so ... maybe I shouldn't necessarily approach this person, maybe still go towards the person whose picture's being taken and say 'listen, this person's looks like they're intoxicated, maybe just, get on a different [train]'. (f, FG7, taken scenario)

Second, participants described how the presence of other bystanders would impact assessments of safety in the taken scenario. Although the presence of other bystanders tended to inhibit intervention through feelings of audience inhibition as previously outlined, there were some cases in which the presence of other bystanders would facilitate intervention. For example, participants commented on how they would feel safer if there were other bystanders present and this would make them more likely to intervene. This was primarily because participants believed other bystanders could support them if the perpetrator retaliated:

Nicola: I'd just get up, if I was with somebody or a group of people I might do something more, but on my own I would probably get up and just walk away ... I'd be scared I might get it wrong, and ... the repercussions of that ... (f, FG1, taken scenario)

Mia: I saw someone was being upskirted and they were going up the stairs and they were behind the girl, and I was with a group of friends, and we just shouted at them and like chased them and they went away ... if I was on my own I don't know if I'd do that cause maybe that person gets aggressive. (f, FG5, taken scenario)

Negativity Towards Perpetrator Behaviour

This theme relates to the bystander's emotional reactions to the perpetrator's behaviour and how these reactions would impact their own behaviour. This was considered in all scenarios. Importantly, participants expressed negativity towards the perpetrator's behaviour with strong emotional reactions. The most common emotional reaction was anger towards the perpetrator, and this appeared to be a strong facilitating factor for intervention in

all scenarios. In the shared and threatened scenarios, given the context of a previous intimate relationship, many felt anger towards this behaviour and felt that such actions were a violation of trust and respect. Georgina described how these emotions would facilitate intervention, “I don’t think it’s right; I’d be so angry that it’s such a violation of trust ... I’d be furious and that’s why I’d probably react that way ...” (f, FG1, shared scenario). In the taken scenario, participants also described feeling disgusted by the behaviour, which also facilitated intervention. As Lauren described, “[I would react in that way] because it’s wrong, like it’s just disgusting ... no one deserves to feel like that or have that done to them cause it’s just wrong.” (f, FG2, taken scenario).

Relatedly, participants described how their desire for the perpetrator to be punished and understand that their behaviour is unacceptable would facilitate intervention:

Nina: I think another reason to [intervene], I don’t want the ex-partner to like get away with it, cause ... if you don’t like ... help or like sort it out then they think they can get away with that kind of thing or influence their people around their group to do the same thing. (f, FG7, shared scenario)

Bystander Relationships

This theme relates to the relationships of the bystander with the victim and perpetrator and how these would impact the likelihood of intervention. This theme was considered in all scenarios. When considering their relationship with the victim, participants emphasised the importance of helping the victim irrespective of their relationship. This suggests that the relationship with the victim is neither facilitative nor inhibitive of intervention. As Frankie described, “Even somebody I don’t know very well ... I would tell them because it’s the right thing to do and it doesn’t cost me anything” (f, FG4, shared scenario). Similar views were expressed in regard to the taken and threatened scenarios:

Lauren: Even when they’re strangers ... it’s just about respect ... even though you’ve

never seen this person in your life, you respect them enough to just tell them what's going on because no one deserves to feel like that or have that done to them cause it's just wrong. (f, FG2, taken scenario)

Ola: I mean maybe if you weren't as close a friend, but even then, like if someone discloses that information to me, like even if they were like just an acquaintance ... I would still be like, no let's try and do something ... (f, FG3, threatened scenario)

However, participants commented on how they would likely offer the victim more support and be more confrontational with the perpetrator if they had a personal relationship with the victim, as they would experience greater empathy, loyalty, and feelings of anger. This suggests that being friends with the victim can act as a facilitator of intervention. As Poppy described, "... if I was friends with them, like close friends, I would approach it differently ... my reaction would be different, it would be more aggressive towards the person that posted it" (f, FG6, shared scenario). Frankie also described how levels of support will depend on her relationship with the victim, "I think definitely here you'd support your friend and depending on how close a friend you are on the level of support you give them ..." (f, FG4, shared scenario).

Many also felt that it would be harder to intervene or approach the victim if they did not know them, further suggesting that when the victim is a stranger, this can act as a barrier of intervention:

Frankie: I think this [shared scenario] is much easier than the [taken scenario] which is in a public space with a stranger and you're having to make judgements about what to do ... it's quite clear, you support your friend ... (f, FG4, shared scenario)

When considering their relationship with the perpetrator, participants felt that they would be more likely to confront the perpetrator if they knew them or were friends with them. This suggests that being friends with the perpetrator can facilitate intervention. As

Imogen described, "... if I was friends with the ex-partner that might even motivate me more ... I'd be more motivated to tell them that it's not OK because you can't have friends acting like that and thinking it's OK" (f, FG1, shared scenario). Similarly, Troy commented, "[if] the ex-partners in particular are some kind of friends, former friends, or very close acquaintances, I personally definitely feel more of a drive to go and talk to them, go and address this problem directly." (m, FG7, shared and threatened scenarios).

Gendered Stereotyping

This theme relates to the impact of the gender of the victim and perpetrator, and the associated influence of gendered stereotyping on bystander intervention. Overall, this theme was considered in all scenarios.

Participants described how the gender of the perpetrator and the gender of the victim impacts how others, including themselves, perceive the behaviour and are likely to respond. Participants spoke of being more likely to react, and to react faster, when the victim is female compared to male, thereby showing that if the victim is female, this can act as a facilitator of intervention. As Lucy explained, "I feel like if ... it was a female like, that was getting violated my reaction time would be faster than if it was a man" (f, FG2, taken scenario). Such actions were often driven by participants' feeling more protective of female victims because they may feel more vulnerable than males would (e.g., males are less bothered by the behaviour or can look after themselves), and the consequences for female victims are worse than they are for males (e.g., females would be 'slut shamed' whereas males would not):

Stacey: We don't want to admit it but it's like you wouldn't react the same if it was a woman ... like you would want to but then if you're actually put in that situation like I know that maybe I wouldn't be as protective ... (f, FG3, taken scenario).

Harry described similar barriers when intervening for a male victim in the threatened scenario:

Harry: If it's a ... potentially abusive boyfriend I just feel that it's perhaps easier to protect the girl, if it's potentially an abusive girlfriend even though I understand that it's not the assumption you should make, but it's the assumption perhaps the boy can look after himself. (m, FG5, threatened scenario)

However, some participants felt that the gender of the victim would not change their behaviour and would neither facilitate nor inhibit intervention. As Lily described, "For me it was the sexual part, so if they would be like a man and woman ... both of them are in skirts, cause it's the only way you can compare ... I would react the same way" (f, FG4, taken scenario).

Regarding perpetrator gender, for the taken scenario, participants suggested that they would be less likely to intervene or make a fuss if it was a female perpetrator compared to a male perpetrator, therefore showing that having a female perpetrator can act as a barrier of intervention. As Frankie explained, "... if I saw a woman take a photo of a man, I don't think I'd think anything of it, I think I would just ignore it" (f, FG4, taken scenario). In this scenario, participants described how they would likely give a female perpetrator the benefit of the doubt, assuming that the individuals knew each other or that the perpetrator was doing something else with their phone:

Emma: If I thought I saw a woman trying to upskirt someone, I'd probably be more hesitant to be like 'surely she's not', whereas ... if it was a man I'd be like 'you dirty bastard' and I'd be more quick to trust my gut ... (f, FG1, taken scenario)

Participants also commented that female perpetrators would be more likely to have non-malicious and non-sexual intentions, unlike male perpetrators:

Hope: If it was like the way round that it was a female taking a picture of a male, you would give her more benefit of the doubt that like they maybe know each other and that it was a joke. (m, FG7, taken scenario)

Overall, such feelings are likely due to the societal norms of the non-prototypical nature of a female perpetrating against a male, and the ramifications and judgements being less well-known:

Sophia: It's already established I think in society if we saw a guy taking advantage of a girl that, that's wrong but if we saw it the other way around we perhaps wouldn't know what to think about it ... we might convince ourselves that it wasn't really what we saw. (f, FG5, taken scenario)

Anabelle: Especially with the society and air that we live in right now, there's a lot more of an uproar [where] women have to protect women ... and most of the cases it's where a male is taking an unsolicited picture of a female, and that's what like we're conditioned to think so that's what you'd probably notice more and want to intervene to stop ... (f, FG7, taken scenario)

Achieving Justice

This final theme relates to the impact of perceived justice outcomes upon the likelihood of engaging with the police as bystanders. This was considered in all scenarios and suggested that the likelihood of engaging in this form of bystander action related to the likelihood of a positive outcome.

Generally, participants who would involve the police expected them to help the situation, therefore perceptions of positive justice outcomes would facilitate this type of intervention. This was demonstrated for the shared and threatened scenarios. For example, participants described how the police may be able to stop photos being shared by the perpetrator in these scenarios. As Stacey explained, "I would probably tell my friend, 'Go to the police, let's try and get his phone taken off of him before he can leak anything'..." (f, FG3, threatened scenario). Therefore, police involvement was considered a way to control the situation and limit future damage:

Eloise: ... maybe advise her that she actually does approach the police ... because if the ex-partner has only sent one photo they may either have more photos to send ... they may be considering sending it to kind of a wider circle of people so there may be more damage to be done ... (f, FG4, shared scenario)

Despite a willingness to involve the police, this was not always considered to be an effective way to handle the situation. Participants gave a variety of reasons, but their most common concern was that the police would not be effective, and these concerns acted as a barrier in all three scenarios. In the threatened scenario, most were concerned that the police would not respond quickly enough to stop the images being shared, or that involving the police would cause the situation to escalate:

Lucy: The initial thing needs to be stopped first, like the police aren't going to be that fast, like they're going to start investigating but by that time my man might even feel threatened, like 'oh I know you've got the police involved, now I'm definitely going to send it'. (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

In addition to these concerns, participants discussed how they may be hesitant to involve the police because the legal process can be difficult for the victim in all three scenarios. They commented that the process can be extremely long, that it can be difficult to prove the behaviour, and that more people will see these images if the victim pursues a conviction (e.g., police, jury). Again, in this case, concerns regarding the legal process for victims of IBSA inhibited this type of intervention:

Nicola: ... I think that was my first reaction [involve the police], although initially I think I would ... show concern for the friend before I even went there, because you know once you start the legal process, it could be long and complicated ... (f, FG1, shared scenario)

Lexi: ... if they are still in touch with their partner or their ex-partner and talk to them

about it, I feel like that's probably the first route ... instead of taking it straight to the police ... because if you file a report, there's going to be a lot in the open, maybe they won't like, feel comfortable sharing that with the police ... (f, FG2, threatened scenario)

These concerns are clearly linked to the 'victim empathy' subtheme as the participants considered how the legal process may be difficult for the victim and thereby empathising with them.

Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to identify facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in the context of IBSA. In this section, the facilitators and barriers identified are summarised and considered in the context of previous research and theory. The wider implications of these findings, particularly regarding theory and practice, are discussed in Chapter 7: General Discussion.

Facilitators of Intervention

The current study identified the following facilitators of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts: feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, consideration of victim agency, anger towards the perpetrator's behaviour, a personal relationship with the victim and perpetrator, and perceptions of positive justice outcomes.

Specifically, the current study showed that greater feelings of responsibility, evidenced through discussions of moral obligations, guilt, and feelings of direct involvement, facilitates intervention. This supports previous research in both SV and IBSA contexts (e.g., Burn, 2009; Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b) as well as the findings reported in Chapter 2 (see Mainwaring et al., 2022). Additionally, in SV contexts, bystanders who have not intervened when they have had the opportunity to do so have positioned themselves as an 'outsider' to the incident, describing themselves as an observer of the behaviour rather than being directly

involved (Lamb & Attwell, 2019). This aligns with the facilitative nature of feeling directly involved in an incident shown in the current study and suggests that these feelings are important in IBSA contexts too. Further, consistent with Flynn et al. (2022b), this finding provides support for step 3 of the Bystander Intervention Model (Latané & Darley, 1970) in its application to IBSA contexts. This study also found that an increase in feeling responsible to help can be facilitated by acknowledgements of victim vulnerabilities. Specifically, this study highlighted vulnerabilities which are unique to IBSA contexts: victim lack of awareness of victimisation, such as when images are taken or shared without the victim's knowledge, and the extent of image-sharing, such as who the images are sent to and the permanency of images once online. These concerns may reflect perceptions of the severity, or potential severity, of the incident, and previous research has shown that incidents of greater severity can result in greater bystander intervention, which may explain this finding (e.g., Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2).

Further bystander cognitions that can facilitate intervention are those of feelings of negativity towards the perpetrator's behaviour, empathising with the victim, and having concerns for victim agency. Specifically, this study showed that feelings of negativity towards the perpetrator's behaviour facilitates intervention. This aligns with the Bystander Intervention Model regarding perceptions of the behaviour as problematic (i.e., step 2 of this model). Further, these findings align with evidence from the SV and IBSA literature which shows intervention is more likely if the bystander considers the behaviour to be problematic (e.g., Deitch-Stackhouse et al., 2015; Flynn et al., 2022a).

Regarding empathy, the current study showed that empathy for the victim facilitates intervention. This finding is consistent with research in SV (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Yule et al., 2020) and IBSA contexts (Flynn et al., 2022b). Equally, although not specified within the Bystander Intervention Model or TPB, the Arousal Cost-Reward Model suggests that

increases of emotional arousal, such as feelings of empathy, facilitates intervention (Dovidio et al., 1991), thereby providing partial support for this model. This study also highlighted the nuances of displays of victim empathy, such as concerns for the victim's mental health and wellbeing and potential costs to the victim depending on the actions they took. Specifically, in the threatened scenario, participants voiced concern for how the perpetrator may react towards the victim if they intervened by confronting the perpetrator. This shows how the threats to share images presents a unique situation for bystanders in that they are also at the mercy of these threats. Also applicable in the threatened scenario, actions were informed by empathising with the victim's cultural or religious context, or the relationship between the victim and the recipient of the images, which impacted the advice they would give to the victim. A recent study found that victims who had experienced the sharing of nude or sexual images without consent from very conservative cultures were treated extremely harshly by family and friends, and some reported experiencing physical violence as a result (Aborisade, 2021). This suggests that certain actions are not always appropriate given the victim's wider context and it is encouraging that participants were empathetic towards this nuance.

In addition to victim empathy, concerns for victim agency were found to be a facilitator of intervention. Participants felt it was important for victims to be aware of their victimisation so they could make appropriate decisions in how to respond for themselves. These findings are particularly encouraging given evidence has shown that those who engage in controlling actions towards victims of SV, such as forcing them to engage with the police, results in the victim being more likely to experience negative mental wellbeing (Peter-Hagene & Ullman, 2014). Conversely, in some cases participants felt that the greater good, outweighed concerns for what the victim would want. These conflicting viewpoints highlight the complexities that bystanders may face when trying to engage in positive bystander action.

When considering the role of situational factors, such as that regarding relationships,

the current study found that bystanders are more likely to provide support to victims who they are friends with, and equally, be more likely to confront a perpetrator who is a friend. These findings align with those of past research. In SV contexts, evidence consistently shows that having a personal relationship with the victim increases the likelihood of intervention (Labhardt et al., 2017; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Flynn et al. (2022b) also found greater likelihood of intervention when the victim or perpetrator was a friend of the bystander in IBSA contexts. However, some participants in the current study did express the importance of intervention irrespective of their relationship with the victim. Given this conflict, future research using an experimental design would allow one to further explore whether a bystanders' relationship with the individuals involved affects their willingness to intervene in these cases.

The final facilitator identified, perceptions of positive justice outcomes, facilitated bystander engagement with the police or criminal justice system, and conversely, perceptions of negative outcomes or experiences for the victim would decrease the likelihood of engagement in these actions. Particularly, participants were concerned about the speed with which the police would handle threats and empathised with the victim regarding the difficulties they may face if they involve the police, such as these images being viewed by others and the crimes being difficult to prove. These barriers for victims of IBSA have also been identified by relevant stakeholders (Henry et al., 2018) which suggests that bystanders are attuned to the potential difficulties that victims may face when engaging with these organisations. Research from SV contexts has similarly found that bystanders have concerns regarding victim engagement with the police (Tebbe, 2021).

Barriers of Intervention

The current study identified the following barriers of intervention: presence of other bystanders, fears for safety, female perpetrators, and male victims. Regarding the presence of

other bystanders, this was identified as a situational factor that would inhibit intervention, particularly in the taken scenario. Specifically, the presence of other bystanders would result in a diffusion of responsibility and increase in audience inhibition, which would then inhibit intervention. Diffusion of responsibility in the presence of other bystanders has also been found in SV contexts (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Oesterle et al., 2018). Equally, audience inhibition was found to inhibit bystander intervention in SV contexts (e.g., Burn, 2009; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Importantly, these barriers are outlined in the Bystander Intervention Model (Burn, 2009; Latané & Darley, 1970), and the current study provides further support for the application of this model in IBSA contexts. However, in the current study, audience inhibition not only related to the presence of other bystanders, but also to the presence of the victim in the taken scenario. Participants expressed concerns about embarrassing the victim or unknowingly going against the wishes of the victim. This brings into question whether such barriers exist only in the presence of other bystanders, or whether such concerns can arise even when solely in the presence of the victim and perpetrator.

It should be noted, however, that the presence of other bystanders was not always identified as a barrier. Some participants felt that the presence of bystanders would increase their confidence because they would be able to confirm or discuss what was happening and how best to respond, particularly in the context of non-consensual taking and sharing of images (i.e., taken and shared scenarios). Other participants described how concerns for their personal safety were a barrier of intervention. Therefore, the presence of other bystanders could help overcome these concerns. This nuance has also been identified by previous research from both SV and IBSA contexts (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022b; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see also Chapter 2), and further supports the suggestion that the presence of other bystanders can act as both a facilitator and a barrier. Therefore, further empirical attention needs to be given to potential mediating and moderating variables.

Finally, regarding gender of the perpetrator, many participants felt that witnessing a female perpetrator taking an image without consent would decrease the likelihood of intervention, due to giving them the benefit of the doubt or assuming their intentions were not malicious or sexual in nature. Consistent with this finding, Arbeit (2018) found that bystander intervention was avoided in the context of hypothetical SV scenarios when the perpetrator was female due to confusion on behalf of the bystander. Furthermore, Flynn et al. (2022b) found similar doubts and assumptions of non-malicious intentions for female perpetrators in the context of their hypothetical IBSA scenarios. Although perpetrators of IBSA are more likely to be male (e.g., Henry et al., 2017, 2020), these findings are concerning given that reported motivations of female perpetrators are similar to those of male perpetrators (Henry et al., 2020).

Regarding gender of the victim, although not always expressed, many participants identified female victims as being more likely to receive help than male victims in IBSA contexts. Greater likelihood of bystander intervention for female victims has also been found in SV contexts (e.g., Katz, 2015; Savage et al., 2017). In the current study, these views were facilitated by feeling more protective of female victims, as participants believed them to be more vulnerable, and more likely to experience severe consequences as a result. Further, some participants perceived that male victims are less bothered by the behaviour or more capable of handling such incidents by themselves. Similar trivialisations of male victim experiences have been identified in IBSA contexts previously (Gavin & Scott, 2019), and mirror examples of male rape myths identified in the SV literature (see Turchik & Edwards, 2012).

Limitations

In addition to the limitations detailed in Chapter 3 regarding the method and sample used, there are further considerations to highlight with reference to the research aim and

findings of this chapter. In particular, two further limitations are worthy of comment, one relating to the method used and the other relating to the generalisability of the findings.

First, the use of focus groups relied on the participants' ability to be interoceptive and honest when considering how particular factors may influence their behaviour. Therefore, it is possible that these findings are reflective of personal ideals or social desirability pressures and misrepresentative of actual behaviour, thereby reducing the validity of the findings. Relatedly, focus groups are not well-suited to gaining an understanding of how some individual and contextual factors may influence behaviour. For example, it would be difficult for an individual to reflect on how their own gender impacts their likelihood of intervention. However, other research using less social desirability-inducing methodologies (e.g., anonymised surveys) have reported similar findings regarding real-life bystander experiences to IBSA (Flynn et al., 2022a). Additionally, a focus group method was chosen because of the exploratory nature of the study, its use in informing later empirical research within this thesis, and its focus on a complex mix of attitudes, experiences, and knowledge that influence behaviour (Morgan & Krueger, 1993). In confirming or developing upon the current findings, further research within this thesis has utilised experimental designs whereby factors, such as those identified here, are manipulated (see Chapter 5). Similarly, as some individual and contextual factors cannot be easily manipulated, surveys were used to capture these effects and relationships (see Chapter 6).

The second limitation concerns the generalisability of the findings to other IBSA contexts. Specifically, although the scenarios used were quite broad, the applicability of the findings to other non-consensual taking, sharing, and threatening contexts is still limited. For example, when discussing the shared scenario, participants may have inferred that the photo was being shared by the perpetrator with malicious intent because the victim and the perpetrator had ended their relationship. Previous research in SV contexts has shown that

indicators of a perpetrator's malicious intention can facilitate intervention (e.g., Butler et al., 2017; Oesterle et al., 2018). If such a detail acts as a facilitator of intervention, this may have concealed other facilitators or barriers which occur in contexts where the perpetrators motivations are less obvious but equally reflective of real-life examples of IBSA. Further, evidence shows that perpetrators of IBSA report engaging in this behaviour for many reasons other than those that are malicious, such as to be funny or sexy or to impress their friends (Henry et al., 2020). Therefore, to improve upon this, further research within this thesis utilised hypothetical IBSA scenarios whereby there is no implied malice on behalf of the perpetrator (i.e., current partner rather than ex-partner) to provide greater insight into barriers where bystander intervention may be less likely but still just as important.

Conclusion

This aim of this study was to explore factors that facilitate and inhibit intended bystander intervention in the context of three different IBSA scenarios. A range of factors have been identified, many of which mirror those found in SV contexts and support the application of theoretical models of decision-making in IBSA contexts, such as the role of feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, and relationships. However, there are also factors which have not previously been considered, some of which appear to be unique to IBSA, such as the victim's vulnerability regarding the extent of the sharing of the images and concern for victim agency. The following empirical chapters of this thesis continue to investigate the role of different factors in bystander intervention in these contexts using other methodologies which allow greater control and insight into facilitators and barriers not suited to the focus group method.

Chapter 5: Three Experiments Investigating the Role of Situational Variables as Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention Intent in Image-Based Sexual Abuse Contexts

Chapters 1, 2, and 4 have identified a range of situational variables which may act as facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) contexts. In the current chapter, these ideas are developed and investigated further through the use of three experimental studies. The effect of a variety of situational variables, as well as potential mediators of these effects, upon bystander intervention were investigated. Specifically, the first experiment reports on the impact of the presence of other bystanders in the context of taking images without consent (Experiment 1). The second experiment reports on the impact of initial consent to take the image and bystander relationship with the victim in the context of sharing images without consent (Experiment 2). Finally, the third experiment reports on the impact of initial consent to take the image and bystander relationship with the perpetrator in the context of making threats to share images (Experiment 3).

Introduction

In the context of an ecological framework for understanding bystander intervention likelihood in IBSA contexts, the role of individual, situational, and contextual variables are worthy of investigation, as well as the interactions and mediations across these variables. As detailed in Chapters 1 and 2, situational variables reflect characteristics related to the incident, including the IBSA behaviour itself. Aligning with the ecological model, these variables would be encompassed by the ‘microsystem’, which reflects variables proximal to the individual, such as peer and family groups (e.g., peer norms) and the situation or

behaviour (e.g., presence of other bystanders) (Banyard, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Chapters 1, 2, and 4 have identified a range of situational variables which may act as facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, both in regard to theories and empirical evidence, some of which is briefly recapped here.

Theories and models of decision-making for bystander intervention have outlined the potential role of situational facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention. For example, the Bystander Intervention Model (Latané & Darley, 1970) specified that the presence of other bystanders during an incident acts as a barrier of intervention (i.e., the bystander effect), and this variable has received a lot of attention in the literature within emergency, abuse, and sexual violence (SV) contexts (e.g., Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Evidence has shown that such effects can be due to a diffusion of responsibility (e.g., Kaya et al., 2019; Oesterle et al., 2018) and audience inhibition (e.g., Burn, 2009; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Chapter 4 also identified that the presence of other bystanders can act as a barrier of intervention in IBSA contexts, particularly in regard to the non-consensual taking of images, and such effects were due to a reduced sense of responsibility and feelings of audience inhibition.

Conversely, as noted in Chapter 2, the bystander effect is not consistently reported in SV contexts, with some studies showing that the presence of other bystanders can act as a facilitator of intervention (Mainwaring et al., 2022). This is likely due to the presence of other bystanders acting as a source of support, particularly when in the presence of peers. For example, additional bystanders could offer support to minimise the risk of physical retaliation from the perpetrator. Further, a meta-analysis looking at the bystander effect in a range of emergency and non-emergency situations found that helping behaviour increased when in the presence of familiar bystanders than when alone, whereas the bystander effect was present when in the presence of unfamiliar bystanders (Fischer et al., 2011). Chapter 4 also identified

the facilitative nature of the presence of other bystanders, as confirmatory conversations or plans of action could be discussed among bystanders, and fears for safety would be minimised. Further recent evidence using a focus group method identified that in a hypothetical case of upskirting on a train, some participants would only intervene if they knew other people on the train (Flynn et al., 2022b). This again aligns with the suggestion above that the presence of known bystanders may be facilitative. Overall, current theories and evidence document the facilitating and inhibiting nature of the presence of other bystanders, seemingly dependent upon the relationship between the bystander and other bystanders present. Currently, no quantitative evidence exists looking at this within IBSA contexts. Given the overall lack of clarity in regard to this situational variable in the existing literature, determining what processes mediate these effects will help provide further insight into the facilitative or inhibitive nature of this situational variable.

In looking more closely at the individuals directly involved in the incident, the relationship between the bystander and the victim and perpetrator are important situational characteristics to consider. Regarding relationship with the victim, empirical research consistently shows that being friends with the victim increases the likelihood of intervention (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). In IBSA contexts, past research (Flynn et al., 2022b) and focus groups from Chapter 4 also identified this situational variable as a facilitator of intervention, with this being due to emotional responses such as feelings of empathy, need to defend ones friend, and removal of ambiguity. However, an additional finding in Chapter 4 was a willingness to intervene irrespective of the relationship with the victim. Overall, this suggests that the role of this situational characteristic needs further investigation, both in terms of how it impacts bystander intervention and why.

In regard to relationship with the perpetrator, Chapter 2 identified inconsistencies regarding this variable in the literature (Mainwaring et al., 2022). Some studies found that

there was no effect of the relationship between the bystander and perpetrator upon intervention. However, in most cases there was an effect, but the nature of this effect was inconsistent. These inconsistencies may have been due to the lack of consideration of different bystander intervention behaviours (see Chapter 2 for elaboration). In the context of IBSA, Chapter 4 identified that the likelihood of intervention which focused on the perpetrator would be more likely when the bystander knew or was friends with the perpetrator. Conversely, Flynn and colleagues (2022b) found that intervention may be less likely when the perpetrator is a friend, as such actions may result in a relationship breakdown. However, they also identified that this relationship could be facilitative as bystanders perceived a reduction in risk of a negative response compared to if the perpetrator was a stranger.

Overall, the lack of clarity in regard to the role of relationship with the victim and perpetrator warrants further investigation. Looking at the role of potential mediating variables with differing types of intervention may provide the necessary insight to understand why these effects are found. Such an endeavour is particularly important in IBSA contexts given the large number of bystanders who report witnessing IBSA perpetrated by strangers and with victims who are strangers (Flynn et al., 2022b), and therefore the potential for this barrier to be present in many IBSA contexts.

Finally, one situational characteristic which is unique to IBSA, particularly the non-consensual sharing and making threats to share images, is whether the victim consented for the image to be taken in the first place. This could include instances where the original image was self-taken (i.e., a 'selfie') or taken by someone else with their consent, versus if it was stealth-taken (i.e., taken without consent). To date, this has not been considered in regard to bystander intervention. However, evidence shows that support for the criminalisation of non-consensual sharing is reduced when respondents are asked specifically about the sharing of

images that the victim has taken themselves (76%) versus the criminalisation of this behaviour in general (94%) (Lageson et al., 2019). This is due to beliefs that the victim implied consent by sharing the image in the first place, has forfeited their right to privacy, or that they should have foreseen the potential negative consequences and are therefore somewhat responsible (Flynn et al., 2022b; Lageson et al., 2019). Further research has shown greater victim blaming for victims of non-consensual sharing when they initially consented for the image to be taken (e.g., Attrill-Smith et al., 2021; Gavin & Scott, 2019; Zvi & Shechory-Bitton, 2020a, 2020b). Victims themselves report being blamed by friends, family, and police officers for taking or sharing the images in the first instance (Campbell et al., 2020). Such findings are concerning given the number of victims of IBSA who had consented to the image being taken or took the images themselves. Specifically, research found that a large percentage of photos posted on revenge pornography websites (49%) had been self-taken by victims (Uhl et al., 2018). Equally, for victims of non-consensual sharing, most reported that these images were generated with consent within relationships (Short et al., 2017). Altogether, this suggests that self-taken images are likely to be a characteristic of many incidents of IBSA, therefore this variable is important to consider in bystander intervention contexts should this act as a barrier of intervention.

Overall, a vast amount of evidence has looked at the role of situational facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in SV contexts, but there remains limited understanding of these in IBSA contexts. Research which has been conducted to date has used qualitative methodologies or survey methods (including that of the current thesis), whereby the causal effect of these variables cannot be determined. Equally, little consideration has been given to the causes of these effects. Past evidence in both SV and IBSA contexts, including that within Chapter 4, has alluded to possible mediating variables in explaining why these situational variables have an effect on bystander intervention. For example, the effect of the presence of

other bystanders upon feelings of responsibility and audience inhibition, or the effect of self-taken images on victim blaming attitudes. As situational variables cannot be controlled or manipulated, empirical consideration of mediator variables can help us understand these effects, and therefore provide greater use for educational materials for bystander intervention programmes. Consideration of mediating variables may also shed light on inconsistencies reported within the literature.

Therefore, to build upon previous research and further our understanding, the current chapter presents three experimental studies, one for each type of IBSA (i.e., non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and making threats to share). The current studies address the following research questions. For the non-consensual taking of images (Experiment 1), are there differences in willingness to intervene depending on whether there are other bystanders present, and whether these are strangers or friends of the bystander? If so, can these differences be explained by any of the following: audience inhibition, feelings of safety, or feelings of responsibility? For the non-consensual sharing of images (Experiment 2), are there differences in willingness to intervene depending on the bystander's relationship with the victim and the victim's initial consent to take the image? If so, can these differences be explained by any of the following: feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, victim blame, perceived perpetrator motivations, or victim responsibility? Finally, for making threats to share images (Experiment 3), are there differences in willingness to intervene depending on the bystander's relationship with the perpetrator and initial consent to take the image? If so, can these differences be explained by any of the following: feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, victim blame, perceived perpetrator motivations, or victim responsibility? Alongside the main research questions and analyses, exploratory mediation analyses are used to address the questions of why such effects exist, where applicable.

Method

Participants and Recruitment

Participants were recruited from the general population using Prolific (2022). To be eligible, participants had to be currently residing within the UK and be between the ages of 18 and 39 years. This age range was selected due to the nature of the behaviour being studied and the age demographic for which this is most applicable. Specifically, young adults most frequently engage in the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (e.g., Henry et al., 2017, 2020). Further, this age group is most vulnerable to both perpetration and victimisation (Henry et al., 2019, 2020), and the most likely to report being a bystander of IBSA (A.J. Scott, personal communication, February 8, 2021).

A total of 431 participants clicked on the link to take part. Of these, a total of 410 participants completed the study. Thirty-four participants answered at least one manipulation check question wrong and were therefore excluded from the analysis. The total sample for analysis was 376 participants. For Experiment 1: Non-consensual taking of images, there were a total of 126 participants. For Experiment 2: Non-consensual sharing of images, there were a total of 125 participants. For Experiment 3: Making threats to share images, there were a total of 125 participants. These sample sizes met the predetermined requirements for suitable power (of .8)³.

Demographic information for the three experiments and overall (i.e., all three experiments combined) can be found in Table 2. Demographic composition of the sample concerning gender and ethnicity were roughly representative of the UK population, with a slightly higher percentage of ethnic minorities in the current study (Office for National

³ 376 participants were required for suitable power. This was determined using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007). Given that the determination of the number of DVs was identified after data collection, a liberal estimation of four DVs was used for the purposes of determining an appropriate sample size.

Statistics, 2013, 2018). Conversely, the proportion of the sample identifying as LGB was higher than the UK average (Office for National Statistics, 2022).

Table 2*Demographics for Experiment 1, 2, 3, and Overall*

	Experiment 1: Non- consensual taking (<i>n</i> = 126)	Experiment 2: Non- consensual sharing (<i>n</i> = 125)	Experiment 3: Making threats to share (<i>n</i> = 125)	Overall (<i>N</i> = 376)
Gender <i>n</i> (%)				
Female	73 (57.9)	64 (51.2)	59 (47.2)	196 (52.1)
Male	52 (41.3)	58 (46.4)	64 (51.2)	174 (46.3)
Self-describe	1 (0.8)	1 (0.8)	2 (1.6)	4 (1.1)
Prefer not to say	-	2 (1.6)	-	2 (0.5)
Ethnicity <i>n</i> (%)				
White	110 (87.3)	98 (78.4)	99 (79.2)	307 (81.6)
Asian/Asian British	8 (6.3)	12 (9.6)	12 (9.6)	32 (8.5)
Black/African/Caribbean/ Black British	3 (2.4)	4 (3.2)	2 (1.6)	9 (2.4)
Mixed/multiple ethnic groups	2 (1.6)	5 (4.0)	8 (6.4)	15 (4.0)
Other	2 (1.6)	3 (2.4)	2 (1.6)	7 (1.9)
Prefer not to say	1 (0.8)	3 (2.4)	2 (1.6)	6 (1.6)
Sexuality <i>n</i> (%)				
Heterosexual	104 (82.5)	104 (83.2)	110 (88.0)	318 (84.6)
Homosexual	6 (4.8)	4 (3.2)	4 (3.2)	14 (3.7)
Bisexual	13 (10.3)	11 (8.8)	10 (8.0)	34 (9.0)
Self-describe	2 (1.6)	3 (2.4)	-	5 (1.3)
Prefer not to say	1 (0.8)	3 (2.4)	1 (0.8)	5 (1.3)
Occupation <i>n</i> (%)				
Employed full-time	63 (50.0)	67 (53.6)	59 (47.2)	189 (50.3)
Employed part-time	25 (19.8)	11 (8.8)	13 (10.4)	49 (13.0)
Student	22 (17.5)	22 (17.6)	35 (28.0)	79 (21.0)
Seeking opportunities	9 (7.1)	9 (7.2)	11 (8.8)	29 (7.7)
Other	6 (4.8)	13 (10.4)	7 (5.6)	26 (6.9)
Prefer not to say	1 (0.8)	3 (2.4)	-	4 (1.1)
Previous participation in a bystander intervention programme <i>n</i> (%)				
Yes	4 (3.2)	7 (5.6)	1 (0.8)	12 (3.2)
No	119 (94.4)	112 (89.6)	119 (95.2)	350 (93.1)
Unsure	3 (2.4)	6 (4.8)	5 (4.0)	14 (3.7)
Mean age (<i>SD</i>)	28.25 (5.75)	28.12 (5.99)	27.30 (6.42)	27.89 (6.06)

Design

All studies used a between-subjects experimental design where situational variables were manipulated using vignettes. For Experiment 1: Non-consensual taking, one independent variable (IV) was manipulated: *presence of other bystanders*. This IV had three levels: *no other bystanders present*, *other bystanders present who were strangers*, or *other bystanders present who were friends*. For Experiment 2: Non-consensual sharing, two IVs were manipulated: *initial consent to take the image* and the *bystander's relationship with the victim*. The IV of *initial consent to take the image* had two levels: *self-taken* or *stealth-taken*, and *bystander's relationship with the victim* also had two levels: *friend* or *stranger*. For Experiment 3: Making threats to share, two IVs were manipulated: *initial consent to take the image* and the *bystander's relationship with the perpetrator*. The IV of *initial consent to take the image* had two levels: *self-taken* or *stealth-taken*, and *bystander's relationship with the perpetrator* also had two levels: *friend* or *stranger*.

Measures and Materials

Participants were provided with participant and data privacy information, a section to provide informed consent, debrief information (see Appendix G), and a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix H). Participants were given one vignette (see Appendix I) and completed a series of questions related to their *likelihood of bystander intervention*. These items comprised the dependent variables (DV). They also completed a series of measures regarding perceptions of: *feelings of responsibility to intervene*, *victim empathy*, *victim blame*, *perpetrator motivations*, *victim-perpetrator responsibility*, *feelings of safety*, and *audience inhibition*⁴. The vignettes and measures were developed for this piece of research

⁴ In most instances, the items were the same for each measure across the three experiments. However, this was not always possible due to the differences in the scenarios and the applicability of the items for each experiment. These differences are highlighted where appropriate.

after consideration of key research in this area, including that of the current thesis. Use of any existing items or measures are outlined below. Principal components analysis (PCA) and reliability analyses were conducted for the measures within each experiment. Further detail of the vignettes and these measures, including the aforementioned analyses, are outlined below. Items for all measures can be found in Appendix J.

Vignettes

For Experiment 1, there were three versions of the vignette. The vignette depicted the participant (a bystander) witnessing an individual (perpetrator) trying to take an intimate image of another person (victim) on a train, and the number of other bystanders present in the carriage was manipulated. For Experiment 2, there were four versions of the vignette. The vignette depicted a friend (perpetrator) sending a nude image of their partner (victim) to the participant (bystander), and whether there was initial consent for the image to be taken and the relationship between the bystander and the victim was manipulated. For Experiment 3, there were also four versions of the vignette. The vignette depicted a friend (victim) telling the participant (bystander) that their partner (perpetrator) is threatening to upload a nude image of them on social media, and whether there was initial consent for the image to be taken and the relationship between the bystander and the perpetrator was manipulated. Vignettes for each experiment can be found in Appendix I.

Likelihood of Intervention

Participants rated the likelihood that they would intervene in response to being a bystander to the scenario described within the vignette. Intervention items were developed based on previous research (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b) and the focus group study conducted (see Chapter 3). Participants rated their likelihood of engaging in the behaviours on a 7-point Likert scale (1 'extremely unlikely' to 7 'extremely likely'). PCA with an oblique rotation was carried out on these items for each experiment (outlined below) to create

DVs for use within the main analyses. PCA was chosen given the focus on data reduction for use in the analyses and oblique rotation was used given the likelihood of correlated dimensions and the goal of obtaining theoretically meaningful factors (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Participants were also given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take using an open-ended question, ‘Are there any other things you would do in response to [observing this behaviour/being sent this photo/being told about these threats] that were not listed above?’.

Experiment 1: Non-Consensual Taking

Participants rated their likelihood of engaging in 16 different behaviours, see Appendix J for full list of items. When checking the suitability of the data for PCA, all requirements were met⁵. The final model identified a two-factor structure explaining 63.2% of variance (see Table 3). The resulting factor structure produced two DVs, and average scores were created for use in the main analyses. These were: *perpetrator-focused intervention* (6 items, e.g., ‘Tell the person taking the photo to stop what they are doing’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention; and *justice-focused intervention* (4 items, e.g., ‘Inform the police’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of justice-focused intervention. Both factors had suitable reliability ($\alpha = .88$ and $\alpha = .76$, respectively).

⁵ There were over 100 observations and there was a ratio of at least five cases for each of the items (Hair et al., 2018; Pallant, 2016). The correlation matrices showed many correlations of $r = .3$ or greater. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2[120] = 1237.14, p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .90 (should be .5 or above; Hair et al., 2018). Measures of sampling adequacy for each variable were also above .5. For testing linearity, a ‘spot check’ of some combinations of items (as advised in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014) showed no evidence of curvilinearity. Finally, no extreme outliers were identified.

As detailed above, participants were given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take using an open-ended question. Although it was not possible to draw upon this qualitative data for the analyses, having an understanding of the additional actions that could be taken may be helpful for item development in future research. The most common additional actions listed were: informing a member of train staff about the behaviour; signalling to the victim subtly to try to explain what was happening; getting other bystanders to call out the behaviour; and bringing attention to the situation by describing the situation loudly for other bystanders to hear.

Table 3*PCA Loadings and Reliability for Likelihood of Intervention Items for Experiment 1*

Items	Factor	
	1	2
Ask the person taking the photo why they are taking the photo	.98	-.24
Tell the person taking the photo that what they are doing is wrong	.95	-.02
Tell the person taking the photo to stop what they are doing	.89	.06
Not say or do anything and remain where you are	-.70	-.18
Not say or do anything and leave the train carriage	-.62	-.09
Indicate to the person taking the photo, non-verbally, to stop what they are doing	.44	.18
Inform the police	-.02	.83
Advise the target of the photo to inform the police of the situation	.20	.78
Obtain evidence of the person taking the photo	-.09	.65
Speak to the target of the photo and offer them advice on how to deal with the situation	.24	.60
Factor label	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
Reliability of factor	$\alpha = .88$	$\alpha = .76$

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component; Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Bold text shows highest factor loading.

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

Participants rated their likelihood of engaging in 16 different behaviours, see Appendix J for full list of items. When checking the suitability of the data for PCA, all requirements were met⁶. A final three-factor structure explaining 71.6% of the variance was identified (see Table 4). This resulted in three DVs and average scores were created for use in the main analyses. These were: *victim-focused intervention* (4 items, e.g., ‘Offer emotional support to your friend’s partner’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention; *perpetrator-focused intervention* (4 items, e.g., ‘Tell your friend that it is wrong to send nude photos of their partner’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention; and *bystander perpetration* (2 items, e.g., ‘Forward the photo on to another friend of yours’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of bystander perpetration. All three factors had suitable reliability ($\alpha = .84$, $\alpha = .79$, and $r = .38$, $p < .001$, respectively).

As detailed above, participants were given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take using an open-ended question. The most common additional actions listed were: inform the perpetrator that their actions disrespected the victim’s privacy; tell the perpetrator to put themselves in the position of the victim; end their relationship with the perpetrator in some way; and inform the perpetrator of the legal ramifications of their actions.

⁶ There were over 100 observations and there was a ratio of at least five cases for each of the items. The correlation matrices showed many correlations of $r = .3$ or greater. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2[120] = 896.75$, $p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .79. Measures of sampling adequacy for each variable were above .5 for all variables except one, therefore this item was removed when conducting PCA. For testing linearity, a ‘spot check’ of some combinations of items showed no evidence of curvilinearity. Regarding outliers, 21 participants were identified as an extreme outlier on at least one item. However, as the purpose of PCA was to reduce the number of items into interpretable factors for the main analyses, there was a preference to retain outliers where possible to maintain suitable power. Further, when PCA was carried out after the removal of these extreme outliers, the same factor structure was identified, however factor 3 was absent. Given the potential application of the third factor to the literature, it was felt that the outliers should remain, and this third factor be retained at this stage. There was also an additional item on factor 2 (‘comment on the photo’), but the overall structure and interpretation of this factor was the same. Overall, these outliers were retained at this stage.

Table 4*PCA Loadings and Reliability for Likelihood of Intervention Items for Experiment 2*

Items	Factor		
	1	2	3
Contact your friend's partner and offer them advice on how to deal with the situation	.88	-.03	.00
Contact your friend's partner and advise them to inform the police of the situation	.88	.08	-.13
Contact your friend's partner and tell them you have been sent this photo	.86	-.05	.08
Offer emotional support to your friend's partner	.80	-.13	.00
Tell your friend that it is wrong to send nude photos of their partner	.05	-.88	.02
Tell your friend to stop sending nude photos of their partner	.10	-.83	-.14
Ask your friend why they sent you the photo	-.05	-.71	-.21
Not do or say anything and continue with the conversation	-.12	.66	-.30
Forward the photo on to another friend of yours	-.13	-.09	.87
Ask your friend who sent the photo if they have any other photos they can share	.14	.34	.69
Factor label	Victim-focused intervention	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Bystander perpetration
Reliability of factor	$\alpha = .84$	$\alpha = .79$	$r = .38, p < .001$

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component; Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Bold text shows highest factor loading.

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

Participants rated their likelihood of engaging in 13 different behaviours, see Appendix J for full list of items. When checking the suitability of the data for PCA, all requirements were met⁷. A final three-factor structure was identified explaining 63.1% variance (see Table 5). This resulted in three DVs and average scores were created for use in the main analyses. These were: *perpetrator-focused intervention* (3 items, e.g., ‘Tell your friend’s partner who is threatening to upload the photo that it is wrong to make these threats’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention; *victim-focused intervention* (4 items, e.g., ‘Offer your friend who is being threatened advice on how to deal with the situation’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention; and *justice-focused intervention* (3 items, e.g., ‘Advise your friend who is being threatened to inform the police of the situation’), with higher scores representing greater likelihood of justice-focused intervention.

Reliability for factor 1 was excellent ($\alpha = .92$), however, factor 2 was poor ($\alpha = .51$) and factor 3 was questionable ($\alpha = .68$) based on Cronbach alpha criteria. Reliability of factor 2 could not be improved by the removal of any items. However, with shorter scales like in this case, it is more common for low Cronbach alpha levels (Pallant, 2016). In this case, inter-item correlations can be more appropriate, where mean values in the range of .2 to .4 suggest optimal homogeneity (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). For factor 2, the mean value was .24

⁷ Specifically, there were over 100 observations and there was a ratio of at least five cases for each of the items. The correlation matrices showed many correlations of $r = .3$ or greater. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2[78] = 476.38, p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .69. Measures of sampling adequacy for each variable were above .5 for all variables except one, therefore this item was removed when conducting PCA. For testing linearity, a ‘spot check’ of some combinations of items showed no evidence of curvilinearity. Regarding outliers, 21 participants were identified as an extreme outlier for at least one item. However, in a similar fashion to Experiment 2, there was a preference to retain outliers where possible to maintain suitable power. Further, when PCA was carried out after the removal of these extreme outliers, the same factor structure was identified. Therefore, outliers were retained at this stage.

and for factor 3, the mean value was .31, suggesting suitable item homogeneity in these cases despite the alpha values.

As detailed above, participants were given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take using an open-ended question. The most common additional actions listed were: direct the victim to relevant charities or organisations who may be able to support them and advising the victim to leave the relationship.

Table 5*PCA Loadings and Reliability for Likelihood of Intervention Items for Experiment 3*

Items	Factor		
	1	2	3
Tell your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo that it is wrong to make these threats	.94	.08	-.03
Ask your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo why they are threatening this	.94	.03	-.03
Tell your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo to stop making these threats	.90	-.03	.04
Not say or do anything and stop talking with your friend on the phone	.02	-.73	.06
Not say or do anything and continue with the conversation	-.03	-.69	.03
Offer emotional support to your friend who is being threatened	-.02	.59	.00
Offer your friend who is being threatened advice on how to deal with the situation	.09	.56	.17
Inform the police	.17	-.20	.84
Advise your friend who is being threatened to inform the police of the situation	-.09	.09	.83
Advise your friend who is being threatened to obtain evidence of these threats	-.13	.22	.67
Factor label	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Victim-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
Reliability of factor	$\alpha = .92$	$\alpha = .51$	$\alpha = .68$

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component; Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. Bold text shows highest factor loading.

Feelings of Responsibility

Participants rated how responsible they would feel to help in this situation using eight items (seven items were used for Experiment 3), for example, ‘I would not feel responsible to say or do something in this situation’. Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). See Appendix J for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with good reliability for each experiment (Experiment 1: $\alpha = .88$; Experiment 2: $\alpha = .87$; Experiment 3: $\alpha = .80$). An average score measuring *feelings of responsibility* was created for use in the exploratory analyses with higher scores representing greater feelings of responsibility.

Victim Empathy

Participants rated how empathetic they felt towards the victim in this situation using two items which were adapted from past research (Katz, Paziienza, et al., 2015), for example, ‘I would feel sorry for the target of the photo’. Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). See Appendix J for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with suitable reliability in each experiment (Experiment 1: $r = .82, p < .001$; Experiment 2: $r = .88, p < .001$; Experiment 3: $r = .67, p < .001$). An average score measuring *victim empathy* was created for use in the exploratory analyses with higher scores representing greater victim empathy.

Victim Blame

Participants rated how much blame they felt towards the victim in these situations using three items which were adapted from past research (Katz et al., 2017), for example, ‘I would think that the target of the photo is at least partly to blame for the situation’.

Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a 7-point Likert scale (1

‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). See Appendix J for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with suitable reliability in each experiment (Experiment 1: $\alpha = .74$; Experiment 2: $\alpha = .82$; Experiment 3: $\alpha = .72$). An average score measuring *victim blame* was created for use in the exploratory analyses with higher scores representing greater victim blame.

Perpetrator Motivations

Participants rated their perceptions of the perpetrator’s motivations using six items (five items for Experiment 1), for example, ‘I would think the person taking the photo is trying to humiliate the target of the photo’. These items were developed and adapted from previous research which investigated perpetrator motivations (e.g., Henry et al., 2020). Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). See Appendix J for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items in Experiment 1, with only two items remaining in the final factor structure. These two items had good reliability ($r = .70, p < .001$) and represented perceived *perpetrator malicious motivations*. A single factor structure was also identified for Experiment 2, with four items remaining in the factor. These four items had good reliability ($\alpha = .85$) and also represented perceived *perpetrator malicious motivations*. For Experiment 3, two factors were identified, one measuring perceived *perpetrator malicious motivations*, with three items and acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .79$), and the other measuring *perpetrator mitigation*, with two items and acceptable reliability ($r = .30, p = .001$). For all studies, an average score measuring perceived *perpetrator malicious motivations* was created for use in the exploratory analyses, with higher scores representing greater perceptions of malicious motivations. For Experiment 3, an additional average score measuring *perpetrator mitigation* was created with higher scores representing greater perceived perpetrator mitigation.

Victim-Perpetrator Responsibility

Participants were provided with a sliding scale question which asked them to assign a score to represent the responsibility of the victim and the perpetrator in the scenario. The total score for responsibility had to equal 100 (see Appendix J). The score for *victim responsibility* was used in the exploratory analyses with higher scores representing greater victim responsibility.

Feelings of Safety

This variable was developed and measured for Experiment 1 only. Participants rated their feelings of safety if they intervened using one item, 'I would be concerned for my own safety if I said or did something'. Participants rated their agreement with this statement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 'strongly disagree' to 7 'strongly agree'). This score was used in the exploratory analyses as a measure of *feelings of safety* with higher scores representing greater fears for safety.

Audience Inhibition

This variable was developed and measured for Experiment 1 only. Participants rated their feelings of audience inhibition with three items, for example, 'I would be concerned that I would look stupid if I said or did something'. Participants rated their agreement with these statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 'strongly disagree' to 7 'strongly agree'). See Appendix J for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with questionable reliability ($\alpha = .63$). The removal of any items did not greatly improve the reliability, so all items were retained. An average score measuring *audience inhibition* was created for use in the exploratory analyses with higher scores representing greater audience inhibition.

Demographic Characteristics

Participants were asked for their age (years), country of residence, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, professional/employment status, highest level of qualification achieved, and whether they had ever participated in a bystander intervention training programme before.

See Appendix H.

Pilot Studies

These experiments were piloted twice. In the first pilot, 15 participants completed the study and feedback was collected on the following areas: ease of working through the study, engagement, clarity of instructions and items, and time taken to complete the study. The pilot data was checked to ensure that randomisation was working correctly (i.e., that participants were randomly assigned to one of the three experiments), that the data retrieved was comprehensible, any reverse scored items were not causing problems, and that no ceiling or floor effects were evident.

The second pilot was conducted with 42 participants. Initially, the experiments (Chapter 5) and surveys (Chapter 6) were combined, with the intention of having the same sample complete both. However, feedback from the first and second pilot resulted in the experiments and surveys using different samples. This was due to concerns raised regarding a sense of repetition when completing both the experiment and survey as well as participant fatigue because of the length of the study when both elements were combined. Feedback from the pilots and details of the changes can be found in Appendix K.

Procedure

Participants completed the research online via Qualtrics XM (2022). First, participants were provided with participant and data privacy information and provided informed consent. They were then asked to provide demographic information which also included screener validation to ensure that the participants were between the ages of 18 and

39 and that they resided in the UK. Participants were then randomly allocated to one of the three experiments and randomly allocated to one of the conditions within each experiment. They were provided with a vignette and then completed measures of *likelihood of intervention, feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, victim blame, perpetrator motivations, victim-perpetrator responsibility, feelings of safety, and audience inhibition*⁸. Participants then completed a manipulation check question whereby they were asked to select the option which matched the details of the vignette they read, for example, ‘Please indicate which of the following is true in regard to the scenario that you read: You are also friends with the person depicted in the image or you do not know the person depicted in the image’.

The presentation of the items for each measure throughout the experiment was randomised and the ‘request response’ tool within Qualtrics was used to highlight if the participant had missed a question. After they had completed all main parts of the experiment, participants were asked if they had ever completed a bystander intervention training programme before being provided with debrief information and thanked for their participation.

This research received ethical approval from Goldsmiths University’s Research Ethics Committee and was preregistered on AsPredicted (Wharton Credibility Lab, 2015; see Appendix L for preregistration).

Analysis

For Experiment 1, data was analysed using a one-way MANOVA, with one IV: *presence of other bystanders* with three levels (*only bystander, other bystanders [friends], or other bystanders [strangers]*) and two DVs: *perpetrator-focused intervention* and *justice-focused intervention*. For Experiment 2, data was analysed using a 2×2 MANOVA, with two

⁸ Participants completed *feelings of safety* and *audience inhibition* measures for Experiment 1: Non-consensual taking only.

IVs, each with two levels: *initial consent to take the image (self-taken or stealth-taken)* and *relationship with the victim (friend or stranger)*. There were three DVs: *victim-focused intervention, perpetrator-focused intervention, and bystander perpetration*. For Experiment 3, data was analysed using a 2×2 MANOVA, with two IVs, each with two levels: *initial consent to take the image (self-taken or stealth-taken)* and *relationship with the perpetrator (friend or stranger)*. There were three DVs: *perpetrator-focused intervention, victim-focused intervention, and justice-focused intervention*. For any significant main or interaction effects, ANOVAs were used to explore these effects further. Bonferroni corrections of p values to control for the family-wise error rate were not used given the infancy of this area of research and the desire to identify any effects worthy of further study (Armstrong, 2014).

Interpretation of effect sizes are based on Cohen (1988).

Exploratory analyses were also conducted. In particular, where significant effects were identified using ANOVAs, exploratory parallel multiple mediation analyses were conducted. Steps outlined in Hayes (2017) using PROCESS in SPSS were followed. Non-parametric confidence interval bootstrapping procedures ($n = 5000$, as recommended in Hayes, 2009) were used to make inferences about specific indirect effects. In these cases, significant indirect effects are supported by the absence of zero within the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals. Exploratory correlational analyses were also conducted between the exploratory variables⁹ and the DVs.

⁹ There were six participants who did not answer the victim and perpetrator responsibility correctly, as their total score did not equal 100. Therefore, although the data was not missing (i.e., a value had been inputted), in their current format they could not be used within the analyses. Given the small number of cases, substituted values were imputed. Specifically, new values which summed to 100 but were proportional to the original values were created (e.g., a value of 9 and 1 became values of 90 and 10).

Results

Assumption Testing

In all three experiments, assumptions of linearity, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity were met. Normality tests showed that the assumption of normality had been violated, however, robustness was ensured given the large sample sizes per cell (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Equally, MANOVAs are robust to modest violations of normality (Pallant, 2016). A number of extreme outliers and multivariate outliers were identified¹⁰. To protect against Type 1 errors, non-parametric tests were carried out where significant effects were found to determine whether the outliers were having an undue influence on the findings. In all instances, the results mirrored those from the parametric analyses and therefore the outliers were retained. See Appendix M for non-parametric analyses.

Experiment 1: Non-Consensual Taking

MANOVA

A one-way between-groups MANOVA was performed to investigate the effect of the presence of other bystanders upon likelihood of bystander intervention. The IV was the *presence of other bystanders* with three levels (*only bystander*, *other bystanders [friends]*, or *other bystanders [strangers]*). Two DVs were used: *perpetrator-focused intervention* and *justice-focused intervention*.

The MANOVA analysis showed that there were no significant differences across the three conditions on the combined DV, $F(4, 244) = 1.53, p = .196$; Wilks' Lambda = .95; partial $\eta^2 = .02$, nor were there significant differences for each DV: perpetrator-focused intervention, $F(2, 123) = 1.51, p = .224$; partial $\eta^2 = .02$, justice-focused intervention, $F(2,$

¹⁰ Most of the extreme outliers were identified for the *bystander perpetration* DV in Experiment 2.

123) = 0.12, $p = .889$; partial $\eta^2 < .01$. See Table 6 for F statistics and Table 7 for descriptive statistics.

Table 6

Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention by Presence of Other Bystanders for Experiment 1

Variable	MANOVA	ANOVA	
	F	Perpetrator-focused intervention F	Justice-focused intervention F
Presence of other bystanders	1.53	1.51	0.12

Note. F ratios are Wilks' Lambda.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention as a Function of Presence of Other Bystanders for Experiment 1

Variable		Perpetrator-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
		M (SD)	M (SD)
Presence of other bystanders	Only bystander	4.58 (1.65)	4.90 (1.56)
	Other bystanders (friends)	5.13 (1.40)	4.76 (1.09)
	Other bystanders (strangers)	4.67 (1.61)	4.84 (1.37)

Exploratory Analyses

As there was no significant effect of the presence of other bystanders, no mediation analyses were performed. However, exploratory correlations identified significant relationships between the exploratory variables and the likelihood of perpetrator- and justice-focused intervention (see Table 8). Of note, are the medium effects (i.e., above .3, see Cohen, 1988) found for safety concerns and victim empathy, and large effects (i.e., above .5, see Cohen, 1988) found for audience inhibition and feelings of responsibility. Specifically, these

findings show that greater feelings of audience inhibition and greater concerns for safety are associated with reduced likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention. Further, greater feelings of responsibility and victim empathy are associated with greater likelihood of perpetrator- and justice-focused intervention.

Table 8

Correlations Between Exploratory Variables and Likelihood of Bystander Intervention for Experiment 1

	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
Audience inhibition	-.51 ^{***}	-.22 [*]
Safety concerns	-.40 ^{***}	-.07
Feelings of responsibility	.65 ^{***}	.56 ^{***}
Victim empathy	.40 ^{***}	.45 ^{***}
Victim blame	-.21 [*]	-.03
Perpetrator malicious motivations	.20 [*]	.13
Victim responsibility	.02	-.01

Note. Bold text represents medium and large effect sizes based on Cohen (1988). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

MANOVA

A 2×2 between-groups MANOVA was carried out to investigate the effects of the *relationship with the victim* and *initial consent to take the image* upon likelihood of bystander intervention. The IVs were *relationship with the victim* with two levels (*friend* or *stranger*) and *initial consent to take the image* with two levels (*self-taken* or *stealth-taken*). Three DVs were used: *victim-focused intervention*, *perpetrator-focused intervention*, and *bystander perpetration*.

The MANOVA analysis showed that there was a statistically significant effect of initial consent to take the image on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 3.61, p = .015$; Wilks'

Lambda = .92; with a medium effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .08$). There was also a statistically significant effect of relationship with the victim on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 2.77, p = .045$; Wilks' Lambda = .94; with a medium effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .07$). Finally, there was no statistically significant interaction of initial consent and relationship with the victim on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 0.62, p = .607$; Wilks' Lambda = .99; partial $\eta^2 = .02$. The F ratios can be found in Table 9.

When investigating the overall effect for initial consent, a statistically significant difference was found for victim-focused intervention, $F(1, 121) = 6.80, p = .010$, with a small effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .05$). Mean scores indicated that likelihood of victim-focused intervention was greater when the image was stealth-taken ($M = 3.53, SD = 1.71$) compared to if it was self-taken ($M = 2.77, SD = 1.54$). There was also a statistically significant difference for perpetrator-focused intervention, $F(1, 121) = 7.31, p = .008$, with a medium effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .06$). Mean scores indicated that the likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention was greater when the image was stealth-taken ($M = 6.32, SD = 0.93$) compared to if it was self-taken ($M = 5.79, SD = 1.22$).

Further, when investigating the overall effect for relationship with the victim, a statistically significant difference was found for victim-focused intervention, $F(1, 121) = 4.30, p = .040$, with a small effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .03$). Mean scores indicated that likelihood of victim-focused intervention was greater when the victim was a friend ($M = 3.44, SD = 1.62$) compared to if the victim was a stranger ($M = 2.84, SD = 1.66$). See descriptive statistics in Table 10.

Table 9

Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention by Initial Consent and Relationship with Victim for Experiment 2

Variable	MANOVA	ANOVA		
	<i>F</i>	Victim-focused intervention <i>F</i>	Perpetrator-focused intervention <i>F</i>	Bystander perpetration <i>F</i>
Initial consent (IC)	3.61*	6.80**	7.31**	1.92
Relationship with victim (RwV)	2.77*	4.30*	< 0.01	1.59
IC × RwV	0.62	1.08	0.18	0.57

Note. *F* ratios are Wilks' Lambda. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention as a Function of Initial Consent and Relationship with Victim for Experiment 2

Variable		Victim-focused intervention	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Bystander perpetration
		<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Initial consent	Self-taken	2.77 (1.54)**	5.79 (1.22)**	1.30 (0.82)
	Stealth-taken	3.53 (1.71)**	6.32 (0.93)**	1.12 (0.53)
Relationship with victim	Victim friend	3.44 (1.62)*	6.06 (1.02)	1.13 (0.47)
	Victim stranger	2.84 (1.66)*	6.04 (1.22)	1.29 (0.87)

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Exploratory Analyses

As there were significant main effects of initial consent for victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention, exploratory parallel multiple mediation analyses were carried out. The mediators were: *feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, victim blame, perpetrator malicious motivations, and victim responsibility.*

First, a parallel multiple mediation model was created for victim-focused intervention (see Table 11). Over a third of the variance (34.0%) in intent to engage in victim-focused

intervention is explained by all five mediators and initial consent. The total effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) was significant ($c = .76, p = .011, CI = .18, 1.33$). However, when all mediators were statistically controlled, the likelihood of victim-focused intervention did not differ as a function of initial consent ($c^I = .44, p = .154, 95\% CI = -.17, 1.04$). For the full set of regression models that define this parallel multiple mediator model, see Table N1 in Appendix N.

Table 11

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Victim-Focused Intervention (Y) and Initial Consent (X) for Experiment 2

Antecedent		Consequent		
		Y (victim-focused intervention)		
		<i>C</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
X (initial consent)	c^I	.44	.30	.154
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	b_1	.71	.13	< .001
M ₂ (victim empathy)	b_2	.02	.12	.844
M ₃ (victim blame)	b_3	.08	.13	.532
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	b_4	.18	.11	.085
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	b_5	.00	.01	.904
Model summary		$R^2 = .340$ $F(6, 118) = 10.12,$ $p < .001$		

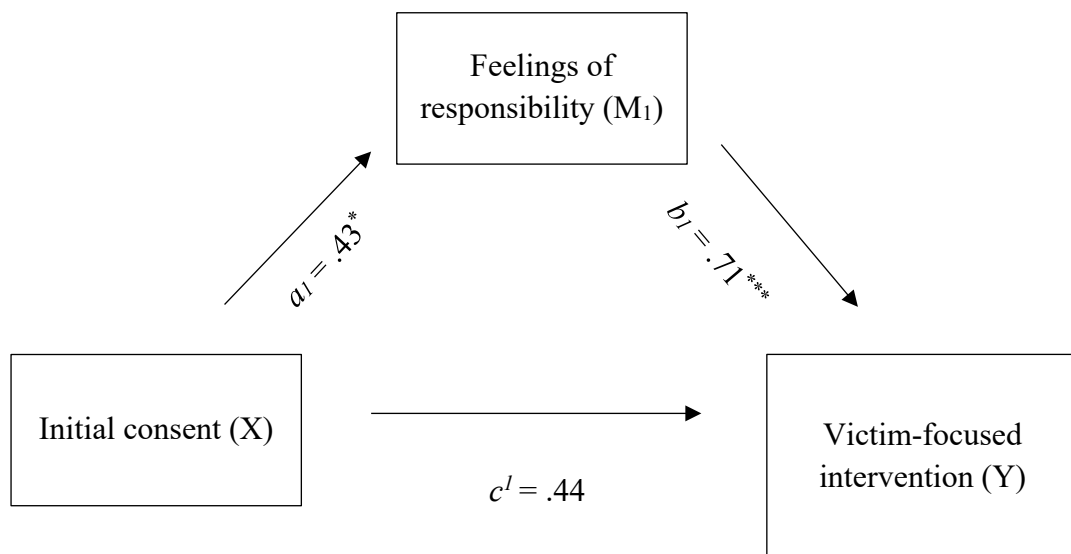
Note. *C* = coefficient.

Bootstrapping procedures identified a single significant indirect effect for feelings of responsibility (M₁) ($a_1b_1 = .31, \text{bootstrap } SE = .15, 95\% \text{ bootstrap } CI = .03, .64$). In interpreting this finding, when the image was self-taken, bystanders felt a reduced sense of

responsibility to intervene, which then resulted in a reduced likelihood of engaging in victim-focused intervention. See Figure 5 for a visual representation of this indirect effect.

Figure 5

Mediation of Feelings of Responsibility Between Initial Consent and Victim-Focused Intervention for Experiment 2



Note. Figures represent regression coefficients. a_1 = effect of initial consent on feelings of responsibility, b_1 = effect of feelings of responsibility on victim-focused intervention controlling for initial consent and other mediator variables, c^l = direct effect of initial consent on victim-focused intervention controlling for feelings of responsibility and other mediator variables. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

Second, a parallel multiple mediation model was created for perpetrator-focused intervention (see Table 12). Over half of the variance (53.3%) in intent to engage in perpetrator-focused intervention is explained by all five mediators and initial consent. The total effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) was significant ($c = .53$, $p = .007$, 95% CI = .15, .92), however, when all mediators were statistically controlled, the likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention did not differ as a function of initial consent ($c^l = .27$, $p =$

.123, 95% CI = -.07, .61). For the full set of regression models that define this parallel multiple mediator model, see Table N2 in Appendix N.

Table 12

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Perpetrator-Focused Intervention (Y) and Initial Consent (X) for Experiment 2

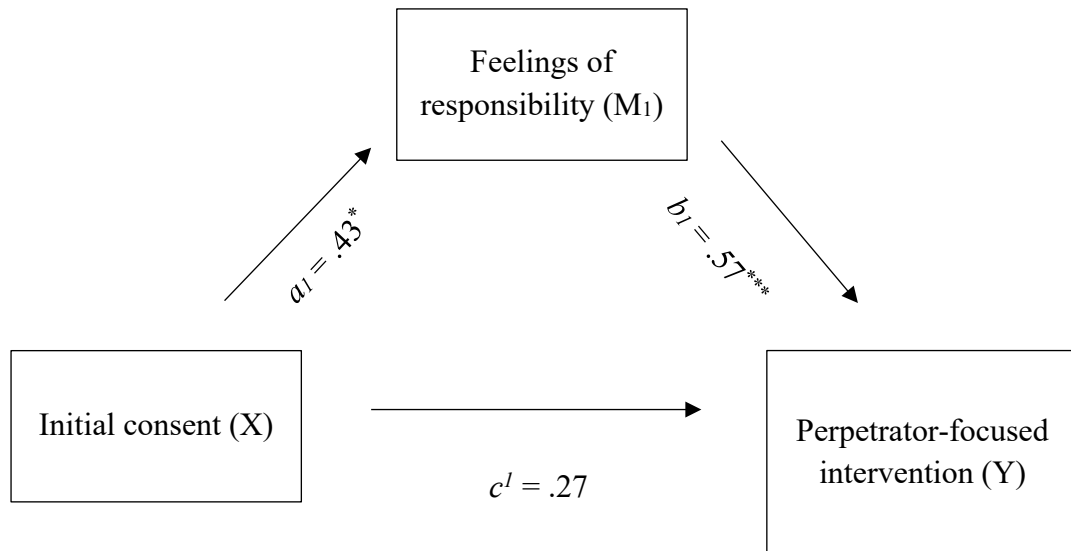
Antecedent		Consequent		
		Y (perpetrator-focused intervention)		
		<i>C</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
X (initial consent)	<i>c'</i>	.27	.17	.123
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₁	.57	.07	< .001
M ₂ (victim empathy)	<i>b</i> ₂	.14	.07	.039
M ₃ (victim blame)	<i>b</i> ₃	.11	.08	.156
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	<i>b</i> ₄	.10	.06	.089
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₅	-.00	< .01	.550
Model summary			<i>R</i> ² = .533 <i>F</i> (6, 118) = 22.46, <i>p</i> < .001	

Note. *C* = coefficient.

Bootstrapping procedures identified a single significant indirect effect for feelings of responsibility (M₁) ($a_1b_1 = .24$, bootstrap $SE = .12$, 95% bootstrap CI = .02, .50). In interpreting this finding, when the image was self-taken, bystanders felt a reduced sense of responsibility to intervene, which then resulted in a reduced likelihood of engaging in perpetrator-focused intervention. See Figure 6 for a visual representation of this indirect effect.

Figure 6

Mediation of Feelings of Responsibility Between Initial Consent and Perpetrator-Focused Intervention for Experiment 2



Note. Figures represent regression coefficients. a_1 = effect of initial consent on feelings of responsibility, b_1 = effect of feelings of responsibility on perpetrator-focused intervention controlling for initial consent and other mediator variables, c^l = direct effect of initial consent on perpetrator-focused intervention controlling for feelings of responsibility and other mediator variables. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

As there were also significant main effects of relationship with the victim for victim-focused intervention, similar parallel multiple mediation analyses were carried out (see Table 13). Just over a third of the variance (36.3%) in intent to engage in victim-focused intervention is explained by all five mediators and relationship with the victim. The total effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) was significant ($c = -.59$, $p = .045$, 95% CI = -1.18, -.01). However, the significant effect of relationship with the victim remained when all the mediators were statistically controlled ($c^l = -.63$, $p = .011$, 95% CI = -1.12, -.14). Bootstrapping procedures identified no significant indirect effects, which is likely due to the non-significant effects of relationship with the victim on the mediators. For the full set of

regression models that define this parallel multiple mediator model, see Table N3 in Appendix N.

Table 13

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Victim-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Victim (X) for Experiment 2

Antecedent		Consequent		
		Y (victim-focused intervention)		
		<i>C</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
X (relationship with victim)	<i>c'</i>	-.63	.25	.012
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₁	.73	.12	< .001
M ₂ (victim empathy)	<i>b</i> ₂	-.02	.12	.885
M ₃ (victim blame)	<i>b</i> ₃	.01	.12	.901
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	<i>b</i> ₄	.26	.10	.012
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₅	.00	.01	.796
Model summary		<i>R</i> ² = .363 <i>F</i> (6, 118) = 11.23, <i>p</i> < .001		

Note. *C* = coefficient.

In addition to mediation analyses, exploratory correlations were performed (see Table 14). Of note, are the medium effects for victim empathy and perpetrator malicious motivations, and the large effects for feelings of responsibility. Specifically, greater feelings of victim empathy was associated with greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention and reduced likelihood of bystander perpetration¹¹. Greater perceived malicious motivations was associated with increased likelihood of victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention.

¹¹ Although exploratory, this finding should be treated with caution due to the number of extreme outliers identified on the *bystander perpetration* measure.

Finally, greater feelings of bystander responsibility was associated with greater likelihood of victim and perpetrator-focused intervention.

Table 14

Correlations Between Exploratory Variables and Likelihood of Bystander Intervention for Experiment 2

	Victim- focused intervention	Perpetrator- focused intervention	Bystander perpetration
Feelings of responsibility	.55^{***}	.70^{***}	-.22 [*]
Victim empathy	.28 ^{**}	.46^{***}	-.32^{***}
Victim blame	-.10	-.15	.24 ^{**}
Perpetrator malicious motivations	.30^{**}	.32^{***}	.11
Victim responsibility	-.04	-.13	.17

Note. Bold text represents large and medium effect sizes based on Cohen (1988). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

MANOVA

A 2×2 between-groups MANOVA was performed to investigate the effects of the *relationship with the perpetrator* and *initial consent to take the image*. The IVs were *relationship with the perpetrator* with two levels (*friend* or *stranger*) and *initial consent to take the image* with two levels (*self-taken* or *stealth-taken*). Three DVs developed through PCA were used: *perpetrator-focused intervention*, *victim-focused intervention*, and *justice-focused intervention*.

The MANOVA showed that there was a statistically significant effect of relationship with the perpetrator on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 15.83, p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda = .72; with a large effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .29$). There was no statistically significant effect of initial consent on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 1.15, p = .331$; Wilks' Lambda = .97; partial $\eta^2 =$

.03. There was also no statistically significant interaction between initial consent and relationship with the perpetrator on the combined DV, $F(3, 119) = 0.61, p = .610$; Wilks' Lambda = .99; partial $\eta^2 = .02$. The F ratios can be found in Table 15.

When investigating the overall effect of relationship with the perpetrator, a statistically significant difference was found for perpetrator-focused intervention, $F(1, 121) = 36.15, p < .001$, with a large effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .23$). As the assumption of equality of variances was violated in this case, a more conservative alpha level of .025 was used (as advised in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Mean scores indicated that likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention was greater when the perpetrator was a friend ($M = 5.63, SD = 1.54$) compared to if they were a stranger ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.93$). There was also a statistically significant difference found for justice-focused intervention, $F(1, 121) = 4.44, p = .037$, with a small effect size (partial $\eta^2 = .04$). Mean scores indicated that likelihood of justice-focused intervention was greater when the perpetrator was a stranger ($M = 5.50, SD = 1.09$) compared to if they were a friend ($M = 5.06, SD = 1.25$). See Table 16 for descriptive statistics.

Table 15

Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention by Initial Consent and Relationship with Perpetrator for Experiment 3

Variable	MANOVA		ANOVA	
		Perpetrator-focused intervention	Victim-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i>
Initial consent (IC)	1.15	2.03	1.24	0.14
Relationship with perpetrator (RwP)	15.83***	36.15***	0.01	4.44*
IC × RwP	0.61	0.09	0.36	1.48

Note. *F* ratios are Wilks' Lambda. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Likelihood of Bystander Intervention as a Function of Initial Consent and Relationship with Perpetrator for Experiment 3

Variable		Perpetrator- focused intervention	Victim- focused intervention	Justice- focused intervention
		<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
Initial consent	Self-taken	4.47 (2.13)	6.55 (0.56)	5.32 (1.12)
	Stealth-taken	4.93 (1.80)	6.43 (0.64)	5.24 (1.26)
Relationship with perpetrator	Perpetrator friend	5.63 (1.54) ^{***}	6.49 (0.67)	5.06 (1.25) [*]
	Perpetrator stranger	3.75 (1.93) ^{***}	6.50 (0.53)	5.50 (1.09) [*]

Note. ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{***} $p < .001$.

Exploratory Analyses

As there were significant main effects of relationship with the perpetrator for perpetrator- and justice-focused intervention, exploratory parallel multiple mediation analyses with bootstrapping procedures were carried out. The mediators were: *bystander feelings of responsibility*, *victim empathy*, *victim blame*, *perpetrator malicious motivations*, *perpetrator mitigation*, and *victim responsibility*.

First, a parallel multiple mediation model was created for perpetrator-focused intervention (see Table 17). Nearly half of the variance (46.6%) in intent to engage in perpetrator-focused intervention is explained by all six mediators and relationship with the perpetrator. The total effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) was significant ($c = -1.88$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -2.49, -1.26). However, the significant effect of relationship with the perpetrator remained when all the mediators were statistically controlled ($c^I = -1.69$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -2.24, -1.15). Bootstrapping procedures identified no significant indirect effects, which is likely due to the non-significant effects of relationship with the perpetrator upon the mediators. For the full set of regression models that define this parallel multiple mediator model, see Table N4 in Appendix N.

Table 17

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Perpetrator-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Perpetrator (X) for Experiment 3

Antecedent		Consequent		
		Y (perpetrator-focused intervention)		
		<i>C</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
X (relationship with perpetrator)	c^l	-1.69	.28	< .001
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	b_1	.96	.15	< .001
M ₂ (victim empathy)	b_2	-.59	.18	.002
M ₃ (victim blame)	b_3	.10	.11	.370
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	b_4	-.34	.18	.060
M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)	b_5	.09	.10	.337
M ₆ (victim responsibility)	b_6	.01	.01	.135
Model summary		$R^2 = .466$ $F(6, 118) = 14.55,$ $p < .001$		

Note. *C* = coefficient.

Second, a parallel multiple mediation model was created for justice-focused intervention (see Table 18). Just over a quarter of the variance (26.5%) in intent to engage in justice-focused intervention is explained by all six mediators and relationship with the perpetrator. The total effect (sum of direct and indirect effects) was significant ($c = .44, p = .037, 95\% \text{ CI} = .03, .86$), however, the significant effect of relationship with perpetrator remained when all the mediators were statistically controlled ($c^l = .54, p = .007, 95\% \text{ CI} = .15, .92$). Bootstrapping procedures identified no significant indirect effects, which is likely due to the non-significant effects of relationship with the perpetrator upon the mediators. For the full set of regression models that define this parallel multiple mediator model, see Table N5 in Appendix N.

Table 18

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Justice-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Perpetrator (X) for Experiment 3

Antecedent		Consequent		
		Y (justice-focused intervention)		
		<i>C</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
X (relationship with perpetrator)	<i>c'</i>	.53	.19	.007
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₁	.34	.11	.002
M ₂ (victim empathy)	<i>b</i> ₂	-.06	.13	.630
M ₃ (victim blame)	<i>b</i> ₃	-.19	.08	.013
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	<i>b</i> ₄	.29	.13	.025
M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)	<i>b</i> ₅	-.01	.07	.911
M ₆ (victim responsibility)	<i>b</i> ₆	.01	< .01	.236
Model summary			$R^2 = .265$ $F(7, 117) = 6.04,$ $p < .001$	

Note. *C* = coefficient.

In addition to mediation analyses, exploratory correlations were performed (see Table 19). Of note, are the medium and large effects for feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, and victim blame. Specifically, greater feelings of bystander responsibility was associated with greater likelihood of perpetrator, victim, and justice-focused intervention. In addition, greater feelings of victim empathy was associated with greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention. Finally, greater victim blame was associated with reduced likelihood of victim- and justice-focused intervention.

Table 19

Correlations Between Exploratory Variables and Likelihood of Bystander Intervention for Experiment 3

	Perpetrator-focused intervention	Victim-focused intervention	Justice-focused intervention
Feelings of responsibility	.37^{***}	.53^{***}	.35^{***}
Victim empathy	-.11	.34^{**}	.17
Victim blame	.09	-.31^{**}	-.36^{***}
Perpetrator malicious motivations	-.11	.28 ^{**}	.26 ^{**}
Perpetrator mitigation	.14	-.23 ^{**}	-.12
Victim responsibility	.15	-.24 ^{**}	-.06

Note. Bold text represents medium and large effect sizes based on Cohen (1988). ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Discussion

This chapter investigated the impact of a range of situational variables upon the likelihood of bystander intervention in three different IBSA contexts using three experimental studies. The chapter also explored why particular situational variables facilitated or inhibited the likelihood of bystander intervention, through the use of exploratory mediation analyses. In this section, the findings are summarised for each experiment and considered in the context of previous research and theory, as well as highlighting some limitations of these studies. The wider implications of these findings with respect to theory, practice, and future research are discussed in Chapter 7: General Discussion.

Experiment 1: Non-Consensual Taking

In the context of non-consensual taking of images, the experiment examined the impact of the presence of other bystanders upon bystander intervention (i.e., perpetrator- and justice-focused intervention). No significant effects were found, therefore the presence of other bystanders, whether they were strangers or friends, had no effect on the likelihood of intervention. These findings are inconsistent with the bystander effect put forward by Darley and Latané (1968), as well as evidence which found a facilitative role for the presence of

other bystanders, particularly the presence of peers (e.g., Fischer et al., 2011; Kaya et al., 2019; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2).

This null finding may be explained by the following: 1) a lack of effect of this manipulation upon those variables expected to mediate the effects of this situational variable (e.g., feelings of responsibility, audience inhibition, and feelings of safety); and 2) role of extraneous variables. First, exploratory ANOVAs revealed no significant differences in feelings of responsibility, audience inhibition, or feelings of safety across the three conditions, despite past evidence showing that the presence of bystanders impacts these three variables. This lack of effect may explain why there was no impact of the presence of other bystanders on likelihood of intervention. Therefore, future research is needed to understand why this manipulation did not impact these expected mediating processes.

Second, there may be extraneous variables which masked or moderated the effect of this situational variable. One such variable is pluralistic ignorance, which is a reliance on the reactions of others in determining whether the situation requires intervention (Latané & Darley, 1970; Latané & Nida, 1981). Vignettes in the current experiment did not describe how the other bystanders responded or reacted to the incident. Given that this visual information would be available to bystanders in a real-life situation, the omission of this detail may have introduced inconsistencies and noise within the data, and thereby reduced the effect of bystander presence. This lack of detail may also explain the null effects on the mediating variables, as assessments of audience inhibition and safety may be more likely if this visual information is available. Other variables which may have introduced noise are social group memberships. For example, Levine and Crowther (2008) found that female bystanders were more likely to help in the presence of other female bystanders compared to being alone. They were also less likely to intervene in the presence of other male bystanders compared to the presence of other female bystanders. For male bystanders, they were more

likely to intervene when in the presence of other female bystanders compared to being alone or in the presence of other male bystanders. As gender of the other bystanders was not specified in the vignettes, and therefore was not controlled, it is possible that this introduced further noise into the data. Altogether, this suggests that future research should give consideration to the behaviour and responses of other bystanders, as well as the social categorisations of bystanders beyond distinguishing between strangers and friends as was considered in this experiment.

In addition to the main analyses, correlational analyses showed that greater feelings of audience inhibition and safety concerns were associated with a reduced likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention. Equally, greater feelings of responsibility and victim empathy were associated with an increased likelihood of perpetrator- and justice-focused intervention. These findings align with that of past research in both SV (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2) and IBSA contexts (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b; see Chapter 4), as well as with the Arousal Cost-Reward Model which stipulates the facilitative nature of emotional arousal (e.g., empathy) and the inhibitive nature of perceived bystander costs of intervention, such as audience inhibition and safety concerns as identified here (Dovidio et al., 1991).

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

In the context of non-consensual sharing of images, the current experiment examined the impact of initial consent to take the image and relationship between the bystander and victim upon bystander intervention (i.e., victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention and bystander perpetration). There was a significant effect of relationship with the victim, whereby victim-focused intervention was more likely when the victim was a friend. This finding is consistent with previous research in SV and IBSA contexts (Flynn et al., 2022b; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). In IBSA contexts, Chapter 4 also showed that having a friendship with the victim can facilitate intervention. However, in Chapter 4, focus

group participants felt it was important to intervene irrespective of their relationship with the victim. These findings suggest there is an effect of this relationship upon intervention, despite one's best intentions to intervene for those who are not friends. It is also important to note that the relationship with the victim only impacted the likelihood of victim-focused intervention and not perpetrator-focused intervention or bystander perpetration, and that none of the mediator variables explained the impact of the relationship with the victim upon victim-focused intervention.

There was also a significant effect of initial consent upon victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention, with both being less likely when the image was self-taken by the victim. However, no significant interactions were found between initial consent and relationship with the victim, suggesting that initial consent to take the image impacts bystander intervention irrespective of the relationship that the bystander has with the victim. To date, initial consent to take the image has not been considered in regard to bystander intervention, but it has frequently been considered in regard to victim blame. In particular, research has shown that perceptions of victim blame are reduced when the victim did not consent to the image being taken (Attrill-Smith et al., 2021; Gavin & Scott, 2019; Zvi & Shechory-Bitton, 2020a, 2020b). Mediation analyses in the current experiment showed that the effect of consent was explained by feelings of responsibility, rather than victim empathy or blame as might be expected based on the evidence available. In the current experiment, when the image was self-taken, bystanders felt a reduced sense of responsibility to intervene, thereby reducing the likelihood of victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention. Further exploratory correlational analyses also identified significant relationships for feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, and perceived perpetrator malicious motivations. Specifically, greater feelings of responsibility, victim empathy, and perceived perpetrator malicious motivations were associated with a greater likelihood of intervention. Altogether, these

findings align with evidence from both the SV and IBSA literature (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapters 2 and 4).

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

In the context of making threats to share, the current experiment examined the impact of initial consent to take the images and relationship between the bystander and perpetrator upon bystander intervention (i.e., perpetrator-, victim-, and justice-focused intervention). There was a significant effect of relationship with the perpetrator whereby the likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention was greater, and the likelihood of justice-focused intervention was reduced, when the perpetrator was a friend. Regarding perpetrator-focused intervention, these findings align with those identified in Chapter 4. However, Chapter 2 identified inconsistencies across the literature in regard to the impact of this variable upon bystander intervention in SV contexts (Mainwaring et al., 2022). Here, one can see that the effect of relationship with the perpetrator impacted types of intervention differently. These differential impacts align with the suggestion outlined in Chapter 2 regarding the use of intervention behaviours which cause the least amount of embarrassment or negative repercussions for the perpetrator (Mainwaring et al., 2022). Specifically, in the current experiment, one can understand why bystanders may be more willing to focus their intervention on the perpetrator if they are a friend, but less likely to engage in justice-focused intervention, whereby such actions are focused on involving the police or criminal justice system (CJS) and thereby resulting in harsher outcomes for the perpetrator. These findings add further support to the suggestion raised in Chapter 2 for bystander intervention research to look at the nuances of bystander behaviour (Mainwaring et al., 2022).

There was no interaction between initial consent and relationship with the perpetrator, and in contrast with the findings of Experiment 2, there was no significant effect of initial consent upon likelihood of intervention. To date, evidence which has looked at the impact of

initial consent on perceptions of the behaviour have focused solely on the non-consensual sharing of images, and not making threats to share images. It is possible that such effects were not found in Experiment 3 because the vignettes used implied a greater sense of severity compared to the vignettes in Experiment 2, thereby reducing the impact of initial consent upon intervention. First, the vignettes in Experiment 2 described a single isolated incident whereby the bystander receives an image from their friend (i.e., the perpetrator).

Comparatively, the vignettes in Experiment 3 described the disclosure of an ongoing incident in which their friend is being threatened. This element of isolated versus ongoing incidents may have resulted in greater perceptions of severity within Experiment 3. Equally, perceptions of severity may have been greater in Experiment 3 due to the victim's perspective (i.e., victim discloses incident to bystander), compared to the perpetrator's perspective in Experiment 2 (i.e., perpetrator sends image to bystander). Overall, future research may benefit from confirming why initial consent is not a barrier of intervention in this context.

Despite these differences with Experiment 2, there was consistency with existing literature regarding the exploratory correlational analyses. Greater feelings of responsibility to intervene were associated with greater likelihood of intervention. Further, greater feelings of victim empathy were associated with greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention and greater victim blame was associated with reduced likelihood of victim- and justice-focused intervention. These findings align with evidence from both the SV and IBSA literature (Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b; Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapters 2 and 4).

Limitations

Limitations of the current studies concern the generalisability to other IBSA contexts, other demographic groups, and comparisons that can be made across the three experiments. First, each vignette described a specific incident of IBSA, thereby potentially limiting the

generalisability to other IBSA scenarios. For example, in Experiment 2, the vignettes described an incident whereby the bystander was sent a digital copy of the image to their phone. However, the non-consensual sharing of images can also occur on social media platforms and through the simple act of showing physical copies of images. This situation (i.e., showing images rather than sending images) may be considered less serious, and therefore it is important to acknowledge that the role of particular situational variables may not be applicable in all cases. Further, in the case of non-consensual sharing, Chapter 4 identified how feelings of direct involvement can encourage intervention. Therefore, it is possible that the vignettes used provided the perfect situational characteristics for encouraging intervention, and that such effects may be different in other incidents of non-consensual image sharing where feelings of direct involvement, such as only being shown an image, are less strong. Future research would benefit from looking at a wider variety of IBSA contexts in determining the application of the current findings to different IBSA scenarios. To ensure that all possible bystander intervention actions are considered, future measures of bystander intervention could incorporate those additional actions identified through the open-ended questions (see relevant Method subsections above).

Second, a large majority of the sample, both overall and for each experiment, was heterosexual and of white ethnicity. Some research has found that across different ethnic and racial groups, there are differences in willingness to intervene in SV contexts (e.g., Brown et al., 2014; Kania & Cale, 2021), as well as experiences of IBSA victimisation (e.g., Branch et al., 2017; Henry et al., 2017). Although the composition of the sample in regard to ethnicity was reflective of the UK population (Office for National Statistics, 2013), future research would benefit from determining whether the current findings apply to minority ethnic groups. This logic could also apply to those identifying as LGB, given the differences in willingness to intervene (Flynn et al., 2022b) and greater likelihood of victimisation and perpetration

experiences for LGB individuals (e.g., Lenhart et al., 2016). Conversely, although there may be issues in generalisabilities to ethnic and sexual minority groups, one of the strengths of this sample is that they were obtained from the general population rather than the student population, in comparison to much of the available bystander intervention literature (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2).

Finally, the perspectives provided for the participants in each experiment was different which means that comparisons across the experiments need to be treated with caution. For example, within Experiment 2, the bystander was engaging with a perpetrator's perspective (i.e., receiving the image from the perpetrator), whereas in Experiment 3, the bystander was engaging with a victim's perspective (i.e., hearing about the threats from the victim). As already identified above, the contrasting findings regarding initial consent for Experiments 2 and 3, may also be explained by these differences in perspective. With the focus being on the victim in Experiment 3, and the likely imagined emotional reaction of the victim when disclosing these threats on behalf of the participant, it is possible that this minimised the impact that initial consent had on bystander reactions. Whereas, in Experiment 2 the issue of consent was disclosed by the perpetrator, thereby potentially creating a disconnect between the emotional experiences of the victim and actions of the bystander.

Conclusion

This chapter investigated the impact of a variety of situational variables upon willingness to intervene in three IBSA contexts. For the non-consensual taking of images, no effect of the presence of other bystanders was found. For the non-consensual sharing of images, victim- and perpetrator-focused intervention was less likely when the victim initially consented to the image being taken (i.e., it was self-taken) and when the victim was a stranger. In explaining the effects of initial consent, mediation analyses identified that a self-taken image reduced feelings of responsibility, thereby reducing the likelihood of

intervention. For making threats to share images, perpetrator-focused intervention was more likely when the perpetrator was a friend, but justice-focused intervention was less likely in this case. Across all three experiments, exploratory correlational analyses identified strong positive relationships between the likelihood of bystander intervention and feelings of responsibility and victim empathy. Altogether, there is some evidence of consistency in these findings compared to SV contexts, as well as with studies looking at bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, and particularly with the study reported in Chapter 4.

The current experiments have expanded on existing findings both in terms of examining variables which have not yet been considered in the literature, as well as uncovering why these situational variables may facilitate or inhibit bystander intervention. To further develop our understanding of facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention, one must also consider characteristics beyond the immediate situation and consider those related to the individual and the wider context. This is addressed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Three Surveys Investigating the Role of Individual and Contextual Variables as Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention Intent in Image-Based Sexual Abuse Contexts

Chapter 5 reported upon the role of situational variables as facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) contexts. In line with the ecological framework, and for a holistic understanding of bystander behaviour, a consideration of the role of individual and contextual variables is also warranted. Chapters 1, 2, and 4 have identified a range of individual and contextual variables which may act as facilitators or barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. In the current chapter, these ideas are developed and investigated further through the use of three studies using a survey method. Specifically, using a variety of individual and contextual variables based on previous evidence, parsimonious regression models have been developed to determine which of these variables are the most important in predicting the likelihood of bystander intervention in the context of non-consensual taking (Survey 1), non-consensual sharing (Survey 2), and making threats to share nude or sexual images (Survey 3).

Introduction

In the context of an ecological framework for understanding bystander intervention behaviour, the role of individual, situational, and contextual variables are worthy of investigation. Individual variables reflect characteristics and experiences of the individual bystander and are encompassed by the ‘ontogenic level’ within the ecological model which reflect intrapersonal variables (Banyard, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; see Chapter 1). These can include characteristics such as demographics, experiences, attitudes, or cognitions of the individual. Contextual variables reflect characteristics of the wider contextual environment in

which the bystander exists, and are encompassed by the ‘microsystem’, ‘exosystem’, and ‘macrosystem’ within the ecological model (Banyard, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; see Chapter 1). The ‘microsystem’ includes variables that are proximal to the individual, such as peer and family groups (e.g., peer norms) and the situation that the bystander may be in (e.g., presence of other bystanders). The ‘exosystem’ includes variables that the bystander is not directly in contact with but which can still influence their behaviour, such as the broader community. Finally, variables within the ‘macrosystem’ include those related to social organisations and belief systems (i.e., broader societal attitudes). Chapters 1, 2, and 4 have highlighted some individual and contextual variables which may be facilitators or barriers of bystander intervention in the context of IBSA, both in regard to theories and empirical evidence, some of which is briefly summarised here.

As outlined above, individual variables can encompass a range of characteristics related to the bystander, including demographics, attitudes, experiences, and cognitions. When looking at demographic characteristics of the bystander, the role of gender has received a lot of attention in the literature. In sexual violence (SV) contexts, there is evidence that female bystanders are more likely to intervene, but this may depend on the type of bystander intervention under investigation, with male bystanders being more likely to intervene by confronting a perpetrator and female bystanders being more likely to support victims (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Comparatively, the role of bystander gender in IBSA contexts has received less attention. One study has shown that females are more likely than males to say that they would intervene when witnessing this behaviour (Henry et al., 2020). Harder (2020) also documented the use of ‘surface acting’ (i.e., positive responses to IBSA) by male bystanders when confronted with the non-consensual sharing of images in comparison to female bystanders who spoke up to defend victims. In a further study which used a correlational design, when bystander gender was included in a regression model with

other individual and contextual variables, this was no longer predictive of bystander intervention in cases of non-consensual image sharing (Banyard, Edwards, et al., 2021). Overall, the evidence suggests that females may be more willing to engage in bystander intervention, but that such effects may depend on the type of bystander behaviour and may not be predictive of this behaviour when considered alongside other variables.

Individual variables related to past experiences and behaviours have also been considered, such as previous victimisation and perpetration experiences. In SV contexts there are inconsistencies in regard to whether previous victimisation impacts bystander intervention, with studies finding null relationships, negative, and positive associations (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). In real-life IBSA contexts, Flynn et al. (2022a) found that when respondents were asked why they had intervened, the least likely reason reported was their own previous victimisation experiences. There is also some evidence that perpetrating SV, or engaging in inappropriate sexual behaviour, is related to a reduced likelihood of bystander intervention (e.g., Banyard, Edwards, et al., 2021; Parrott et al., 2012). Equally, Henry and colleagues (2020) found that only 57% of those who had perpetrated IBSA themselves were willing to intervene, compared to 73% of those who had no victimisation or perpetration experiences. Alongside victimisation and perpetration experiences, one's own consensual engagement in the taking and sharing of images may be relevant for bystander intervention, although this variable has not yet been considered in bystander research. The taking and sharing of images (i.e., sexting) is highly prevalent (e.g., Clancy et al., 2019), and the engagement in these behaviours may promote the normalisation of sharing images without consent. If normalisation occurs, this may reduce perceptions of the behaviour as being problematic, and therefore act as a barrier of intervention. Although this is speculative, research has shown that the normalised nature of sharing images can influence perceptions of IBSA as a criminal offence (Flynn et al., 2022b).

In addition to demographic characteristics and experiences, individual attitudes can act as facilitators and barriers of intervention. First, the endorsement of rape myths (i.e., attitudes of blame and minimisation towards victims of SV) has consistently been shown to inhibit intervention in SV contexts (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). In IBSA contexts, very little consideration has been given to the impact of these attitudes upon bystander intervention. However, there is evidence documenting victim blaming attitudes in IBSA contexts (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022b). Using a scale modelled on rape myth acceptance, Powell and colleagues (2019) found that greater endorsement of IBSA myths, in particular victim blame, resulted in a greater likelihood of IBSA perpetration. Research has also shown a positive correlation between endorsement of IBSA myths and approval of, and proclivity to perpetrate, non-consensual image sharing (Karasavva et al., 2022). Relatedly, empathy may be an important facilitator of intervention. To date, no studies have considered the role of general empathy in bystander intervention in either SV or IBSA contexts. However, one study found that empathetic concern is positively related to confidence to intervene in sexual assault contexts (Kotze & Turner, 2021). In IBSA contexts, Fido and colleagues (2019) found that those with lower empathy gave more lenient judgements of the perpetration of non-consensual image sharing. Overall, although not yet considered in regard to bystander intervention, the aforementioned evidence suggests that general empathy may be a facilitator of, and IBSA myth endorsement an inhibitor of, bystander intervention; with attitudes related to victim blaming particularly inhibitive.

With regard to bystander cognitions, many theories and models of decision-making have identified their role in bystander intervention. For example, both the Bystander Intervention Model (Latané & Darley, 1970) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) include confidence to carry out the behaviour as an important determinant of the likelihood of enacting that behaviour. The Bystander Intervention Model also includes

feelings of responsibility and perceptions of the behaviour as problematic or risky as facilitators of intervention (see Chapter 1). The reviewed literature in Chapter 2 supported these theories in showing that greater feelings of confidence and responsibility are associated with greater willingness to intervene in SV contexts (Mainwaring et al., 2022). In IBSA contexts, Chapter 4 documented how greater feelings of responsibility facilitated intervention in response to hypothetical scenarios. For real-life IBSA bystander experiences, Flynn and colleagues (2022a) found that respondents reported being least likely to intervene when they did not feel that it was their responsibility to do so, and most likely to intervene when they considered the behaviour to be wrong. Altogether, there is evidence to suggest that perceptions of the behaviour as problematic, feelings of responsibility, and confidence to intervene are important facilitators of bystander intervention.

In contrast to individual variables, the role of contextual variables has received comparatively little attention (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Although not as well-researched, the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) includes perceived social norms towards intervention, and one of the most consistently researched contextual variables is social norms, in particular, social norms towards perpetration and intervention. In other words, the perceived acceptance of, or engagement in perpetration or intervention among peer groups. The reviewed literature in Chapter 2 showed that bystanders are more likely to intervene in SV contexts if there are positive social norms towards intervening (Mainwaring et al., 2022). Similarly, in IBSA contexts, Banyard, Edwards, and colleagues (2021) found that positive social norms towards SV prevention was predictive of greater likelihood of intervention for the non-consensual sharing of images. Flynn and colleagues (2022b) reported that participants felt intervention would be difficult in cases of IBSA if they expected negative reactions or social sanctions from the wider social group as a consequence of intervening. In regard to social norms towards perpetration, evidence suggests that peer engagement in SV perpetration or exposure

to norms that support SV perpetration or misogynistic behaviour results in a reduced likelihood of intervention (e.g., Banyard, Edwards, et al., 2021; Boyle, 2017; Leone & Parrott, 2019a). In IBSA contexts, peer support of the perpetrator's behaviour acts as a barrier of intervention (Flynn et al., 2022b), as this likely signals the acceptance of this behaviour among peer groups, and intervention would work against this social consensus, thereby inhibiting this behaviour.

The broader context is also important, for example, the societal context and handling of incidents. Chapter 2 documented the importance of organisational cultures and responses to SV for the likelihood of bystander intervention (Mainwaring et al., 2022). In IBSA contexts, Chapter 4 also highlighted how the engagement in justice-focused intervention was impacted by the perceived justice outcomes, with the likelihood of police engagement being greater when perceiving a greater likelihood of a positive justice outcome. Conversely, some focus group participants were reluctant to engage in this form of intervention due to concerns that the police would not respond quickly enough to the incident or that their involvement may be difficult or unhelpful for the victim. Overall, this suggests that the societal context, particularly in regard to justice and the handling of incidents by the police are important to consider.

Altogether, the research detailed above shows the accumulation of evidence for a range of individual and contextual variables acting as facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention. However, much of the evidence available looking at these variables in IBSA contexts has focused solely on the non-consensual sharing of images, therefore there is a gap in the knowledge base for cases of non-consensual taking or making threats to share images. Equally, there is currently limited understanding of what variables may be the most important, and such questions need to be considered when aiming to guide and inform the development of educational materials for bystander intervention programmes (see Chapter 1

for aims of thesis). Finally, most of the evidence available has used qualitative methods, which are more akin to concerns of social desirability and are limited by the interoceptive capabilities of the participants and generalisability of the findings (see limitations in Chapter 4). These limitations and gaps are addressed in this chapter.

The current chapter presents three surveys to address the following research questions: For the non-consensual taking of images (Survey 1), non-consensual sharing of images (Survey 2), and making threats to share images (Survey 3), what individual and contextual variables are predictive of bystander willingness to intervene, and which of these are the most important? These research questions are addressed through the use of purposeful regression model building. The creation of parsimonious models enables the identification of those variables which have the greatest impact upon bystander intervention behaviour, and for which are most worthy of future investigation and use in guiding the development of bystander intervention programmes.

Method

Participants and Recruitment

Participants were recruited from the general population via Prolific (2022). Consistent with the research in Chapter 5, to be eligible for participation, participants had to be currently residing in the UK and be between the ages of 18 and 39 years. This age range was selected due to the nature of the behaviour being studied and the age demographic for which this is most applicable. Specifically, young adults most frequently engage in the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (e.g., Henry et al., 2017, 2020). Further, this age group is the most vulnerable to both perpetration and victimisation (Henry et al., 2019, 2020), and most likely to report being a bystander of IBSA (A.J. Scott, personal communication, February 8, 2021).

A total of 437 participants clicked on the link to take part. Of these, a total of 418 participants completed the study. Seventeen participants (4.1%) got at least one attention

check question wrong and were excluded from the analysis. As two participants did not identify as male or female, they were also excluded because gender was a binary predictor variable within the analyses. This resulted in a sample of 399 participants for analysis, with 134 participants for Survey 1: Non-consensual taking, 133 for Survey 2: Non-consensual sharing, and 132 for Survey 3: Making threats to share. These sample sizes met the predetermined requirements for suitable power (of .8)¹².

Demographic information for Survey 1, 2, and 3, and overall (i.e., all three surveys combined) can be found in Table 20. Consistent with Chapter 5, demographic composition of the sample concerning gender and ethnicity were roughly representative of the UK population (Office for National Statistics, 2013, 2018), and the proportion of the sample identifying as LGB was higher than the UK average (Office for National Statistics, 2022).

Design

Using a correlational design, participants were asked to consider their general responses and attitudes towards one of the following three IBSA behaviours: someone taking a nude or sexual image of another person without their knowledge and/or permission (Survey 1: Non-consensual taking); someone sharing a nude or sexual image of another person without their permission (Survey 2: Non-consensual sharing); or someone threatening to share a nude or sexual image of another person without their permission (Survey 3: Making threats to share).

¹² 393 participants were required for suitable power. This was determined using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009). Sample size estimations were calculated based on the model having 13 predictors (i.e., all of the possible predictor variables).

Table 20*Demographics for Survey 1, 2, 3, and Overall*

	Survey 1: Non- consensual taking (<i>n</i> = 134)	Survey 2: Non- consensual sharing (<i>n</i> = 133)	Survey 3: Making threats to share (<i>n</i> = 132)	Overall (<i>n</i> = 399)
Gender <i>n</i> (%)				
Female	70 (52.2)	67 (50.4)	69 (52.3)	206 (51.6)
Male	64 (47.8)	66 (49.6)	63 (47.7)	193 (48.4)
Ethnicity <i>n</i> (%)				
White	107 (79.9)	102 (76.7)	106 (80.3)	315 (78.9)
Asian/Asian British	15 (11.2)	14 (10.5)	11 (8.3)	40 (10.0)
Black/African/Caribbean/ Black British	4 (3.0)	10 (7.5)	6 (4.5)	20 (5.0)
Mixed/multiple ethnic groups	5 (3.7)	5 (3.8)	7 (5.3)	17 (4.3)
Other	-	2 (1.5)	-	2 (0.5)
Prefer not to say	3 (2.2)	-	2 (1.5)	5 (1.3)
Sexuality <i>n</i> (%)				
Heterosexual	111 (82.8)	107 (80.5)	105 (79.5)	323 (81.0)
Homosexual	3 (2.2)	5 (3.8)	9 (6.8)	17 (4.3)
Bisexual	17 (12.7)	17 (12.8)	13 (9.8)	47 (11.8)
Self-describe	2 (1.5)	1 (0.8)	3 (2.3)	6 (1.5)
Prefer not to say	1 (0.7)	3 (2.3)	2 (1.5)	6 (1.5)
Occupation <i>n</i> (%)				
Employed full-time	73 (54.5)	73 (54.9)	71 (53.8)	217 (54.4)
Employed part-time	15 (11.2)	18 (13.5)	12 (9.1)	45 (11.3)
Student	23 (17.2)	16 (12.0)	27 (20.5)	66 (16.5)
Seeking opportunities	10 (7.5)	14 (10.5)	11 (8.3)	35 (8.8)
Other	10 (7.5)	8 (6.0)	8 (6.1)	26 (6.5)
Prefer not to say	3 (2.2)	4 (3.0)	3 (2.3)	10 (2.5)
Previous participation in a bystander intervention programme <i>n</i> (%)				
Yes	2 (1.5)	1 (0.8)	2 (1.5)	5 (1.3)
No	126 (94.0)	126 (94.7)	124 (93.9)	376 (94.2)
Unsure	6 (4.5)	6 (4.5)	6 (4.5)	18 (4.5)
Mean age (<i>SD</i>)	29.69 (6.12)	29.70 (5.69)	28.67 (5.82)	29.36 (5.89)

Measures and Materials

Participants were provided with participant and data privacy information, a section to provide informed consent, debrief information (see Appendix O), and a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix H). Participants completed a series of measures concerning their

likelihood of intervention, perception of behaviour as problematic, confidence to intervene, feelings of responsibility, social norms towards intervention, social norms towards perpetration, frequency of IBSA, trust and confidence in the police and criminal justice system (CJS), endorsement of IBSA myths, own image-taking and sharing behaviours, IBSA victimisation, IBSA perpetration, and general empathy. Most measures were developed for this piece of research after consideration of key research in this area, including that of the current thesis. Use of any existing items or measures are outlined below. For each measure, principal components analysis (PCA) and reliability analysis was performed. Further detail of these measures, including the aforementioned analyses, are outlined below. Items for all measures can be found in Appendix P.

Likelihood of Intervention

Participants rated the likelihood that they would intervene in particular ways in response to observing or becoming aware of the IBSA behaviour they were asked to consider (e.g., non-consensual taking of images), using 10 items (see Appendix P for full list of items). These items were developed based on previous research (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022a, 2022b) and findings from Chapter 3, and included items such as ‘Report the behaviour to the police’. Participants rated their likelihood of engaging in these behaviours on a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘extremely unlikely’ to 7 ‘extremely likely’). Participants were also given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take with an open-ended question, ‘Are there any other things you would do in response to observing or becoming aware of the behaviour that were not listed above?’.

PCA with an oblique rotation was carried out on these items to create outcome variables for use within the model building analyses. PCA was used given the focus on data reduction for use in the analyses and oblique rotation was used given the likelihood of correlated dimensions and the goal of obtaining theoretically meaningful factors (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Hair et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

When checking the suitability of the data for PCA, all requirements were met¹³. Table 21 shows the final two-factor structure explaining 57.6% variance. Reliability for factor 1 (8 items) was good overall ($\alpha = .88$) and for all three surveys (Survey 1: $\alpha = .84$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .90$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .84$). Reliability for factor 2 (2 items) was good overall ($r = .14, p = .006$) and for Survey 1 ($r = .18, p = .003$), however there was no evidence of homogeneity for these items for Survey 2 ($r = .05, p = .606$) or 3 ($r = .14, p = .119$). Given that this second factor was composed of only two items, that many of the extreme outliers identified were for the item ‘joke about the behaviour’ which loads on this factor, and given these issues with reliability, only factor 1 was used for the main analyses (i.e., model building) in these studies. An average score for *likelihood of bystander intervention* was created with higher scores representing greater likelihood of intervention.

As detailed above, participants were given the opportunity to report any other actions they would take using an open-ended question. Consistent with Chapter 5, it was not possible to draw upon this qualitative data for the quantitative analyses. Nevertheless, having an understanding of the additional actions that would be taken may be helpful for measure

¹³ Specifically, there were over 100 observations ($N = 399$) and there was a ratio of at least five cases for each of the items, in this case, a ratio of 40 cases for each item (Hair et al., 2018; Pallant, 2016). Further, the correlation matrices showed many correlations of $r = .3$ or greater, Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(45) = 1688.32, p < .001$, and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .87 (should be .5 or above; Hair et al., 2018; Pallant, 2016). Measure of sampling adequacy was also acceptable for each item as all were above .5. For testing linearity, a ‘spot check’ of some combinations of items (as advised in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014) showed no evidence of curvilinearity. In regard to extreme outliers, 12 were identified. PCA was also performed with these extreme outliers removed and the same factor structure was found, therefore the outliers were retained to maintain suitable power for the analyses.

development in future research. The most common additional actions listed were: informing other individuals and/or bystanders of the behaviour or risk; helping the victim to report the behaviour; telling the perpetrator to delete the images; and obtaining knowledge or guidance from other sources (i.e., people or websites) about how to support the victim.

Table 21

PCA Loadings and Reliability for Intervention Items

Items	Factor	
	1	2
Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image	.83	.12
Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)	.79	-.04
Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)	.78	-.15
Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation	.76	-.07
Do nothing	-.75	.10
Report the behaviour to the police	.74	-.10
Provide advice to the person depicted in the image	.71	.29
Confront the person who [took/shared/threatened to share] this image	.51	.09
Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future	.19	.81
Joke about the behaviour	-.38	.62
Factor label	Bystander intervention	Bystander minimisation ^a
Reliability of factor	$\alpha = .88$	$r = .14, p = .006$

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component; Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. ^a Model

building was not carried out with this factor for reasons outlined in the main text.

Perception of Behaviour as Problematic

Participants rated how problematic they considered the behaviour to be using two items, ‘There is nothing wrong with this behaviour’ and ‘This behaviour is problematic’.

Participants rated their agreement with these statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly

disagree' to 7 'strongly agree'). PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with suitable reliability overall ($r = -.43, p < .001$) and in all three surveys (Survey 1: $r = -.53, p < .001$; Survey 2: $r = -.49, p < .001$; Survey 3: $r = -.23, p = .009$). An average score for *perception of behaviour as problematic* was created with higher scores representing greater perception of behaviour being problematic.

Confidence to Intervene

Participants rated how confident they would be in addressing the behaviour using four items, for example, 'I would feel confident speaking up against this behaviour'. See Appendix P for full list of items. Participants rated their agreement with these statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 'strongly disagree' to 7 'strongly agree'). PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with good reliability overall ($\alpha = .84$) and in all three surveys (Survey 1: $\alpha = .82$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .85$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .86$). An average score for *confidence to intervene* was created with higher scores representing greater confidence to intervene.

Feelings of Responsibility

Participants rated how responsible they would feel to address the behaviour using nine items, for example, 'I would feel responsible to help the person depicted in the image'. See Appendix P for full list of items. Participants rated their agreement with these statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 'strongly disagree' to 7 'strongly agree'). PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with good/excellent reliability overall ($\alpha = .89$) and in all three surveys (Survey 1: $\alpha = .86$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .90$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .88$). An average score for *feelings of responsibility* was created with higher scores representing greater feelings of responsibility to intervene.

Social Norms Towards Intervention

Participants rated how supportive they think their friends would be if they responded to the behaviour in the ways outlined previously, for example, 'Confront the person who

threatened to share this image’, on a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘extremely unsupportive’ to 7 ‘extremely supportive’). As with the *likelihood of intervention* measure, there were 10 items (see Appendix P for full list of items). Items used within the analyses reflected those identified through PCA for the outcome variable (i.e., items representing bystander intervention, see Table 21). There was good reliability overall ($\alpha = .89$) and in all three surveys (Survey 1: $\alpha = .86$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .89$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .88$). An average score for *social norms towards intervention* was created for use within the main analyses with higher scores representing greater likelihood of friends support for intervention.

Social Norms Towards Perpetration

Participants rated the likelihood that their friends would engage in similar IBSA behaviours, for example, ‘Take a nude or sexual image of a romantic or sexual partner without that partner’s knowledge and/or permission’, using a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘extremely unlikely’ to 7 ‘extremely likely’). For Survey 1, there were three items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with suitable reliability ($\alpha = .85$). For both Survey 2 and 3, there were six items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with excellent reliability overall ($\alpha = .92$) and for both surveys (Survey 2: $\alpha = .92$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .93$). See Appendix P for full list of items. An average score for *social norms towards perpetration* was created with higher scores representing greater likelihood of friends engagement in IBSA perpetration.

Frequency of IBSA

Participants rated how frequently they believe people engage in similar IBSA behaviours, for example, ‘Someone taking nude or sexual images of a person whom they do not know without that person’s knowledge and/or permission’, using a 5-point Likert scale (1 ‘never’ to 5 ‘a great deal’). For Survey 1, there were three items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with suitable reliability ($\alpha = .90$). For both Survey 2 and 3,

there were six items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with good/excellent reliability overall ($\alpha = .90$) and for both surveys (Survey 2: $\alpha = .92$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .88$). See Appendix P for full list of items. An average score for *frequency of IBSA* was created with higher scores representing greater perceived frequency of IBSA.

Trust and Confidence in the Police and CJS

Participants rated their perceptions of how the police and the UK CJS would respond to similar IBSA behaviours using eight items, for example, ‘I believe that the police would handle any reports of this kind sensitively’. See Appendix P for full list of items. Participants rated their agreement with these statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). PCA identified a single factor structure for these items with good/excellent reliability overall ($\alpha = .90$) and in all three surveys (Survey 1: $\alpha = .92$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .91$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .88$). An average score for *trust and confidence in the police and CJS* was created with higher scores representing greater trust and confidence.

Endorsement of IBSA Myths

Participants rated their endorsement of IBSA myths using 16 items, for example, ‘It is risky to take nude or sexual selfies, even if they never get sent to anyone’. These items were taken from the Sexual Image-Based Abuse Myth Acceptance (SIAMA) scale (Powell et al., 2019) and modified. In modifying this scale, items were revised to be gender-neutral and items were added to reflect a wider range of IBSA behaviours and subtle blaming attitudes akin to those of rape myths (e.g., Payne et al., 1999). See Appendix P for full list of items and further detail regarding these modifications. Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a 7-point Likert scale (1 ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 ‘strongly agree’). PCA identified a three-factor structure for these items which explained 66.1% variance. Factor 1 included five items which reflected *minimisation of IBSA* which had suitable reliability overall ($\alpha = .81$) and for each study (Survey 1: $\alpha = .88$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .68$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .84$).

Factor 2 included four items which reflected *victim blame* with acceptable reliability overall ($\alpha = .78$) and for each study (Survey 1: $\alpha = .81$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .79$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .74$). Factor 3 included two items which reflected *attitudes towards IBSA as a form of SV* with suitable reliability overall ($r = .77, p < .001$) and for each study (Survey 1: $r = .88, p < .001$; Survey 2: $r = .83, p < .001$; Survey 3: $r = .63, p < .001$). Average scores for *IBSA myths (minimisation)*¹⁴, *IBSA myths (victim blame)*, and *IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)* were created with higher scores representing greater minimisation of IBSA, greater victim blaming attitudes, and greater beliefs that IBSA is not a form of SV.

Own Image-Taking and Sharing Behaviours

Participants rated the frequency with which they engaged in the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images using four items, for example, ‘Sent someone a nude or sexual image of yourself’, using a 5-point Likert scale (1 ‘never’ to 5 ‘a great deal’). These items were adapted from those within the sexual self-image behaviours measure in Powell et al. (2019). See Appendix P for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items. An average score measuring *own image-taking and sharing behaviours* was created with higher scores representing greater frequency of image-taking and sharing behaviours.

IBSA Victimization

Participants rated the frequency of their own experiences of IBSA victimisation using three items, for example, ‘Had someone threaten to post online or send/show others a nude or sexual image of you’, using a 5-point Likert scale (1 ‘never’ to 5 ‘a great deal’). These items were adapted from those within the IBSA victimisation measure in Powell et al. (2019). See Appendix P for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items. An

¹⁴ One participant had missing data for a single item on this subscale. A mean value was computed as a substitute in this case from the other items in the subscale.

average score measuring *IBSA victimisation* was created with higher scores representing greater IBSA victimisation.

IBSA Perpetration

Participants rated the frequency of their own engagement in IBSA perpetration using three items, for example, ‘Taken or tried to take a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission’, using a 5-point Likert scale (1 ‘never’ to 5 ‘a great deal’). These items were adapted from those within the IBSA perpetration measure in Powell et al. (2019). See Appendix P for full list of items. PCA identified a single factor structure for these items. An average score measuring *IBSA perpetration* was created with higher scores representing greater IBSA perpetration.

General Empathy

Participants rated their general feelings of empathy towards others using 14 items from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980). Both the *perspective-taking* and *empathetic concern* subscales were used. The *perspective-taking* subscale comprised seven items, for example, ‘I try to look at everybody’s side of a disagreement before I make a decision’. The *empathetic concern* subscale also comprised seven items, for example, ‘I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person’. See Appendix P for full list of items. Participants rated how much each statement described themselves using a 5-point Likert scale (1 ‘does not describe me’ to 5 ‘describes me very well’). Reliability for the *perspective-taking* subscale was acceptable overall ($\alpha = .75$) and for each study (Survey 1: $\alpha = .77$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .75$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .74$). Reliability for the *empathetic concern* subscale was acceptable overall ($\alpha = .80$) and for each study (Survey 1: $\alpha = .82$; Survey 2: $\alpha = .81$; Survey 3: $\alpha = .75$). Average scores measuring *perspective-taking* and *empathetic concern* were created with higher scores representing greater perspective-taking and empathetic concern.

Demographic Characteristics

Participants were asked for their age (years), country of residence, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, professional/employment status, highest level of qualification achieved, and whether they had ever participated in a bystander intervention training programme before.

See Appendix H.

Pilot Studies

These surveys were piloted twice. In the first pilot, 15 participants completed the study and feedback was collected on the following areas: ease of working through the study, engagement, clarity of instructions and items, and time taken to complete the study. The pilot data was checked to ensure that randomisation was working correctly (i.e., that participants were randomly assigned to one of the three surveys), that the data retrieved was comprehensible, any reverse scored items were not causing problems, and that no ceiling or floor effects were evident.

The second pilot was conducted with 42 participants. As stated in Chapter 5, initially, the experiments (Chapter 5) and surveys (Chapter 6) were combined, with the intention of having the same sample complete both. However, concerns regarding a sense of repetition and participant fatigue due to the length of the study when these elements were combined, resulted in the experiments and surveys using different samples. Feedback from the pilots and details of the changes can be found in Appendix K.

Procedure

Participants completed the research online via Qualtrics XM (2022). First, participants were provided with participant and data privacy information and provided informed consent. They were then asked to provide demographic information which also included screener validation to ensure that the participants were between the ages of 18 and 39 and that they resided in the UK. Participants were then randomly allocated one of the three

surveys. Those allocated to Survey 1: Non-consensual taking were asked about their general responses and attitudes towards someone taking a nude or sexual image of another person without their knowledge and/or permission. Participants allocated to Survey 2: Non-consensual sharing were asked about their general responses and attitudes towards someone sharing a nude or sexual image of another person without their permission. Finally, participants allocated to Survey 3: Making threats to share were asked about their general responses and attitudes towards someone making threats to share a nude or sexual image of another person without their permission.

Participants then completed measures of *likelihood of intervention*, followed by measures for the individual and contextual variables of interest (as outlined above). There were two attention check questions included within the survey, one towards the beginning of the survey and another towards the end, for example, “It is important that you pay attention to this study. Please tick ‘does not describe me’”. The presentation of the items for each measure throughout the survey was randomised and the ‘request response’ tool within Qualtrics was used to inform the participant if they had missed a question. After they had completed all main parts of the survey, participants were asked if they had ever completed a bystander intervention training programme before being provided with debrief information and thanked for their participation.

This research received ethical approval from Goldsmiths University’s Research Ethics Committee and were preregistered on AsPredicted (Wharton Credibility Lab, 2015; see Appendix Q for preregistration).

Analysis

To create a parsimonious regression model to predict the likelihood of bystander intervention, a purposeful selection model building process was used. Specifically, the steps outlined in Hosmer et al. (2013) with appropriate adaptations made for use with linear

regression were followed. As outlined in the previous subsection, a total of 16 predictor variables were considered for the model building process including: *gender*, *perception of the behaviour as problematic*, *confidence to intervene*, *feelings of responsibility*, *social norms towards intervention*, *social norms towards perpetration*, *frequency of IBSA*, *confidence in the police and CJS*, *IBSA myths (minimisation)*, *IBSA myths (blame)*, *IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)*, *own image-taking and sharing behaviours*, *IBSA victimisation*, *IBSA perpetration*, *general empathy (perspective-taking)*, and *general empathy (empathetic concern)*.

In building the regression models, the following steps were followed: 1) univariate non-parametric correlations were performed to determine which predictors were significantly related to the outcome variables. A significance threshold of $p < .25$ was used as the convention of $p < .05$ can lead to the exclusion of potentially important variables (Hosmer et al., 2013); 2) all predictors identified in Step 1 were included in an initial regression model and any variables that did not significantly contribute (at $p < .05$) were removed one by one, starting with the variable which had the highest p value. When variables were removed, the smaller model was compared to the larger model to ensure there was no detrimental impact of the removal of this variable upon the model; 3) coefficients of smaller models were compared to those of the larger model to ensure no problematic changes in magnitude ($> 20\%$) as a result of the removal of a variable; 4) predictor variables originally excluded at Step 1 were added one by one to see if they significantly contributed to the model when considered alongside other variables, to create a *main effects model*; and 5) interactions among variables in the main effects model were considered through the use of PROCESS in SPSS (Hayes, 2017), both in terms of statistical and practical benefits, to create the *preliminary final model*. In this case, only interactions between gender and any other significant predictor variables were considered. This is due to the gendered nature of the literature (see Chapter 1), as well

as the potential practical benefits should these identify differences between males and females. Finally, 6) the models adequacy and fit was assessed¹⁵ (Hosmer et al., 2013).

Results

Assumption Testing

In all three surveys, assumptions of multicollinearity, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. Independence of residuals were met for Surveys 1 and 3. For Survey 2, the Durbin-Watson test showed that this assumption was violated. However, the value (1.43) was only just outside the acceptable range (1.44-2.03), and therefore was not of great concern. Across all three surveys, there was evidence of some multivariate and extreme univariate outliers for some of the predictor variables. However, there were no extreme outliers for the outcome variable. Data screening showed outliers were not the result of missing or data input errors. Given the number of outliers and the need to maintain suitable power, removal was not considered necessary. To protect against the influence of outliers, non-parametric univariate analyses were carried out when determining which predictor variables to enter into the initial model as outlined within Step 1 of the model building process. As an additional check, the final model was tested with the extreme outliers removed and the following were met in all instances: 1) the final model was significant, 2) all variables significantly contributed to the model, and 3) the sign of the coefficients were the same.

Survey 1: Non-Consensual Taking

Univariate Analyses

Univariate non-parametric correlations identified 12 of a possible 16 predictor variables which correlated with bystander intervention using the .25 threshold: *gender*, *perception of behaviour as problematic*, *confidence to intervene*, *feelings of responsibility*,

¹⁵ Step 5 as described in Hosmer et al. (2013) was omitted as it is not applicable in the case of linear regression.

social norms towards intervention, social norms towards perpetration, frequency of IBSA, IBSA myths (minimisation), IBSA myths (IBSA as SV), IBSA victimisation, general empathy (perspective-taking), and general empathy (empathetic concern). The remaining four variables were above the required .25 significance level and were excluded from the initial model. See Table 22 for univariate correlations.

Table 22

Univariate Non-Parametric Correlations Between Likelihood of Bystander Intervention and Predictor Variables for Survey 1

Predictor variables	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	.43	< .001
Perception of behaviour as problematic	.35	< .001
Confidence to intervene	.53	< .001
Feelings of responsibility	.63	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.61	< .001
Social norms towards perpetration	-.24	.006
Frequency of IBSA	.18	.035
IBSA myths (minimisation)	-.37	< .001
IBSA myths (victim blame)	-.03	.696
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.44	< .001
Own image-taking and sharing behaviours	.03	.695
IBSA victimisation	.14	.099
IBSA perpetration	-.09	.320
Confidence in police and CJS	.01	.938
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.45	< .001
General empathy (perspective-taking)	.30	< .001

Linear Regression

Twelve predictors were inserted into an initial linear regression model which was statistically significant, $F(12, 121) = 15.37, p < .001$. This initial model explained 60.4% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = 56.4\%$) in the likelihood of bystander intervention. After cycling through Steps 2 and 3, five predictors remained in the model¹⁶. Therefore, the final model

¹⁶ An interaction between *gender* and *confidence to intervene* was found, whereby there was a stronger and more significant positive correlation between confidence to intervene and likelihood of intervention for males,

had five predictors and was statistically significant, $F(5, 128) = 36.73, p < .001$. This model explained 58.9% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = 57.3\%$) in the likelihood of engaging in bystander intervention. Summaries of the initial and final model can be found in Table 23.

Table 23

Initial and Final Linear Regression Models for Survey 1

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Initial model					
Gender	.35	.14	.17	2.53	.013
Behaviour as problematic	-.04	.12	-.03	-0.32	.753
Confidence to intervene	.21	.06	.24	3.30	< .001
Feelings of responsibility	.25	.09	.24	2.75	.007
Social norms towards intervention	.37	.10	.31	3.92	< .001
Social norms towards perpetration	.02	.07	.02	0.29	.773
Frequency of IBSA	.05	.07	.05	0.72	.474
IBSA myths (minimisation)	.17	.12	.12	1.39	.168
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.07	.06	-.08	-1.17	.245
IBSA victimisation	.00	.14	.00	0.01	.996
General empathy (perspective-taking)	.02	.11	.01	0.15	.881
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.24	.11	.17	2.15	.034
Final model					
Gender	.40	.12	.20	3.29	.001
Confidence to intervene	.24	.06	.27	3.82	< .001
Feelings of responsibility	.23	.09	.22	2.74	.007
Social norms towards intervention	.32	.08	.26	3.86	< .001
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.23	.09	.16	2.49	.014

In the final model, five predictor variables make a unique contribution: *gender*, *confidence to intervene*, *feelings of responsibility*, *social norms towards intervention*, and *general empathy (empathetic concern)*. When looking at the beta values one can see that

however there was still a significant, albeit smaller, positive correlation for females. Despite this significant interaction, it was omitted from the final model for the following reasons: 1) there was only a small increase in R^2 (1.4%) when it was added to the model which did not justify creating a less parsimonious model; and 2) the addition of this interaction had very few, if any, practical implications.

confidence to intervene makes the biggest contribution to the model, followed by *social norms towards intervention*, *feelings of responsibility*, and *gender*, with *empathetic concern* making the smallest contribution. Specifically, for a one unit increase in supportive social norms towards intervention, there is an increase of .32 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in confidence to intervene, there is an increase of .24 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in feelings of responsibility, there is an increase of .23 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For females there is an increase of .40 in the likelihood of bystander intervention compared to males. Finally, for a one unit increase in general empathy (empathetic concern), there is an increase of .23 in the likelihood of bystander intervention.

Survey 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

Univariate Analyses

Univariate non-parametric correlations identified 14 of a possible 16 predictor variables which correlated with bystander intervention at $p < .25$: *gender*, *perception of behaviour as problematic*, *confidence to intervene*, *feelings of responsibility*, *social norms towards intervention*, *social norms towards perpetration*, *frequency of IBSA*, *confidence in police and CJS*, *IBSA myths (minimisation)*, *IBSA myths (blame)*, *IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)*, *IBSA perpetration*, *general empathy (perspective-taking)*, and *general empathy (empathetic concern)*. The remaining two variables were above the .25 significance level and were excluded from the initial model. See Table 24 for univariate correlations.

Table 24

Univariate Non-Parametric Correlations Between Likelihood of Bystander Intervention and Predictor Variables for Survey 2

Predictor variables	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	.15	.091
Perception of behaviour as problematic	.41	< .001
Confidence to intervene	.53	< .001
Feelings of responsibility	.78	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.61	< .001
Social norms towards perpetration	-.32	< .001
Frequency of IBSA	.15	.083
IBSA myths (minimisation)	-.22	.010
IBSA myths (victim blame)	-.11	.191
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.30	< .001
Own image-taking and sharing behaviours	-.07	.433
IBSA victimisation	-.08	.342
IBSA perpetration	-.12	.180
Confidence in police and CJS	.17	.048
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.45	< .001
General empathy (perspective-taking)	.20	.024

Linear Regression

Fourteen predictors were inserted into an initial linear regression model which was statistically significant, $F(14, 118) = 17.64, p < .001$. This initial model explained 67.7% (adjusted $R^2 = 63.8\%$) of the variance in the likelihood of bystander intervention. After cycling through Steps 2 and 3, two predictors remained in the model. When added to the model during Step 4, *IBSA victimisation* became a significant predictor¹⁷. The final model with three predictors was statistically significant, $F(3, 129) = 84.88, p < .001$. This model explained 66.4% (adjusted $R^2 = 65.6\%$) of the variance in the likelihood of engaging in bystander intervention. Summaries of the initial and final model can be found in Table 25.

¹⁷ As gender was not in the main effects model, no interactions were considered.

Table 25*Initial and Final Linear Regression Models for Survey 2*

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Initial model					
Gender	-.04	.17	-.01	-0.23	.821
Behaviour as problematic	-.07	.12	-.04	-0.59	.556
Confidence to intervene	.10	.07	.10	1.51	.133
Feelings of responsibility	.70	.09	.59	7.84	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.36	.09	.27	3.98	< .001
Social norms towards perpetration	-.14	.08	-.11	-1.74	.085
Frequency of IBSA	-.05	.09	-.03	-0.53	.598
Confidence in police and CJS	.03	.06	.03	0.44	.661
IBSA myths (minimisation)	.07	.14	.03	0.47	.643
IBSA myths (blame)	.05	.06	.05	0.86	.392
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.04	.06	-.04	-0.66	.514
IBSA perpetration	.41	.32	.08	1.31	.192
General empathy (perspective-taking)	-.12	.14	-.05	-0.81	.421
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.13	.13	.07	1.00	.319
Final model					
Feelings of responsibility	.77	.07	.65	11.38	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.34	.08	.25	4.40	< .001
IBSA victimisation	-.42	.17	-.13	-2.48	.014

Three predictor variables make a unique contribution in the final model: *feelings of responsibility*, *social norms towards intervention*, and *IBSA victimisation*. When looking at the beta values one can see that *feelings of responsibility* makes the biggest contribution to the model, followed by *social norms towards intervention* and *IBSA victimisation*. For a one unit increase in feelings of responsibility, there is an increase of .77 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in supportive social norms towards intervention, there is an increase of .34 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. Finally, for a one unit increase in IBSA victimisation, there is a decrease of .42 in the likelihood of bystander intervention.

Survey 3: Making Threats to Share

Univariate Analyses

Univariate non-parametric correlations identified 12 of a possible 16 predictor variables which correlated with bystander intervention at $p < .25$: *gender*, *perception of*

behaviour as problematic, confidence to intervene, feelings of responsibility, social norms towards intervention, frequency of IBSA, confidence in police and CJS, IBSA myths (blame), IBSA myths (IBSA as SV), own image-taking and sharing, general empathy (perspective-taking), and general empathy (empathetic concern). The remaining four variables were above the .25 significance level and were excluded from the initial model. See Table 26 for univariate correlations.

Table 26

Univariate Non-Parametric Correlations Between Likelihood of Bystander Intervention and Predictor Variables for Survey 3

Predictor variables	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	.25	.004
Perception of behaviour as problematic	.30	.001
Confidence to intervene	.54	< .001
Feelings of responsibility	.61	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.61	< .001
Social norms towards perpetration	-.08	.373
Frequency of IBSA	.18	.038
IBSA myths (minimisation)	-.05	.571
IBSA myths (victim blame)	-.23	.009
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.27	.001
Own image-taking and sharing behaviours	-.12	.163
IBSA victimisation	-.03	.705
IBSA perpetration	-.06	.524
Confidence in police and CJS	.15	.085
General empathy (empathetic concern)	.22	.010
General empathy (perspective-taking)	.21	.016

Linear Regression

Twelve predictors were inserted into an initial linear regression model which was statistically significant, $F(12, 119) = 15.79, p < .001$. This initial model explained 61.4% (adjusted $R^2 = 57.5\%$) of the variance in the likelihood of engaging in bystander intervention.

After cycling through Steps 2 and 3, three predictors remained in the model¹⁸. The final model with three predictors was statistically significant, $F(3, 128) = 60.76, p < .001$. This model explained 58.7% (adjusted $R^2 = 57.8\%$) of the variance in the likelihood of engaging in bystander intervention. Summaries of the initial and final model can be found in Table 27.

Table 27

Initial and Final Linear Regression Models for Survey 3

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Initial model					
Gender	.18	.13	.09	1.35	.179
Behaviour as problematic	.17	.13	.09	1.35	.181
Confidence to intervene	.17	.06	.20	2.86	.005
Feelings of responsibility	.52	.09	.51	5.56	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.19	.09	.17	2.19	.031
Frequency of IBSA	-.07	.08	-.05	-0.80	.427
Confidence in police and CJS	.00	.05	.00	0.05	.963
IBSA myths (blame)	-.00	.06	-.01	-0.07	.941
IBSA myths (IBSA as SV)	-.05	.05	-.07	-1.03	.305
Own image-taking and sharing behaviours	-.11	.08	-.08	-1.28	.204
General empathy (perspective-taking)	.04	.10	.02	0.35	.726
General empathy (empathetic concern)	-.17	.12	-.11	-1.40	.163
Final model					
Confidence to intervene	.15	.05	.18	2.72	.007
Feelings of responsibility	.53	.07	.53	7.30	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.24	.08	.21	2.86	.005

Three predictor variables make a unique contribution to the final model: *confidence to intervene*, *feelings of responsibility*, and *social norms towards intervention*. The beta values show that *feelings of responsibility* contributed the most to the model, followed by *social norms towards intervention*, with *confidence to intervene* contributing the least. For a one unit increase in feelings of responsibility, there is an increase of .53 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in supportive social norms towards

¹⁸ A fourth predictor was significant when added to the model during Step 4, however this was not included in the final model for reasons outlined in Appendix R. As gender was not in the main effects model, no interactions were considered.

intervention, there is an increase of .24 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. Finally, for a one unit increase in confidence to intervene, there is an increase of .15 in the likelihood of intervention.

Discussion

This chapter explored what individual and contextual variables are predictive of bystander willingness to intervene in three different IBSA contexts, and which of these variables are the most important. In this section, the findings are summarised and considered in the context of previous research and theory, as well as highlighting some limitations of these studies. The wider implications of these findings with respect to theory, practice, and future research are discussed in Chapter 7: General Discussion.

Surveys 1, 2, and 3: Non-Consensual Taking, Non-Consensual Sharing and Making Threats to Share

The current studies have demonstrated the importance of a range of individual and contextual variables in predicting bystander intervention in IBSA contexts, with all three final models explaining over 50% of the variance. For the non-consensual taking of images, being female, having greater feelings of responsibility, greater confidence to intervene, more positive social norms towards intervention, and greater empathetic concern predicted a greater likelihood of intervention. For the non-consensual sharing of images, greater feelings of responsibility, more positive social norms towards intervention, and less experience of IBSA victimisation predicted a greater likelihood of bystander intervention. Finally, for making threats to share images, greater feelings of responsibility, greater confidence to intervene, and more positive social norms predicted a greater likelihood of bystander intervention. Altogether, these findings provide evidence of the facilitative and inhibitive nature of these individual and contextual variables for bystander intervention.

Across all three studies, one can see the importance of feelings of responsibility, confidence to intervene, and social norms towards intervention for bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. In Chapter 2, feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene were identified as individual variables that facilitate bystander intervention in SV contexts, as well as positive social norms towards intervention (Mainwaring et al., 2022). In IBSA contexts, Chapter 4 and the work by Flynn and colleagues (2022a, 2022b) also identified that feelings of responsibility facilitated intended and actual bystander intervention behaviour. Furthermore, past research has shown that group dynamics, particularly in regard to concerns about social sanctions, can inhibit bystander intervention (Flynn et al., 2022b; Harder, 2020). The current study not only adds further support to these findings, but also extends our understanding by showing the importance of these variables in predicting intervention behaviour over and above other variables found to be related to bystander intervention in previous research. Equally, the findings highlight the importance of a bystander's confidence to intervene, which has not been previously investigated or reported upon within an IBSA context.

In addition to the similarities across the three studies, for the non-consensual taking of images, gender and empathetic concern were significant predictors of bystander intervention within the final model. Specifically, being female and having greater feelings of general empathetic concern predicted a greater likelihood of intervention. Some evidence in the SV literature has shown that female bystanders are more likely to intervene than males, but this often depends on the type of intervention behaviour being considered (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). Although the outcome variable in the current study combined different types of intervention behaviour, gender was still found to predict intervention in this IBSA context. There is also some evidence in the IBSA literature of females being more likely to say that they would intervene when witnessing this behaviour (Harder, 2020; Henry et al.,

2020). In regard to general empathy, the current findings align with past research which found this individual variable to be related to confidence to intervene in SV contexts and stricter judgements of the perpetration of non-consensual sharing of images (Fido et al., 2019; Kotze & Turner, 2021). However, the current study extends our understanding of the facilitative nature of general empathy as it is the first to identify the importance of this individual characteristic for bystander intervention.

For the non-consensual sharing of images, alongside the role of feelings of responsibility and social norms towards intervention, previous IBSA victimisation was predictive of bystander intervention. In particular, greater victimisation experiences were predictive of a reduced willingness to intervene. In SV contexts, evidence to date has been mixed in regard to whether this variable facilitates or inhibits bystander intervention (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). In IBSA contexts, the impact of previous victimisation upon bystander intervention has not been directly investigated, but inferences made from existing evidence suggest that it is either unrelated or acts as a barrier of bystander intervention (Flynn et al., 2022a; Henry et al., 2020). It is possible that the inhibitive nature of previous victimisation is due to the particular experiences they had as victims themselves, or that their own victimisation experiences have created a sense of normalisation of the behaviour, and therefore they no longer consider the behaviour to be serious enough to warrant intervention. It would be important for future research to investigate why such experiences can inhibit bystander intervention in IBSA contexts.

Limitations

Consistent with Chapter 5, a large majority of the sample, both overall and for each survey, was heterosexual and of white ethnicity, thereby potentially limiting the generalisability to minority groups. Some research in SV contexts has found that there are differences in willingness to intervene across different ethnic and racial groups (e.g., Brown

et al., 2014; Kania & Cale, 2021), as well as experiences of IBSA victimisation (e.g., Branch et al., 2017; Henry et al., 2017). Although the composition of the sample in regard to ethnicity are reflective of the UK population (Office for National Statistics, 2013), future research would benefit from determining whether the current findings apply to minority ethnic groups. This logic could also apply to those identifying as LGB, given the differences in willingness to intervene compared to heterosexual individuals (Flynn et al., 2022b) and greater likelihood of victimisation and perpetration experiences for LGB individuals (e.g., Lenhart et al., 2016). Conversely, although there may be issues in generalisabilities to ethnic and sexual minority groups, one of the strengths of this sample is that they were obtained from the general population rather than the student population, in comparison to much of the available bystander intervention literature (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2).

Limitations unique to the current studies concern the inability to infer causation due to the design of the studies, use of a single outcome variable, and limited detail provided to the participants regarding the IBSA behaviours for which they were asked about. First, given the design of these studies (i.e., use of surveys), the causal relationships between the variables of interest (i.e., individual and contextual variables) and bystander intervention intent cannot be certain. However, in many cases, causal relationships can be inferred by the nature of these relationships and existing empirical evidence. For example, greater feelings of responsibility to intervene is likely to lead to an increase in bystander intervention intent, rather than greater bystander intervention intent leading to an increase in feelings of responsibility. Irrespective, future research should give due consideration to the use of experimental designs to confirm the causal nature between these variables and bystander intervention intent.

Second, as raised as a limitation of the bystander intervention literature in SV contexts in Chapter 2, much of this literature has failed to consider the diversity and nuances of bystander intervention behaviours (Mainwaring et al., 2022). Here, the items for the

outcome variable were developed based on the literature and the findings reported in Chapter 3. However, when conducting PCA on these items, although two factors were identified, the second factor was unreliable and therefore was omitted from the analyses, which resulted in a single outcome variable encompassing a range of different IBSA behaviours. Although PCA supported their grouping as a single factor, this may have limited the relevance of these findings to more specific or nuanced bystander behaviours. This is particularly important given the distinctions made between different types of intervention behaviour identified within Chapters 3 and 5. In the current studies, the presence of a single factor may be due to the smaller number of items within the original measure (10 items). In future, the development of measures for bystander intervention may need to encompass more items for greater nuances between the behaviours to be realised. The additional actions reported by participants within the open-ended bystander responses question may help in this endeavour. For example, informing other bystanders about the incident or telling the perpetrator to delete the images (see relevant Method subsection above).

Finally, regarding the lack of detail provided concerning the IBSA behaviours, the qualitative data in the current study showed that some participants felt that their responses or the actions that they would take would depend on the situation, e.g., “This really depends on if I know the person or not”. Given the clear impact of situational characteristics upon bystander intervention as identified in Chapter 5, it is not surprising that participants felt this way. However, having broad descriptions of these IBSA behaviours prevented the findings from being limited to specific IBSA scenarios with particular situational characteristics. Irrespective, future research should consider presenting scenarios with greater detail to confirm the findings of the current research.

Conclusion

This chapter explored the role of individual and contextual variables in facilitating or inhibiting bystander intervention in the context of three IBSA contexts. In the final regression models, all models explained over half of the variance in likelihood of bystander intervention. For the non-consensual taking of images, being female, having greater feelings of responsibility, greater confidence to intervene, more positive social norms towards intervention, and greater empathetic concern were all facilitators of intervention. For the non-consensual sharing of images, having greater feelings of responsibility, more positive social norms towards intervention, and less IBSA victimisation experiences were all facilitators of intervention. Finally, for making threats to share images, having greater feelings of responsibility, greater confidence to intervene, and more positive social norms towards intervention were all facilitators of intervention. Altogether, it is clear that greater feelings of responsibility, confidence to intervene, and more positive social norms towards intervention are important facilitators of bystander intervention, irrespective of the type of IBSA behaviour considered.

The current studies have expanded on existing findings in terms of examining variables which have not yet been considered in the literature, as well as uncovering those individual and contextual variables which may be of biggest importance in facilitating and inhibiting bystander intervention. Overall, Chapters 4, 5, and 6 of this thesis have identified a series of individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. The next and final chapter within this thesis summarises these findings and considers the implications for theory, practice, and future research.

Chapter 7: General Discussion

Within the current chapter, the findings of this thesis are summarised in relation to the originally specified aims and research questions, followed by a discussion of the implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research. First, the findings across the empirical studies are synthesised. Second, the theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed, particularly in regard to the development of bystander intervention programmes. Finally, limitations of the thesis, and recommendations for future research to address these limitations and consider new avenues of investigation, are presented.

Summary of Thesis

The perpetration and victimisation of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) is highly prevalent and has grown in recent years due to the developments in technological capabilities for taking and sharing images (e.g., Henry et al., 2020; Maddocks, 2018). Further, the impacts upon victims of IBSA encompass harms to both physical and mental wellbeing, and can also include secondary victimisation in the form of victim blaming (e.g., Gassó et al., 2021; McGlynn et al., 2019; Powell et al., 2018).

Given high prevalence rates and associated negative impacts upon victims, the prevention and minimisation of harm of IBSA are important endeavours. Current avenues for prevention of IBSA focus upon the law and education, however, both of these have limitations (e.g., Henry & Powell, 2015a; McGlynn et al., 2017). A third avenue for prevention which was the focus of the current thesis is bystander intervention.

There is great potential for bystander intervention to help prevent and minimise the harm of IBSA. Evidence has demonstrated the importance of appropriate social support

(Bates, 2017; Office of eSafety Commissioner, 2017c), as well as the perceived helpfulness of bystander action in cases of IBSA (Flynn et al., 2022b). Further, bystanders are a viable option for prevention given the high number of individuals who are likely to become a bystander to IBSA at some point in their lives (Flynn et al., 2022a). However, given that recent data has shown that the majority of bystanders to IBSA do not intervene (Flynn et al., 2022a), empirical investigations into what facilitates and inhibits intervention is vital, particularly for the development of educational materials aimed at encouraging intervention. Despite the wealth of evidence in regard to bystander intervention and facilitators and barriers in sexual violence (SV) contexts, very little research has looked at this in IBSA contexts. Therefore, gaps in our understanding remain in regard to the consideration of all forms of IBSA and scope of facilitators and barriers. Overall, the aim of this thesis was to gain an understanding of variables which facilitate and inhibit willingness to intervene in IBSA contexts, guided by an ecological framework.

As previously stated, there is a wealth of evidence regarding facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in SV contexts. Alongside current theoretical models of bystander intervention (see Chapter 1), gaining a thorough understanding of the facilitators and barriers in SV contexts was important for guiding the empirical work of this thesis. However, current systematic reviews were limited by their focus upon university samples and specific applications to SV contexts. Therefore, a systematic review of the literature looking at facilitators and barriers in SV contexts, using an ecological framework, was conducted (Mainwaring et al., 2022; see Chapter 2). This systematic review collated findings from 85 studies, with individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers which had been most consistently studied being reported within the chapter. The findings from this systematic review then guided the development of research agendas and materials for the empirical chapters which followed. Specifically, the facilitators and barriers identified within this

review helped guide the research questions, and the variables of interest considered in the context of IBSA. Further, the methodological issues identified within the review provided avenues for improvement that the empirical work within this thesis drew upon.

One of the limitations of past research, in both SV and IBSA contexts, was the lack of consideration or acknowledgement of different types of intervention behaviour (e.g., confronting the perpetrator versus supporting the victim). In other words, bystander intervention measures were not always empirically informed and often used a single measure of bystander behaviour, despite some evidence showing clear differences in the likelihood of engaging in different forms of intervention. Therefore, before starting to consider facilitators and barriers in IBSA contexts, the first question to address was how bystanders would respond to IBSA.

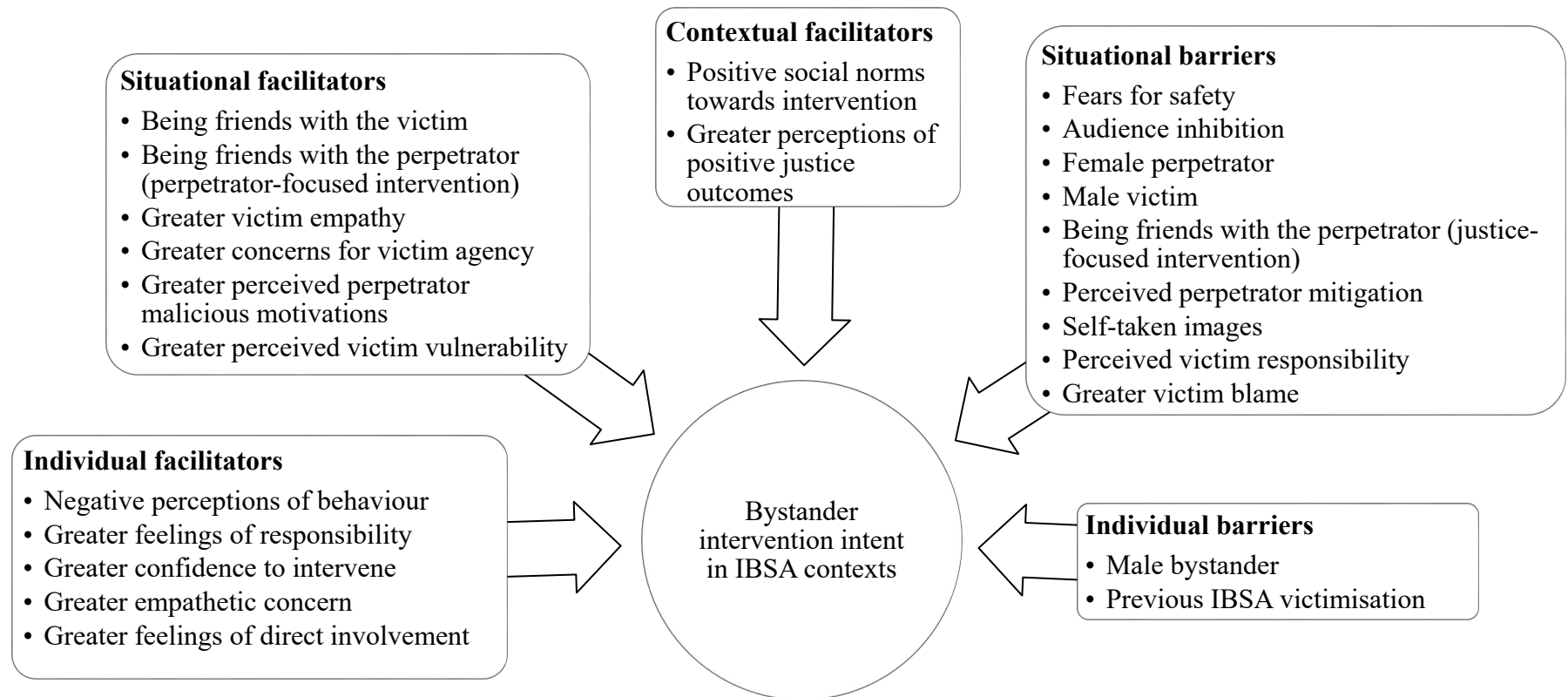
To investigate how bystanders would respond to IBSA, a focus group study was conducted, whereby participants were presented with three hypothetical IBSA scenarios, each representing a different form of IBSA (i.e., non-consensual taking of images, non-consensual sharing of images, and making threats to share). Using thematic analysis, the data showed three main ways in which bystanders would respond to IBSA: 1) by focusing on the perpetrator; 2) by focusing on the victim; and 3) by involving the criminal justice system (CJS). A fourth theme was also identified whereby bystanders wanted their responses to be well-informed and controlled (see Chapter 3).

With the use of the systematic review and initial focus group study, this thesis went on to identify a range of facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. Chapter 4 presented additional findings from the focus group study reported in Chapter 3 to identify facilitators and barriers of intervention. Chapters 5 and 6 then built upon these findings using quantitative methods. Chapter 5 presented three experiments (one for each form of IBSA) which looked at the impacts of a range of situational variables upon

willingness to intervene. The three surveys (one for each form of IBSA) in Chapter 6 then provided insight into facilitators and barriers regarding the individual bystander (i.e., individual variables) and the wider context (i.e., contextual variables). Across all the empirical work within this thesis, it is clear that there are individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in IBSA contexts (see Figure 7 for summary).

Figure 7

Individual, Situational, and Contextual Facilitators and Barriers of Bystander Intervention Intent in IBSA Contexts



Note. Not all facilitators and barriers listed here were identified for each form of IBSA or type of bystander intervention behaviour. See main text below for a discussion of the nuances.

Individual Facilitators and Barriers

In terms of individual facilitators, the following were identified for all forms of IBSA: negative perceptions of the behaviour, feelings of responsibility, confidence to intervene, empathetic concern, and feeling directly involved in the incident. However, there were also important nuances regarding some of these individual facilitators.

First, empathetic concern was positively associated with intent to intervene for all three forms of IBSA. However, it was only in cases of non-consensual taking that this remained a significant predictor within the final regression model. This suggests that although empathetic concern can facilitate intervention for non-consensual sharing and making threats to share, when considered alongside other variables, more influential facilitators and barriers emerge. Similarly, confidence to intervene was positively associated with intent to intervene for all three forms of IBSA. However, this was not a significant predictor within the final regression model for non-consensual sharing of images (see Chapter 6).

Further, findings from the focus group demonstrated the facilitative role of negative feelings towards IBSA (see Chapter 4). There were also significant positive relationships between perceptions of the behaviour as problematic and intent to intervene for all three forms of IBSA. However, this was not a significant predictor within any of the final regression models (see Chapter 6). Again, this suggests that although perceptions of the behaviour as problematic can facilitate intervention, when considered alongside other individual and contextual variables, other more influential facilitators and barriers emerge.

Finally, in terms of individual barriers, there is evidence that being male acts as a barrier of intervention in cases of non-consensual taking. Previous IBSA victimisation experiences was identified as a barrier of intervention for non-consensual sharing (see Chapter 6).

Situational Facilitators and Barriers

In terms of situational facilitators, the following were identified for bystander intervention for all forms of IBSA: empathy for the victim, concerns for victim agency, perceptions of malicious motivations, and perceptions of victim vulnerability. There were also facilitators identified for specific forms of IBSA.

Specific to the non-consensual sharing of images, being friends with the victim was a situational facilitator of intervention. However, this occurred only for intervention behaviours directed towards the victim, such as providing emotional support (i.e., victim-focused intervention). Specific to incidents concerning making threats to share images, being friends with the perpetrator was a situational facilitator of intervention. Specifically, being friends with the perpetrator facilitated actions directed towards the perpetrator, such as telling the perpetrator that it is wrong to make these threats (i.e., perpetrator-focused intervention). Conversely, being friends with the perpetrator inhibited actions directed towards engaging with the police or criminal justice processes, such as informing the police (i.e., justice-focused intervention (see Chapter 5). Overall, given the variation of the facilitative or inhibitive nature of relationships with the victim and perpetrator upon bystander intervention, this demonstrates the importance of considering the nuances of bystander actions when looking at facilitators and barriers.

In terms of situational barriers, the following were identified for bystander intervention for all forms of IBSA: fears for safety, a male victim, and victim blaming. However, there were some nuances regarding the inhibiting nature of victim blaming. For non-consensual taking of images, this only acted as a barrier of intervention focused on the perpetrator. For non-consensual sharing of images, greater victim blame was associated with a greater likelihood of engaging in bystander perpetration (e.g., forwarding the image). Finally, for making threats to share images, victim blame acted as a barrier of intervention for

actions targeted towards the victim (e.g., emotional support) and justice processes (e.g., informing the police) (see Chapter 5).

There were also barriers identified for specific forms of IBSA. Specific to incidents concerning the non-consensual taking of images, a female perpetrator can act as a barrier of intervention. Specific to incidents concerning the non-consensual sharing of images, the sharing of images which have been self-taken can act as a barrier. Specifically, this can act as a barrier of intervention directed towards both the victim (e.g., offering emotional support) and the perpetrator (e.g., telling them the behaviour is wrong). The inhibitive nature of this situational variable was explained by a reduction in feelings of responsibility. Finally, specific to incidents concerning the making of threats to share images, both perceptions of perpetrator mitigation and victim responsibility can act as barriers to action focused on the victim (e.g., offering emotional support) (see Chapter 5).

A further situational variable which was considered within this thesis, but which still lacks clarity regarding whether it acts as a facilitator or barrier of intervention is the presence of other bystanders. Within the focus groups, the presence of other bystanders appeared to be both facilitative and inhibitive, depending on what purpose they served. For example, as a form of protection against retaliation or violence (facilitative), potential to embarrass the bystander (inhibitive), as allies in determining the best course of action (facilitative), or in sharing responsibility (inhibitive). However, when looking at the role of this variable for the non-consensual taking of images, the presence of other bystanders had no impact on likelihood of intervention, nor did it effect any psychological processes (e.g., audience inhibition, feelings of safety, or feelings of responsibility). However, there was evidence that feelings of audience inhibition acted as a barrier of intervention in this case (see Chapter 5).

Contextual Facilitators and Barriers

Finally, in regard to contextual variables, the following facilitators were identified for all forms of IBSA: positive social norms towards intervention and perceptions of positive justice outcomes. However, there were also important nuances regarding perceptions of positive justice outcomes as a facilitator of intervention.

Chapter 4 identified that greater perceptions of positive justice outcomes can facilitate intervention (see Chapter 4). Equally, confidence in the police and CJS was positively associated with intervention for non-consensual sharing and making threats to share images. However, this contextual variable was not a significant predictor in the final models (see Chapter 6). In a similar way to that identified above regarding perceptions of the behaviour, it appears that perceptions of CJS responses are important but this is minimised when other individual or contextual variables are considered.

Implications

Theoretical Implications

The findings within this thesis have demonstrated some partial support for the theoretical models identified within Chapter 1, in particular the Bystander Intervention Model and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The findings have also demonstrated the importance of using an ecological framework for understanding facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention.

Briefly, the Bystander Intervention Model specified a 5-step decision-making process whereby a bystander will take action if they notice the incident (step 1), interpret that incident as a problem (step 2), feel responsible for finding a solution to address the problem (step 3), determine that they have the confidence and appropriate skills to intervene (step 4), and finally, form an intention to intervene and decide what specific action they will take (step 5) (Latané & Darley, 1970).

Across the empirical work of this thesis, greater feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene have been shown to facilitate bystander intervention intent for all three forms of IBSA. This shows support for step 3 and 4 of the Bystander Intervention Model. In regard to perceptions of the behaviour as problematic (i.e., step 2), although exploratory correlations confirmed that greater perceptions of the behaviour as problematic were associated with a higher likelihood of bystander intervention, this variable did not significantly contribute to the final regression model (see Chapter 6). This may be because the Bystander Intervention Model specifies a linear process, whereby bystanders pass through each stage consecutively. Therefore, this model predicts that perceiving the behaviour as problematic should lead the bystander to then consider whether they feel responsible to intervene. This may explain why this variable did not remain as a significant predictor, because the variance has been explained by feelings of responsibility (step 3) and confidence to intervene (step 4). However, this also suggests that feelings of responsibility and confidence to intervene explain unique variance in bystander intervention, and therefore a simple linear journey through these stages may not be the most accurate explanation of bystander behaviour and the decision-making process.

Although much of the work within the current thesis has provided support for the Bystander Intervention Model, one element which received less support was the role of the presence of other bystanders. The *bystander effect* describes the phenomenon where the presence of other bystanders reduces the likelihood that bystanders will intervene due to three main psychological processes: 1) diffusion of responsibility; 2) audience inhibition; and 3) pluralistic ignorance (Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1970). However, as identified with the systematic review, and further supported by the chapters which followed, the role of the presence of other bystanders remains unclear. The focus groups identified both the facilitative and inhibitive nature of the presence of other bystanders, and the experimental

manipulation had no impact on willingness to intervene. The manipulation also had no impact on the expected mediators of this effect as specified by the model. In particular, there were no differences in feelings of audience inhibition, responsibility, or safety across the three conditions. Therefore, this does not support Latané and Darley's hypothesis regarding the diffusion of responsibility and feelings of embarrassment in the presence of other bystanders, and the resulting reduction in likelihood of bystander intervention.

In addition to the Bystander Intervention Model, the TPB centres upon the role of intentions in predicting actual behaviour and specifies three components which predict behavioural intentions: 1) perceived ease in performing the behaviour (similar to step 4 of the Bystander Intervention Model); 2) attitudes towards the behaviour being enacted (i.e., attitudes towards intervention); and 3) subjective norms towards the behaviour (i.e., social norms towards intervention). Therefore, greater perceived ease in performing the intervention behaviour, and more favourable perceptions of intervention by both the individual and others, the more likely it will be performed (Ajzen, 1991).

This thesis has demonstrated that greater confidence to intervene and positive social norms towards intervention are associated with a greater likelihood of bystander intervention intent for all three forms of IBSA. Given the role of these variables within the TPB, the current thesis also demonstrates partial support for this model in explaining bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. As the current thesis did not consider the role of individual attitudes towards intervention (i.e., whether bystanders view intervention positively or negatively), future research should investigate the role of these attitudes to determine whether full support for this model in these contexts can be identified.

Overall, although this thesis has demonstrated partial support for the aforementioned models in their explanation of bystander behaviour in IBSA contexts, they are incomplete. For example, the Bystander Intervention Model does not consider the importance of

contextual variables, such as social norms, and both the Bystander Intervention Model and TPB do not consider some important situational variables, such as that pertaining to the relationship between the bystander and victim. These models could be refined to explain bystander behaviour in IBSA contexts more appropriately using the current findings. For example, the findings in Chapter 5 showed that feelings of responsibility explained why self-taken images acts as a barrier of intervention in the case of non-consensual sharing of images. As the Bystander Intervention Model stipulates that feelings of responsibility are a prerequisite to bystander intervention, this situational variable could be incorporated within a revised model as a situational barrier at step 3 of the decision-making process. Additional empirical investigation into mediating processes could help further develop this model in similar ways. Equally, given the importance of feelings of responsibility in explaining intervention intent, and the unique role played by this variable alongside confidence to intervene and social norms (see Chapter 6), the TPB could be refined to include feelings of responsibility as a fourth component of the model.

Although the findings of the current thesis highlight some limitations of the aforementioned models in their current form, the findings confirm the importance and validity of an ecological model in explaining bystander intervention behaviour which encompasses a wide range of individual, situational, and contextual variables in explaining bystander behaviour (e.g., Banyard, 2011). An additional element of the ecological model concerns the importance of considering interactions, including both mediation and moderation, between the different levels of the model, or in other words, the interactions between individual, situational, and contextual variables (Banyard, 2011). The current thesis has provided some initial support for the potential benefits of doing so, with mediation analyses identifying cognitive processes of the bystander (e.g., feelings of responsibility) as explanations for the facilitative and inhibitive role of some situational variables (e.g., self-

taken images). Not only does this show further support for the validity of applying an ecological model in IBSA contexts, but it also demonstrates that although many situational variables cannot be changed, their facilitative and inhibitive nature can be explained by internal cognitive processes, which has implications for the development of bystander intervention programmes (which is expanded upon below). Future research would benefit from further consideration of interactions and mediations across different levels of the ecological model to enhance our understanding of bystander intervention behaviour, and the nuances of how particular facilitators and barriers influence bystander behaviour under certain conditions. For example, it may be insightful to investigate possible internal cognitive biases or explanations for the inhibiting role of male victims as identified in Chapter 4. This would help develop our understanding of the nature of this situational barrier and its role in inhibiting bystander intervention. Altogether, these considerations would not only have theoretical implications but would also benefit bystander intervention programmes by better equipping them to enhance facilitators and reduce barriers through targeting associated internal processes or attitudes.

In addition to the importance of levels within the ecological model, and interactions between these levels, one final element of the ecological model is *time*, and how bystander intervention behaviour is not a static or linear process, with changes likely to occur overtime with shifts in community experiences, attitudes, or policies (Banyard, 2011). This element has been incorporated into the Bystander Action Coils model (Banyard, 2015). This model specifies the importance of a feedback loop, whereby consequences of past bystander intervention impacts future intentions to intervene. Although not considered in the current thesis, this level of analysis is important for future research to consider. Such endeavours may highlight any important changes that can be made at levels of the exosystem and macrosystem (i.e., among peers and the community) which could then help to encourage

intervention across larger groups of individuals (Banyard, 2011). This could also be used to inform refinements of existing theoretical models which currently focus on isolated incidents (e.g., the Bystander Intervention Model).

In addition to the aforementioned theoretical implications, this thesis has demonstrated the importance of acknowledging the variety of behaviours that bystanders to IBSA can engage in, both for theory and future research. In particular, the focus group study demonstrated that there are a range of different bystander responses to IBSA. The experiments in Chapter 5 further identified clear distinctions between different types of bystander action through factor analysing items of the dependent measure. These experiments demonstrated the importance of considering the nuances of bystander behaviour, particularly when looking at facilitators and barriers, as in most cases, these facilitators and barriers had differential effects depending on the bystander intervention behaviour being considered. For example, being friends with the perpetrator facilitated perpetrator-focused intervention but inhibited justice-focused intervention. This is important for theoretical models of bystander behaviour as it suggests that current models may be limited and lack validity in all instances. Equally, it demonstrates the importance of distinguishing between these behaviours in future research. Any future research which takes this into account should help to address some of the issues raised in the systematic review concerning inconsistent results and presence of null findings within the literature.

Practical Implications

Alongside theoretical implications of this work, there are practical implications, namely, guiding the development of, or revisions to existing, bystander intervention programmes for IBSA contexts. There are two elements of this thesis that would be particularly helpful in this regard: 1) the likely actions taken by bystanders identified in

Chapter 3; and 2) facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention across both SV and IBSA contexts (i.e., Chapters 2, 4, 5, and 6).

When developing bystander intervention programmes, it is advised that programmes focus on a continuum of behaviour rather than focusing efforts on a single type of behaviour (Banyard, 2015). Therefore, whilst programmes targeted specifically for bystander intervention in IBSA contexts could be developed, implications of this thesis would be best targeted towards revising existing programmes, or for the development of new programmes, to address bystander intervention within IBSA contexts alongside other forms of SV. Programmes which educate potential bystanders about the range of behaviours which constitute SV, inclusive of IBSA, may help emphasise the severity of these behaviours, which the systematic review identified as a facilitator of intervention. The current thesis has also identified a range of different facilitators and barriers of intervention in IBSA contexts and demonstrated many commonalities across SV and IBSA contexts. It is important, therefore, for intervention programmes to target a multitude of facilitators and barriers within programmes and to adopt a more holistic approach to ensure the greatest likelihood of success (Brown et al., 2014).

In this section, some existing programmes that focus on increasing bystander intervention in SV contexts will be outlined briefly. These will then be considered in the context of the findings of this thesis, both in regard to support for these existing programmes, as well as where programmes could be modified or revised to incorporate additional nuances and insights from this thesis for IBSA and SV contexts. Therefore, given recommendations for combined preventative efforts within bystander intervention programmes, both the findings in regard to SV (i.e., Chapter 2) and IBSA (i.e., Chapter 4, 5, and 6) will be drawn upon.

There are many empirically supported bystander intervention programmes for SV prevention currently in circulation, most of which originate from the US. Some of the most well-known include Green Dot and Bringing in the Bystander. The Green Dot programme aims to increase bystander action and reduce dating violence and SV on college campuses by developing competencies to overcome barriers of bystander intervention (Coker et al., 2011). It starts by providing an overview of the issue of violence against women, and then moves on to the role of bystander intervention and opportunities to build bystander intervention skills (Coker et al., 2011). Conversely, Bringing in the Bystander has a gender-neutral focus upon both male and female victims. It also provides information about the role of bystanders within communities and discusses skills for safe bystander intervention in cases of SV through the use of role play (Evans et al., 2019; Flynn et al., 2022b; Kettrey & Marx, 2019). This programme focuses upon increasing empathy, gaining confidence to intervene, and the importance of peers and the community in prevention (Mujal et al., 2021). Both Green Dot and Bringing in the Bystander have empirical support for increasing bystander intervention (Coker et al., 2011; Mujal et al., 2021).

Although current programmes may differ in their formats and targeted audience, in most cases they contain similar information, such as that concerning rape myths, how to act as a bystander and building skills and confidence, barriers of bystander intervention, and examples of when and how to intervene (S. M. McMahon et al., 2021; Mujal et al., 2021). Current programmes which have incorporated techniques to reduce rape myth acceptance, foster feelings of responsibility, and build the necessary skills to intervene, have been successful in increasing bystander intervention (e.g., Kettrey & Marx, 2020; Mujal et al., 2021).

Using the aforementioned characteristics of existing programmes, the current thesis has identified further supporting evidence for these components both in SV and IBSA

contexts. Both the systematic review and empirical work in IBSA contexts have demonstrated the facilitative role of feelings of responsibility and confidence, and therefore demonstrates support for the continued focus on these variables to facilitate intervention. However, this thesis has also demonstrated how existing programmes could be modified to acknowledge the nuances in IBSA contexts and further internal cognitive processes for bystanders of IBSA. The current thesis showed that feeling directly involved, such as through being sent images directly in cases of non-consensual sharing, facilitates intervention through a greater sense of personal responsibility. This may present challenges in IBSA contexts as images are often shared online, and therefore may not be directly shared with an individual bystander (Office of eSafety Commissioner, 2017a). Altogether, this suggests that programmes would benefit from advising potential bystanders of the likelihood of witnessing IBSA in online environments and trying to encourage them to feel a greater sense of involvement in incidents of this kind. Having said this, future research should confirm and explore whether the occurrence of IBSA within an online setting does act as a barrier in IBSA contexts, and whether such inhibitions occur as a result of a reduction in feelings of responsibility.

Further cognitive processes related to the individuals involved that have been targeted within educational programmes are feelings of victim empathy and blame. The facilitative and inhibitive role of these cognitive processes have been demonstrated in the current thesis, thereby demonstrating support for the inclusion of exercises within programmes which increase feelings of empathy towards victims of SV and IBSA. For the case of IBSA, this may be achieved by highlighting the impacts upon victims, encouraging greater understanding of the importance of victim agency, as well as addressing bystander biases in circumstances where the victim took the image of themselves. Educating bystanders in this regard will ensure that they are more informed of the severity of this behaviour and therefore

increase negative perceptions of this behaviour, which as demonstrated in the current thesis, will help facilitate intervention.

Relatedly, in line with current programmes targeting rape myths, the systematic review provided further support in trying to reduce this barrier to increase the likelihood of intervention. Despite similar myths not being a significant predictor of bystander intervention in cases of IBSA, correlations did show significant negative associations between the endorsement of IBSA myths and willingness to intervene (see Chapter 6). Therefore, current programmes would certainly benefit from continuing to address rape myths, as well as IBSA myths.

Finally, in line with focusing on peers and community for prevention, the current thesis confirmed the importance of bystander intervention programmes targeting peer groups, given the facilitative role of supportive social norms towards intervention in both SV and IBSA contexts. Engaging with groups rather than individuals provides an opportunity for groups to explore attitudes of their peers, and relevant educational materials which target these attitudes can facilitate positive peer-group changes. Further, literature to date has shown that interventions which target misperceptions of social norms and allow individuals to discuss social norms can have positive impacts on bystander intervention behaviour (e.g., Orchowski, 2019; Orchowski et al., 2018).

Alongside demonstrating support for components of existing programmes, this thesis has identified additional individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention in SV and IBSA contexts which have implications for bystander intervention programmes. This thesis identified that in the case of non-consensual sharing, self-taken images inhibits bystander intervention, and a reduction in feelings of responsibility explains this inhibitive effect. By increasing a potential bystanders sense of responsibility in

cases where the victim consented for the image to be taken or took the image themselves, this will help address a particularly important barrier of bystander intervention in this context.

However, there are also findings from this thesis regarding facilitators and barriers surrounding the bystander's characteristics and the incident itself that cannot be easily modified or utilised within the curriculums of bystander intervention programmes but can still have important practical implications. This thesis identified that being a male bystander can act as a barrier of intervention in some contexts. Some evidence in SV contexts suggests males may be more reluctant to intervene due to lower perceptions of supportive social norms towards intervention (Brown et al., 2014), higher rape myth endorsement, and lower confidence (Labhardt et al., 2017). As these elements are often addressed within existing programmes, it is important to continue these efforts to help remove bystander gender as a barrier.

Further, in SV contexts, male bystanders are more likely to confront a perpetrator or engage in actions which put them at greater risk, but less likely to provide support or other forms of intervention. Perpetrator confrontation may result in retaliation which puts the bystander at risk of harm, and past research has shown that direct intervention in violent incidents can leave bystanders experiencing traumatic stress symptoms (Witte et al., 2017). Even for female bystanders in IBSA contexts, the current thesis and past research (e.g., Flynn et al., 2022a) have shown that verbal confrontation of a perpetrator is a likely form of intervention. By highlighting the safety implications of taking such actions within bystander intervention programmes, and offering suitable alternatives, the risk to the bystander can be reduced. Relatedly, the findings of the current thesis have demonstrated how fears for safety can inhibit bystander intervention. This lends further support to informing potential bystanders of safe options for intervention, as already included within some existing programmes (e.g., *Bringing in the Bystander*), to address this situational barrier.

In addition to demographic characteristics of the bystander, the inhibitive effects of previous IBSA victimisation in cases of non-consensual sharing was identified. This may be due to any negative responses that IBSA victims experienced when disclosing to others or engaging with the police or other support services. As many incidents of non-consensual sharing occur after the consensual taking and sharing of images (e.g., Short et al., 2017), this can present greater challenges in regard to victim blaming from both informal and formal support, as previously identified (e.g., Attrill-Smith et al., 2021). Future research should confirm if, and why previous victimisation can act as a barrier of intervention. If the inhibitive effect is due to own personal experiences with bystander intervention, it would be important to address concerns that potential bystanders may have within bystander intervention programmes and provide suitable avenues for victim support which can help rather than hinder the harm caused to victims. It is also important that future research investigates victim trust in bystander intervention or other support networks and organisations. Evidence has shown that some victims, particularly in regard to the non-consensual sharing of images, are reluctant to seek support from family and friends for fears of embarrassment or being blamed for their victimisation (Campbell et al., 2020). This must be addressed otherwise endeavours focused upon bystanders, particularly in regard to their role post-IBSA, will be futile if victims are reluctant to disclose or ask for help.

An additional situational characteristic which in itself cannot be modified is gender of the victim and perpetrator. This thesis found that perpetrators who are female and victims who are male are barriers of intervention. Therefore, it would be important for bystander intervention programmes to address the role of gendered stereotypes wherein potential bystanders should be educated about common misperceptions relating to victim and perpetrator gender and their motivations. Equally, it is important to educate potential bystanders in regard to the statistics regarding perpetration and victimisation rates of IBSA

among males and females, to highlight that such behaviours can be perpetrated by females, are perpetrated against males, and the impacts can still be devastating for male victims (e.g., Champion et al., 2022; Henry et al., 2020). Programmes would also benefit from including content related to perpetrator motivations, in particular the vast amount of evidence which demonstrates that motivations to engage in IBSA are not necessarily malicious, nor are there differences in motivations for male and female perpetrators (Henry et al., 2020). This knowledge may help reduce any barriers concerning perceptions of non-malicious perpetrator motivations upon bystander intervention.

Finally, although the role of the presence of other bystanders as a facilitator or barrier of intervention remains unclear, programmes would benefit from addressing the inhibiting nature of audience inhibition. One way that this could be addressed is by encouraging potential bystanders to consider others as potential allies. As identified within the focus groups, some felt that other bystanders could provide safety and act as sources of support for determining how to act, therefore these points of view would benefit all bystanders in cases where feelings of embarrassment or concerns for safety may inhibit intervention. Equally, educating bystanders of the potential avenues that they could engage with to intervene which may reduce concerns of audience inhibition, such as those which allow anonymity (e.g., messaging the Transport Police), would also be a worthwhile endeavour.

Alongside practical implications regarding facilitators and barriers, intended actions of bystanders as identified within the focus groups can inform the development or revision of educational programmes. A recent survey found that respondents reacted more positively to campaigns which provided clear guidance on actions they could take as bystanders to IBSA, and that they wanted to see future campaigns provide clear advice about the actions they could take (Flynn et al., 2022b). Therefore, programmes would benefit from being structured around the types of intervention that might be taken, such as that identified in Chapter 3 (e.g.,

justice-focused intervention, such as informing the police), and being educated about each of these. Furthermore, focus group participants described intentions to engage in a range of different intervention behaviours, some of which were victim-focused (e.g., supporting the victim). However, Flynn and colleagues (2022b) found that respondents had very little knowledge of support systems in place for victims of IBSA. Therefore, as bystanders are likely to provide support to the victim but may have limited knowledge of external support systems available, providing education about how they can support the victim (i.e., what they can say, what organisations they can refer them to), would be worthwhile. Relatedly, given the preference for informal channels of bystander intervention (e.g., supporting the victim), educational materials should ensure that signposts for appropriate formal channels are provided and that potential bystanders feel comfortable and willing to engage with these.

Relatedly, as highlighted within the focus groups, not all felt it was right to involve the police or CJS in such matters. A range of reasons for this reluctance was highlighted, all of which related to the ability of the justice system to handle the situation appropriately or sensitively. This has important implications for the police and their engagement with the public. Specifically, the police and the justice system more broadly need to acknowledge the public's reluctance to involve the police, and therefore efforts must be made to engage with the public to increase their sense of trust in the handling of IBSA cases. It is also crucial for future research to consider the nuances of why bystanders are not comfortable in approaching the police to help in addressing specific barriers to the use of justice-focused intervention.

Although this thesis has demonstrated likely actions taken by bystanders in IBSA contexts, future research should consider which actions are the most helpful (Banyard, 2015). Recent evidence has shown that responses from bystanders to experiences of sextortion (i.e., threats to share) can range from helpful or supportive (e.g., listening to them, being empathetic) to unhelpful and even harmful (e.g., judging or disregarding victim) (Walsh &

Tener, 2022). Therefore, it is important for future research to consider a victim's perspective on what actions can be helpful versus unhelpful, to further inform bystander intervention programmes. Finally, given the implications and recommendations presented, it is important that any training or educational materials which are developed are tested empirically, to provide greater insight into this behaviour in helping to prevent IBSA and the associated negative impacts upon victims.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

There are two main limitations of the empirical work within this thesis and associated recommendations for future research: 1) focus on intentions rather than actual bystander behaviour; and 2) no consideration of *time* as outlined within the ecological model.

Throughout this thesis, the focus has been on behavioural intentions rather than actual bystander behaviour. This naturally leads to concerns about the application of these findings to actual behaviour. Behavioural intentions were chosen because research in SV contexts has consistently shown that there is a positive relationship between behavioural intentions and actual bystander behaviour (e.g., Franklin et al., 2017; Kania & Cale, 2021; Waterman et al., 2021). This suggests that investigating intentions can provide a valid indication of how bystanders will behave in real-life situations. Furthermore, there are limitations to measuring actual bystander behaviours, including a reduced sample pool and inability to experimentally manipulate situational variables ethically, as was achieved in the current thesis. However, evidence has shown that the relationship between intentions and actual behaviour can be moderated by other variables, such as relationship with the victim, with intentions being more accurate reflections of actual behaviour in cases where victims are friends of the bystander compared to if they are unknown (Waterman et al., 2021). Therefore, future research should aim to confirm whether the current findings regarding actions taken by bystanders, as well as the facilitators and barriers of intervention, hold when considering actual bystander

behaviour. This may be achieved through conducting a qualitative study whereby participants with experience of being a bystander to IBSA are asked to provide a thorough report of the details of the incident, with probing questions aligned to those of the facilitators and barriers identified here, and the actions they took.

Second, as outlined within the subsection above (see Theoretical Implications), the ecological model stresses the importance of considering time and how in the context of bystander intervention behaviour, changes in behaviour are likely to occur over time with shifts in experiences, attitudes, or policies (Banyard, 2011). This aspect of the ecological model was not investigated within the current thesis. Although much of the available literature in both SV and IBSA contexts, and theoretical models, are based upon isolated incidents (Banyard, 2015), IBSA frequently occurs within the context of existing relationships, and as part of a wider issue of domestic violence within relationships (e.g., Dardis & Richards, 2022; Flynn et al., 2022b). Equally, many bystanders of IBSA are friends with the victims or perpetrators (Flynn et al., 2022b), which leads to the possibility that any incidents of IBSA will not be one-off occurrences. Therefore, having an understanding of what happens after engaging in intervention and how this can impact future attitudes and behaviour may be important. In guiding future research to address this limitation, the Bystander Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015; Banyard, Moschella, et al., 2021) could be helpful. This model shares many characteristics with the ecological model and specifies multiple components which work together to explain the decision-making process of bystanders. There are internal decision-making processes, characteristics of the event itself, and contextual factors that impact the decision-making process. This model also stresses the importance of measuring what happens after bystanders intervene, with research showing the importance of reactions from others (e.g., victim and perpetrator) in influencing future intent to intervene (Banyard, Moschella, et al., 2021). Each of these elements provide feedback and

develop over time as new skills and experiences are added, hence acknowledging the element of time as specified within the ecological model (Banyard, 2011, 2015). Therefore, future research would benefit from considering how bystander intervention occurs over time and influences future intervention behaviour in IBSA contexts.

Conclusion

This thesis set out to address one main research question: What individual, situational, and contextual factors can facilitate and inhibit bystander intervention intent in IBSA contexts, namely, the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and making threats to share nude or sexual images? Using an ecological framework to guide this research, a range of individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers were identified. In line with past research in SV contexts, facilitators of intervention include feelings of responsibility, confidence to intervene, negative reactions towards the behaviour, being friends with the victim and perpetrator, greater victim empathy, and more positive social norms towards intervention. Further, barriers of intervention include being male, fears for safety, audience inhibition, the incident involving male victims and female perpetrators, and greater feelings of victim blame and responsibility. This thesis has also expanded our understanding of facilitators and barriers within IBSA contexts which have not been previously identified, such as the facilitative role of greater general empathetic concern, feeling directly involved in the incident, concerns for victim agency, perceived malicious motivations on behalf of the perpetrator, perceptions of victim vulnerability, and perceptions of positive justice outcomes. Equally, unique barriers identified include images that have been self-taken (i.e., selfies), greater perceived perpetrator mitigation, and previous experiences of IBSA victimisation.

The findings of this thesis have important implications for theory, practice, and future research. In regard to theoretical implications, it has provided partial support for the Bystander Intervention Model, particularly in regard to perceptions of the behaviour as

problematic, feelings of responsibility, and confidence to intervene (i.e., steps 2, 3, and 4), as well as the TPB. It has also identified a range of individual, situational, and contextual facilitators and barriers that support the use of an ecological model, and therefore consideration of the wider context within theoretical models for explaining bystander intervention behaviour. Methodologically, this thesis identified some important considerations for future research, and the benefits of these, namely, the importance of considering different types of bystander intervention behaviour. In particular, it identified issues within the existing literature in regard to how bystander intervention was operationalised and measured. It then addressed these limitations by ensuring the measurement of bystander intervention behaviour was nuanced in regard to the types of actions being taken within the empirical studies. This thesis further demonstrated the importance of doing this given the differences identified for each type of intervention behaviour. For example, being friends with the perpetrator facilitated perpetrator-focused intervention but inhibited justice-focused intervention.

Regarding practical implications, and the development of bystander intervention programmes, this thesis has shown that many of the current programmes available for bystander intervention in SV contexts address facilitators and barriers that have been identified in the current thesis for both SV and IBSA contexts. Therefore, many programmes could be adapted for bystander intervention in IBSA contexts. However, some findings from this thesis are not currently included within these programmes. For example, self-taken images creates a barrier to intervention in cases of non-consensual sharing. This presents an opportunity to educate potential bystanders and feel more responsible to help in these situations, which should help increase intervention in these cases. Finally, with the current findings of this thesis having important implications for the development of bystander

intervention programmes, this means that future research should evaluate the success of these materials in increasing the likelihood of bystander intervention.

Overall, IBSA is an ever-growing problem within our society. The facilitators and barriers of bystander intervention identified within this thesis will help development of theory and educational programmes aimed at encouraging greater bystander intervention.

Ultimately, this research and that of future research in this area will help prevent and minimise the harm experienced by victims of IBSA.

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Appendix A

Type of Search and Search Terms used for Database Searches

Database	Type of search	Search terms
Web of science	Topic	TS=((Bystander\$ OR “cyber-bystander\$” OR cyberbystander\$ OR “helping behavior\$” OR observer\$ OR “social justice ally” OR “social justice allies” OR “passer-by” OR prosocial) AND (barrier\$ OR inhibit* OR hinder* OR facilitat* OR promote\$ OR encourage\$ OR ecological* OR context* OR situation* OR individual OR propensit* OR proclivity OR capacity OR intention\$ OR attitude\$ OR support OR increas* OR decreas* OR positive OR negative OR prevent OR “likel* NEAR/5 interven*” OR “willing* NEAR/5 intervene” OR “willing* NEAR/5 report” OR predictor\$ OR correlat* OR “relationship with” OR “relationship between” OR “scenario\$”) AND (sexual OR rape OR "indecent NEAR/5 assault\$" OR “sex offen?e” OR “sex crime”) NOT (dna OR “bystander cell\$”))
PsycInfo, Academic Search Complete, and Psychological and Behavioural Sciences Collection	Default [locates terms within titles, subjects, abstracts, and keywords]	(Bystander* OR “cyber-bystander*” OR cyberbystander* OR “helping behavior#r” OR observer* OR “social justice ally” OR “social justice allies” OR “passer-by” OR prosocial) AND (barrier* OR inhibit* OR hinder* OR facilitat* OR promote* OR encourage* OR ecological* OR context* OR situation* OR individual OR propensit* OR proclivity OR capacity

Database	Type of search	Search terms
		<p>OR intention* OR attitude* OR support OR increas* OR decreas* OR positive OR negative OR prevent OR “likel* N5 interven*” OR “willing* N5 intervene” OR “willing* N5 report” OR predictor* OR correlat* OR “relationship with” OR “relationship between” OR “scenario*”) AND (sexual OR rape OR "indecent N5 assault*" OR “sex offen?e” OR “sex crime”) NOT (dna OR “bystander cell”)</p>

Appendix B

Variables Excluded from Systematic Review

1. Individual variables

a. Bystander demographics

- i. Race/ethnicity
- ii. Sexual orientation
- iii. Marginalised identity
- iv. Marital status
- v. Class
- vi. Political orientation
- vii. Endorsement of a group identity (a typical student on campus)
- viii. Family income

b. Bystander cognitions in a sexual violence context

- i. Failure to notice potential bystander situation
- ii. Distractedness in potential bystander situation
- iii. Identifying behaviour as problematic or risky
- iv. Perceived appropriateness of intervention
- v. Willingness to intervene in potential bystander situations

c. General attitudes and beliefs

- i. Exploitative entitlement
- ii. Perception of women
- iii. Attitudes towards racial injustice
- iv. Sexism attitudes
- v. Endorsement of masculine ideology
- vi. Masculine gender role stress

- vii. Attitudes towards racism
 - viii. In-group bias
 - ix. Diversity beliefs
 - x. Heterosexual beliefs
 - xi. Hostility towards women
 - xii. General attitudes towards victims
 - xiii. Alcohol expectancies
 - xiv. Endorsement of gendered stereotypes/assumptions
 - xv. Ethical ideology (relativism)
 - xvi. Ethical ideology (idealism)
 - xvii. Morality
 - xviii. Friendship prioritisation
 - xix. Confidentiality prioritisation
 - xx. Individual judgement prioritisation
 - xxi. Desire to prevent further incidents of sexual violence
- d. Personal experience or knowledge of sexual violence
- i. Know someone who has been a victim
 - ii. Personal previous perpetration
 - iii. Sexual assault awareness
- e. Attitudes towards intervention
- i. Attitudes toward intervention if they were to intervene
 - ii. Attitudes about helpfulness of intervention behaviour
 - iii. Attitudes about personal benefits to intervention
 - iv. Attitudes about societal benefits to intervention

- v. Attitudes about importance and consequences of intervention behaviour
 - vi. Attitudes towards decisional balance
 - vii. Outcome expectations towards intervention (positive/negative)
- f. Personality
- i. Extroversion
 - ii. Self-esteem
 - iii. Expressivity
 - iv. Instrumentality
 - v. Social desirability
 - vi. Sexual assault perpetration propensity
 - vii. Civil courage
 - viii. Personal reputational concern
- g. Previous bystander behaviour
- i. Previous sexual violence intervention behaviour
 - ii. Previous opportunities for sexual violence intervention
- h. Mental health/substance use
- i. Lifetime depression
 - ii. Lifetime PTSD
 - iii. Use of mental health services
 - iv. Alcohol use
 - v. Substance abuse
 - vi. Binge drinking
 - vii. Marijuana use
 - viii. Illicit drug use

2. Situational variables
 - a. Presence of other bystanders
 - i. Size of group of bystanders
 - ii. Action/inaction of other bystanders
 - b. Relationships between the bystander, victim, and perpetrator
 - i. Harasser holding power/authority over bystander
 - ii. Relationship between victim and perpetrator
 - iii. Sex pairing between bystander and victim/perpetrator
 - iv. Bystander relationship with other bystanders
 - v. Interpersonal relationships
 - c. Characteristics of victim
 - i. Gender
 - ii. Sexuality
 - iii. Race
 - iv. Promiscuity
 - v. Sexual behaviour if they were sober
 - vi. Workplace performance
 - vii. Clothing
 - d. Characteristics of perpetrator
 - i. Gender
 - ii. Reputation
 - iii. Workplace performance
 - e. Victim blaming and empathy
 - i. Victim blame
 - ii. Victim pleasure

- iii. Empathetic concern for victim
- iv. Victim sympathy-worthiness
- f. Perpetrator and victim behaviour
 - i. Drugging/drink-feeding victim
 - ii. Perpetrator took victim away (out of sight)
 - iii. Excessive touching from perpetrator
 - iv. Distinguishing a perpetrator from a guardian
 - v. Perpetrator violating personal space
 - vi. Perpetrator turned away by other women
 - vii. Perpetrator body language
 - viii. Perpetrator persistence in pursuing the victim
 - ix. Pursuit of an unconscious victim
 - x. Victim reaction
- g. Intoxication of individuals
 - i. Intoxication of victim
 - ii. Intoxication of bystander
 - iii. Discrepancy of intoxication between victim and perpetrator
- h. Other characteristics of incident
 - i. Uncertainty surrounding consent
 - ii. Inability to directly intervene due to physical space
 - iii. Length of time that had passed since incident
 - iv. Visual information available to bystanders
 - v. Perceived realism of high risk context
 - vi. Familiarity with high risk context
 - vii. Anonymity of bystander

- viii. Ambiguity of situation
- i. Type of sexual violence behaviour/incident
 - i. Type of sexual harassment
 - ii. Type of risk situation
- 3. Contextual variables
 - a. Social norms
 - i. Social consensus of what is considered to be sexual harassment
 - ii. Injunctive norms towards sexual violence perpetration
 - iii. Descriptive norms towards sexual violence perpetration
 - iv. Descriptive norms towards misogynistic behaviour
 - v. Normalisation of sexual harm
 - vi. Gendered understandings of sexual assault
 - vii. Injunctive norms towards bother over potential sexual abuse victims
 - viii. Misperception of injunctive norms towards bother over potential sexual abuse victims
 - ix. Hook-up culture
 - x. Sexualisation of work environment
 - xi. Cultural norms linking men's social status to sexual activity
 - xii. Male peer approval
 - b. Media exposure
 - i. Objectification of women in the media
 - ii. Sports media exposure
 - iii. Consumption of men's magazines
 - iv. Frequency of watching crime dramas
 - v. Consumption of women's magazines

- c. Education about sexual violence
 - i. Exposure to messages about sexual violence on campus
 - ii. Sexual assault training/education exposure
 - iii. Accessibility barriers to reporting
 - iv. Accessibility barriers to accessing support
 - v. Awareness of sexual assault resources available
- d. Diversity and inclusion
 - i. Intergroup contact frequency
 - ii. Intergroup contact quality
 - iii. Anxiety about intergroup contact
 - iv. Organisational culture towards diversity and inclusion
- e. Career/education
 - i. Employment status
 - ii. Managerial status
 - iii. Military branch
 - iv. Military rank
 - v. Educational experience
 - vi. Living in campus housing
- f. Social/club membership
 - i. Fraternity/sorority membership
 - ii. Athletic membership
 - iii. Contact sport membership
 - iv. Sports division of competition
 - v. Sports team bond
- g. Military culture/values

- i. Army norms/values related to communication and teamwork
 - ii. Military morale
 - iii. Belief that sexual assault is a problem in the military
- h. Community value
 - i. Community cohesion
 - ii. Collective efficacy to make the community safer

Appendix C

Ethics Documentation and Demographic Questionnaire for Focus Group Study

INFORMATION SHEET

BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF SEXUAL IMAGES

Study title

Behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of sexual images of others.

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. If you choose to participate, you will be given a copy of this information sheet and the consent form.

Thank you for reading this information.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study contributes to Chelsea Mainwaring's (the principal researcher's) PhD programme of studies at Goldsmiths College. This project is being supervised by Dr Adrian Scott and Professor Fiona Gabbert. The objective of this research is to understand how individuals would behave when presented with a variety of different scenarios, such as the taking and sharing of

sexual images, and whether slight variations to these scenarios would impact this behaviour. Data collection is expected to be completed by the end of March 2020.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are a university student. Other focus group members are also university students. There will be a maximum of 6 individuals in your focus group and a maximum 10 focus groups will be carried out for this research.

Do I have to take part?

As participation is entirely voluntary, it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason, up until data analysis commences. If you decide to withdraw from the study, this will in no way influence or adversely affect you and will have no detriment to your academic studies.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Participation will involve taking part in a focus group concerning how you would behave in a variety of different scenarios, for example the taking and sharing of sexual images. During the focus group you will be asked to discuss hypothetical scenarios pertaining to how you would behave and why. In total, the session will last approximately 60-75 minutes. If you wish to take a short break, you can do so at any time.

To ensure that the focus group elicits an open discussion, it is important to be considerate of your fellow focus group members. You may disagree with your fellow group members on a

particular issue, but it is important to raise any conflicting views or opinions in a non-judgement way. I also ask that you keep any discussions or comments made during the focus group, confidential.

As the facilitator of the focus group, I may take some notes and the focus group discussions will be audio-recorded. Data will be held securely and in confidence. In the final report the results will be presented in such a way that the individual identity of all participants will remain strictly anonymous.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are minimal risks associated with participating in this study. However, it is possible that discussions may elicit unpleasant memories of any personal experiences similar to the scenarios discussed in the focus group.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The focus group discussions will raise awareness of the complexities associated with the sharing of sexual images. You will also be provided with relevant websites to access further information about this topic.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event that you wish to make a complaint about your experience as a participant in this study, please contact my supervisor, Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk) or the Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. In the final report the results will be presented in such a way that the individual identity of all participants will remain strictly anonymous. Please see GDPR guidelines provided in regard to the handling of personal data.

What will happen to the results of this study?

The data obtained from the focus group will be analysed using a thematic analysis to highlight patterns in how individuals would behave and the reasons why they would behave in this way. It is hoped that this study, and data from this study, will be published in a peer-reviewed journal and will form part of the principal researcher's PhD thesis.

Who has reviewed this study?

This study has been reviewed by the Psychology Ethics Committee.

Research integrity

Goldsmiths, University of London, is committed to compliance with the Universities UK Research Integrity Concordat. You are entitled to expect the highest level of integrity from our researchers during the course of their research.

Contact for further information

If you have any questions, please ask the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (cmain001@gold.ac.uk).

General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and Goldsmiths Research: Guidelines for participants

Please note that the following information does not constitute, and should not be construed as, legal advice. These guidelines are designed to help participants understand their rights under GDPR which came into force on 25 May 2018.

Your rights as a participant (data subject) in this study

The updated data protection regulation is a series of conditions designed to protect an individual's personal data. Not all data collected for research is personal data.

Personal data is data such that a living individual can be identified; collection of personal data is sometimes essential in conducting research and GDPR sets out that data subjects should be treated in a lawful and fair manner and that information about the data processing should be explained clearly and transparently. Some data we might ask to collect falls under the heading of special categories data. This type of information includes data about an individual's race; ethnic origin; politics; religion; trade union membership; genetics; biometrics (where used for ID purposes); health; sex life; or sexual orientation. This data requires particular care.

Under GDPR you have the following rights over your personal data¹⁹:

- ***The right to be informed.*** You must be informed if your personal data is being used.

¹⁹ <https://ico.org.uk/your-data-matters/>

- ***The right of access.*** You can ask for a copy of your data by making a ‘subject access request’.
- ***The right to rectification.*** You can ask for your data held to be corrected.
- ***The right to erasure.*** You can ask for your data to be deleted.
- ***The right to restrict processing.*** You can limit the way an organisation uses your personal data if you are concerned about the accuracy of the data or how it is being used.
- ***The right to data portability.*** You have the right to get your personal data from an organisation in a way that is accessible and machine-readable. You also have the right to ask an organisation to transfer your data to another organisation.
- ***The right to object.*** You have the right to object to the use of your personal data in some circumstances. You have an absolute right to object to an organisation using your data for direct marketing.
- ***How your data is processed using automated decision making and profiling.*** You have the right not to be subject to a decision that is based solely on automated processing if the decision affects your legal rights or other equally important matters; to understand the reasons behind decisions made about you by automated processing and the possible consequences of the decisions, and to object to profiling in certain situations, including for direct marketing purposes.

Please note that these rights are not absolute and only apply in certain circumstances. You should also be informed how long your data will be retained and who it might be shared with.

How does Goldsmiths treat my contribution to this study?

Your participation in this research is very valuable and any personal data you provide will be treated in confidence using the best technical means available to us. The university's legal basis for processing your data²⁰ as part of our research findings is a "task carried out in the public interest". This means that our research is designed to improve the health, happiness and well-being of society and to help us better understand the world we live in. It is not going to be used for marketing or commercial purposes.

In addition to our legal basis under Article 6 (as described above), for **special categories data** as defined under Article 9 of GDPR, our condition for processing is that it is “necessary for archiving purposes in the public interest, scientific or historical research purposes or statistical purposes”.²¹

If your data contributes to data from a group then your ability to remove data may be limited as the project progresses, when removal of your data may cause damage to the dataset.

You should also know that you may contact any of the following people if you are unhappy about the way your data or your participation in this study are being treated:

- Goldsmiths Data Protection Officer – dp@gold.ac.uk (concerning your rights to control personal data).

²⁰ GDPR Article 6; the six lawful bases for processing data are explained here: <https://ico.org.uk/for-organisations/guide-to-the-general-data-protection-regulation-gdpr/lawful-basis-for-processing/>

²¹ Article 9 of the GDPR requires this type of data to be treated with great care because of the more significant risks to a person's fundamental rights and freedoms that mishandling might cause, e.g., by putting them at risk of unlawful discrimination.

- Chair, Goldsmiths Research Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee - via k.rumsey@gold.ac.uk, REISC Secretary (for any other element of the study).
- You also have the right to lodge a complaint with the Information Commissioner's Office at <https://ico.org.uk/make-a-complaint/>

Consent form

Title of project: Behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of sexual images

Name of researcher: Chelsea Mainwaring

Name of supervisors: Dr Adrian Scott and Prof Fiona Gabbert

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the participant information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my data will be treated confidentially, and that the results will be presented in any associated reports in such a way that my identity will remain strictly anonymous.

3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time (up until data analyses commence), without giving a reason, without any adverse impact on my academic studies.

4. I agree to take part in the above study.

NAME (Please print)

SIGNATURE

DATE

RESEARCHER NAME (Please print)

SIGNATURE

DATE

DEBRIEF SHEET

BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF SEXUAL IMAGES

The study you have just participated in aims to determine how individuals would behave when presented with a variety of different scenarios that are all examples of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) (i.e., the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and threatening to share sexual images), and the reasons why they would behave in this way. The study also aims to determine what inhibits or facilitates positive bystander intervention in these contexts. It is hoped that this information will eventually lead to the development of educational materials to encourage bystanders to intervene. Inhibitors and facilitators have previously been considered in physical sexual violence contexts and bystander intervention programmes have been developed to prevent physical sexual violence, but little is known about these factors and bystander intervention where sexual violence has been enacted in IBSA contexts. There is reason to believe that those factors which are important in physical sexual violence contexts are relevant in image-based sexual abuse contexts, but possibly with varying importance.

The qualitative data obtained from the focus group will be analysed using thematic analysis to highlight patterns in how individuals would behave, the reasons why they would behave in this way, and what inhibitors and facilitators were considered during the discussion.

As I indicated at the outset, the data collected is confidential, and your identity will remain strictly anonymous in any final reports.

In the unlikely event that taking part in this study has caused any personal or emotional distress, there are a number of websites and organisations that can provide support:

- Revenge Porn Helpline: 0345 6000 459 or <https://revengepornhelpline.org.uk/>
- Victims of Internet Crime: info@voic.org.uk or <https://voic.org.uk/>
- Well-being services at Goldsmiths:
<https://www.gold.ac.uk/students/wellbeing/wellbeing-service/> or your university of attendance.

If you would like any further information about this topic or this study, please contact the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (cmain001@gold.ac.uk) or Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk). The Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas, can also be contacted (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

May I sincerely thank you for taking part in this study.

Chelsea Mainwaring

Demographic information

Gender (please circle)

Female

Male

Prefer not to say

Other (please specify)

Age

.....

Sexual orientation (please circle)

Heterosexual

Bisexual

Homosexual

Prefer not to say

Other (please specify)

Ethnicity (please circle)

White

Mixed/multiple ethnic groups

Asian/Asian British

Black/African/Caribbean/Black British

Prefer not to say

Other ethnic group (please specify)

Have you ever participated in a bystander intervention training programme before?

(please circle)

Yes

No

If yes, was this the 'Active Bystander Training' course provided by Goldsmiths?

(please circle)

Yes

No

If no, please provide some details about the programme you took part in

.....

Appendix D

Focus Group Scenarios

Taken

Imagine that you are on a train home after having been at university. A person is standing in the aisle of the carriage and a person is sitting next to you. The person sitting next to you appears to be on their phone. You notice that they have opened the camera app on their phone and appear to be trying to take an intimate image of the person who is standing in the aisle of the carriage.

Shared

Imagine that one of your friends has just split up with their partner. One evening, you receive sexually explicit images of your friend from their ex-partner.

Threatened

Imagine that you are having a discussion with one of your friends and they disclose that their ex-partner is threatening to send sexually explicit images of your friend to your friends' parents.

Appendix E

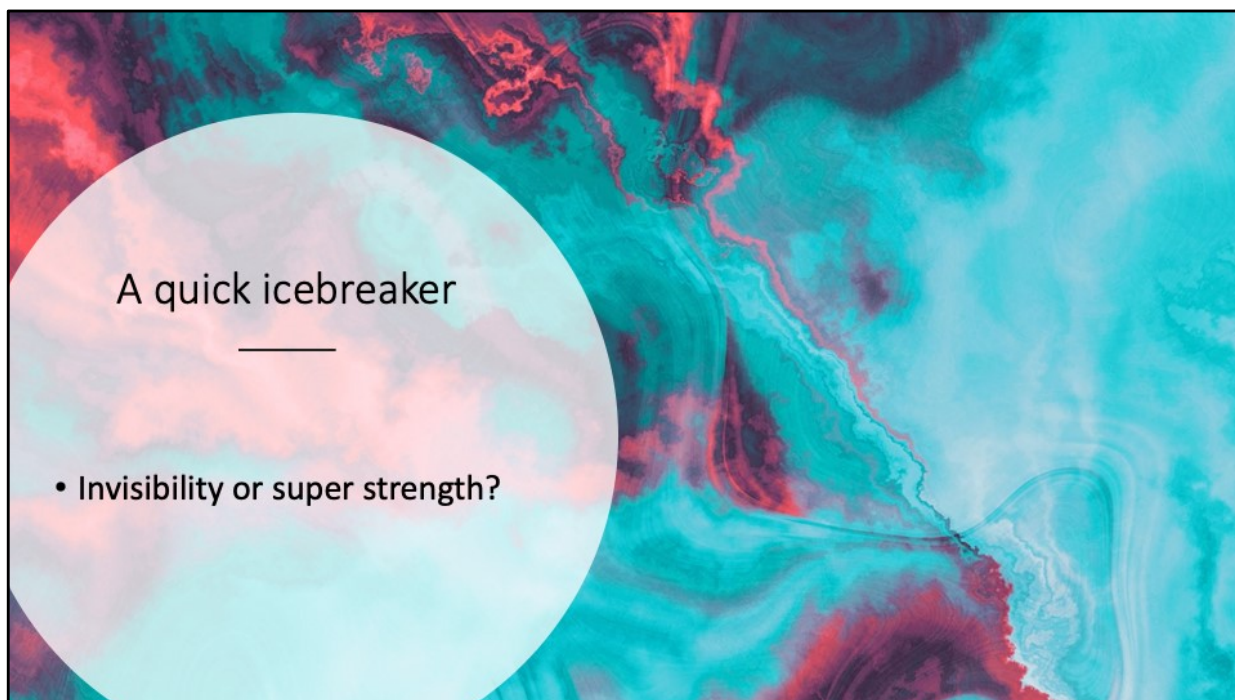
Semi-Structured Focus Group Schedule



[5 mins for introduction and questions]

[Across all parts of the focus group, to elicit information from those who are quieter, will say

“Does anyone else have anything to add?”]

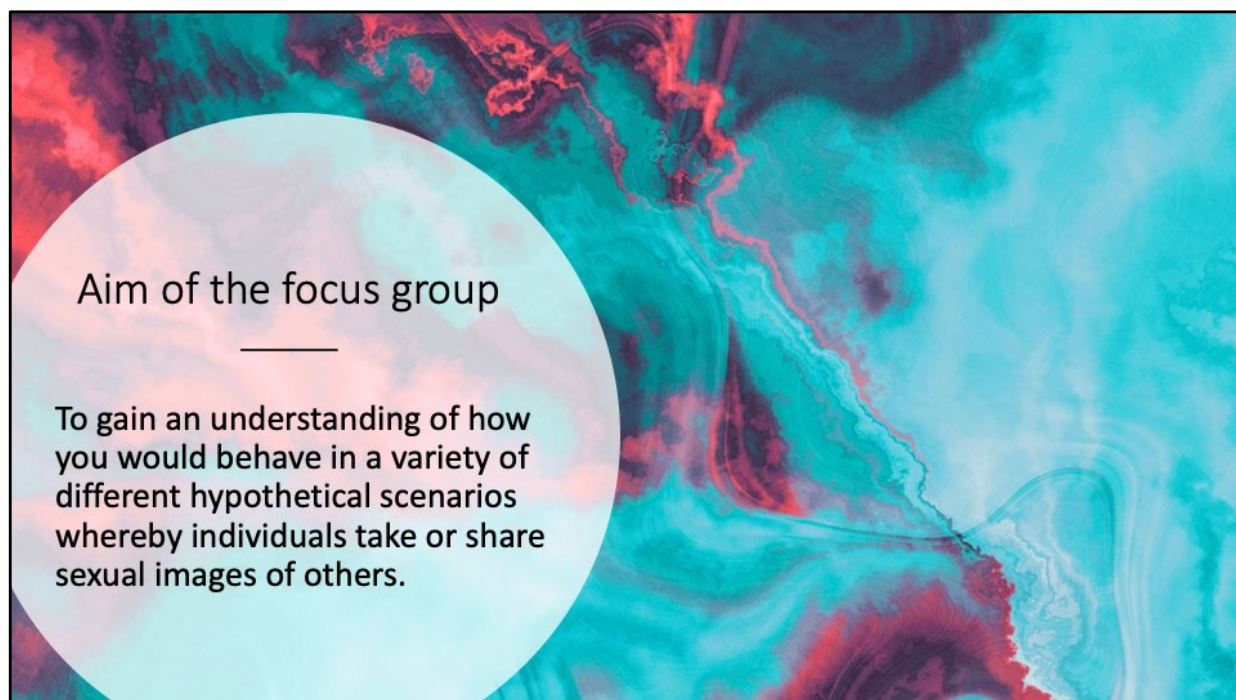


To encourage you all to feel a little more comfortable and open to speaking to each other, I have a quick icebreaker question to get you all talking.

Firstly, would you rather have the power of invisibility or super strength, and why?

[If participants still seem quiet, ask following question]

And would you rather explore space or the ocean, and why?



I will also ask some follow up questions to see whether variations to the scenarios impact on how you would behave.



Open and honest discussion: Please try to engage in an open and honest discussion with each other. I will present you with the scenarios and questions but try to refrain from addressing me when you answer the questions and engage in discussions amongst yourselves. I will also take a few notes, but please just ignore me whilst I do this, there is no need for you to pause to allow me to write these notes.

Additionally, if you are someone who generally talks a lot, try to be conscious of this and allow others to talk, and if you are someone who does not talk a lot, try to speak up during the discussions.

Confidentiality: Please ensure that you keep what is discussed here today confidential and if you draw upon real-life experiences and examples during our discussions, please ensure that you maintain the anonymity of those individuals that you mention.

No judgement: Everyone is unique and will have differing views on this topic. There are no right or wrong answers here. It is fine to disagree with what a fellow focus group member has said. If you verbalise your disagreement, please do so in a non-judgemental way. Everyone has the right to express their own viewpoints.

Avoid interruptions: Try to avoid talking over each other as this will make it difficult to decipher what is being said on the audio recording.



Scenario 1

Imagine that you are on a train home after having been at university. A person is standing in the aisle of the carriage and a person is sitting next to you. The person sitting next to you appears to be on their phone. You notice that they have opened the camera app on their phone and appear to be trying to take an intimate image of the person who is standing in the aisle of the carriage.

[5-10 mins]

Firstly, please consider the following scenario:

[Provide paper copies too, green paper]

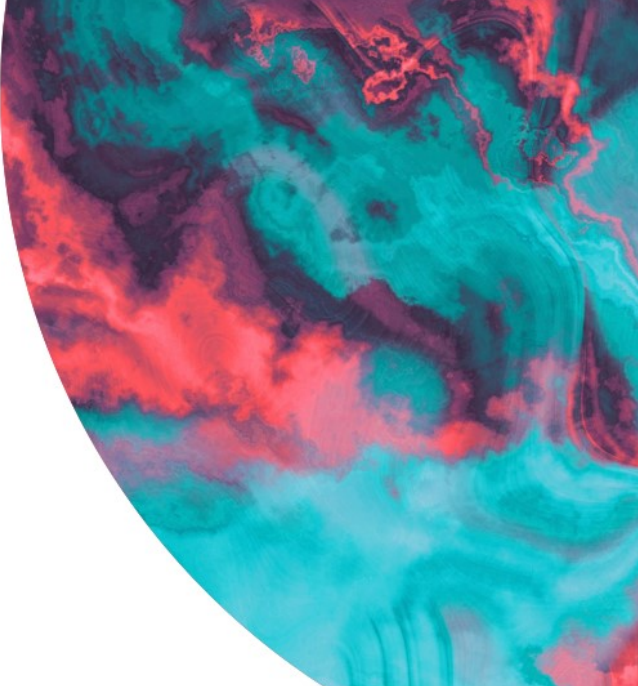
Imagine that you are on a train home after having been at university. A person is standing in the aisle of the carriage and a person is sitting next to you. The person sitting next to you appears to be on their phone. You notice that they have opened the camera app on their phone and appear to be trying to take an intimate image of the person who is standing in the aisle of the carriage.

Please take a few seconds to really imagine that you are in the situation described and then consider:

1. How would you react in this situation?
 - a. Would you say or do anything?
 - i. Why?
2. Why would you react this way?

Scenario 2

Imagine that one of your friends has just split up with their partner. One evening, you receive sexually explicit images of your friend from their ex-partner.



[5-10 mins]

Let's now consider the following scenario:

[Provide paper copies too, orange paper]

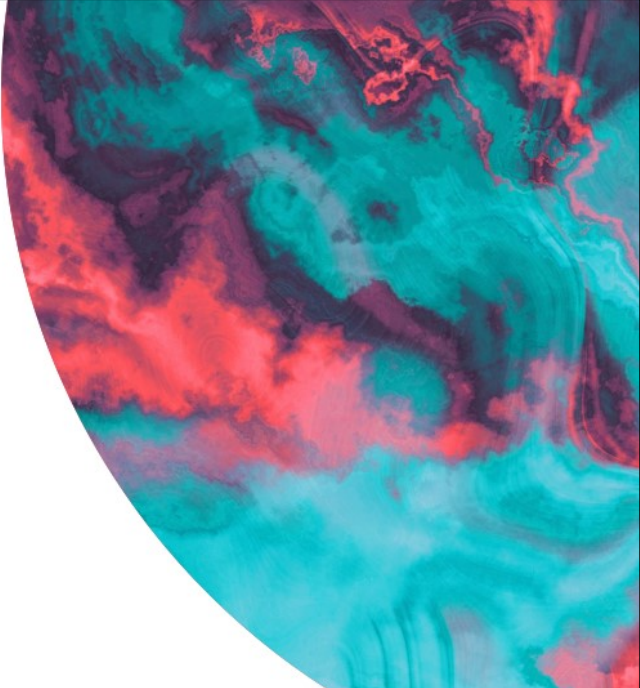
Imagine that one of your friends has just split up with their partner. One evening, you receive sexually explicit images of your friend from their ex-partner.

Please take a few seconds to really imagine that you are in the situation described and then consider:

3. How would you react in this situation?
 - a. Would you say or do anything?
 - i Why?
4. Why would you react this way?

Scenario 3

Imagine that you are having a discussion with one of your friends and they disclose that their ex-partner is threatening to send sexually explicit images of your friend to your friends' parents.



[5-10 mins]

Let's now consider the following scenario:

[Provide paper copies too, white paper]

Imagine that you are having a discussion with one of your friends and they disclose that their ex-partner is threatening to send sexually explicit images of your friend to your friends' parents.

Please take a few seconds to really imagine that you are in the situation described and then consider:

5. How would you react in this situation?
 - a. Would you say or do anything?
 - i Why?
6. Why would you react this way?

Scenario 1:
Imagine that you are on a train home after having been at university. A person is standing in the aisle of the carriage and a person is sitting next to you. The person sitting next to you appears to be on their phone. You notice that they have opened the camera app on their phone and appear to be trying to take an intimate image of the person who is standing in the aisle of the carriage.

Scenario 2:
Imagine that one of your friends has just split up with their partner. One evening, you receive sexually explicit images of your friend from their ex-partner.

Scenario 3:
Imagine that you are having a discussion with one of your friends and they disclose that their ex-partner is threatening to send sexually explicit images of your friend to your friends' parents.

[10-15 mins]

Now let's consider all of the scenarios together. When you refer to particular scenarios, please try to make it clear which scenario you are referring to for the recording, perhaps using the colour of the paper to distinguish.

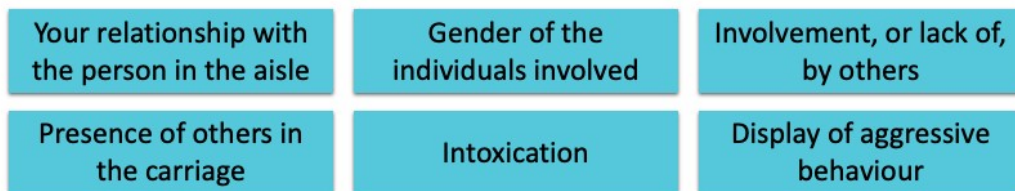
7. Looking across these three scenarios, which of the behaviours presented do you think is the most problematic?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Is the behaviour in scenario 1 or scenario 2 more problematic?
 - i Why?

- c. Is the behaviour in scenario 2 or scenario 3 more problematic?
 - i Why?
 - d. Is the behaviour in scenario 1 or scenario 3 more problematic?
 - i Why?
8. Looking across these three scenarios, in which scenario would you feel the most responsible to say or do something?
- a. Why?
 - b. Would you feel more responsible for doing something in scenario 1 or scenario 2?
 - i Why?
 - c. Would you feel more responsible for doing something in scenario 2 or scenario 3?
 - i Why?
 - d. Would you feel more responsible for doing something in scenario 1 or scenario 3?
 - i Why?
9. Looking across these three scenarios, what would make you more or less likely to say or do something?
- a. Why?
 - b. What would make you more or less likely to act in scenario 1?
 - i Why?
 - c. What would make you more or less likely to act in scenario 2?
 - i Why?
 - d. What would make you more or less likely to act in scenario 3?
 - i Why?

[Scenario variations]

10. Can you think of any slight variations of the details in these scenarios which might change how you would react, and why?

Scenario 1: Imagine that you are on a train home after having been at university. A person is standing in the aisle of the carriage and a person is sitting next to you. The person sitting next to you appears to be on their phone. You notice that they have opened the camera app on their phone and appear to be trying to take an intimate image of the person who is standing in the aisle of the carriage.



[10 mins]

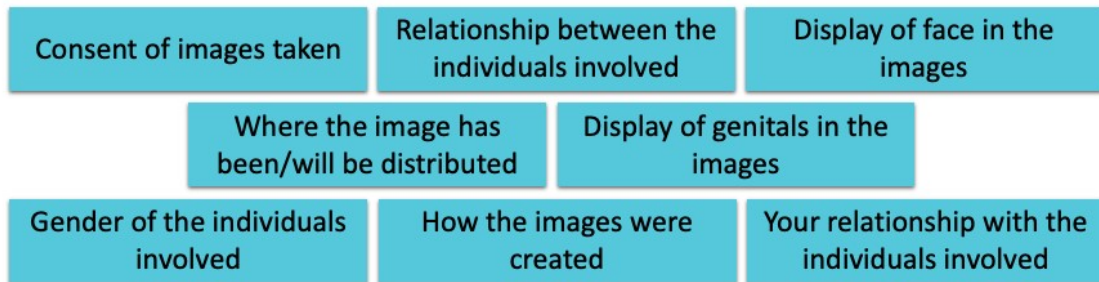
If we focus on scenario 1, the variables presented in the boxes are things that I would like you to think about in relation to this scenarios. You've already covered X, Y, and Z in your discussions [click to fade], but what about these other factors? Firstly, let's consider ... [pick a question related to one of the remaining variables below] [If it is clear that any of the variables are not relevant, then move on].

11. Let's consider your relationship with the person in the aisle. Specifically, consider if the person was a stranger vs. a close friend, would this affect how you would react?
- Why?
 - Consider if the person taking the image was a stranger vs. a close friend, would this affect how you would react?

12. Let's consider the gender of the individuals involved. Specifically, consider if the person taking the image was a male and the target of the image was female vs. the image was being taken by a female and the target of the image was male, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Consider if both the individuals involved were of the same gender, would this affect how you would react?
13. Let's consider the presence of others on the train. Specifically, consider if there were other individuals on the train vs. just the three of you, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Would the presence and inaction of others affect what you would do?
14. Let's consider intoxication of either party. Specifically, consider if the person taking the image appeared intoxicated vs. appeared sober, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Consider if the person in the aisle appeared intoxicated vs. appeared sober, would this affect how you would react?
15. Let's consider a display of aggressive behaviour. Specifically, consider if the person taking the image had previously displayed aggressive behaviour whilst being on the train, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?

Scenario 2: Imagine that one of your friends has just split up with their partner. One evening, you receive sexually explicit images of your friend from their ex-partner.

Scenario 3: Imagine that you are having a discussion with one of your friends and they disclose that their ex-partner is threatening to send sexually explicit images of your friend to your friends' parents.



[10 mins]

If we focus on scenarios 2 and 3, the variables presented in the boxes are things that I would like you to think about in relation to these scenarios. You've already covered X, Y, and Z in your discussions [click to fade], but what about these other factors? Firstly, let's consider ... [pick a question related to one of the remaining variables below] [If it is clear that any of the variables are not relevant, then move on].

[Not all of the following may be asked. This will depend on what has been discussed previously]

16. Let's consider where the images have been distributed or are being threatened to be distributed. Specifically, consider the distribution or threat to be public distribution (such as a website or on social media) vs. private distribution to individual(s), would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?

17. Let's consider the gender of the individuals involved. Specifically, consider if your friend was female and their ex-partner was male vs. if your friend was male and their ex-partner was female, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Consider if both the individuals involved were of the same gender, would this affect how you would react?
18. Let's consider the context in which the images were taken. Specifically, consider that the images were originally taken with your friend's consent vs. the images were not taken with your friend's consent, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
19. Let's consider a different way that the images were created. Specifically, consider that the images are deep fakes (your friend's head has been photoshopped onto someone else's body) vs. the pictures are not photoshopped, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
20. Let's consider the details of the images. Specifically, consider that these images do not display any genitals vs. there are genitals on display, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
21. Again, let's consider the details of the images. Specifically, consider that these images do not display your friend's face vs. the images display your friend's face, would this affect how you would react?
 - a. Why?
22. Let's consider your relationship with the individuals involved. Specifically, consider that both individuals involved are only acquaintances of yours vs. both individuals are friends of yours, would this affect how you would react?

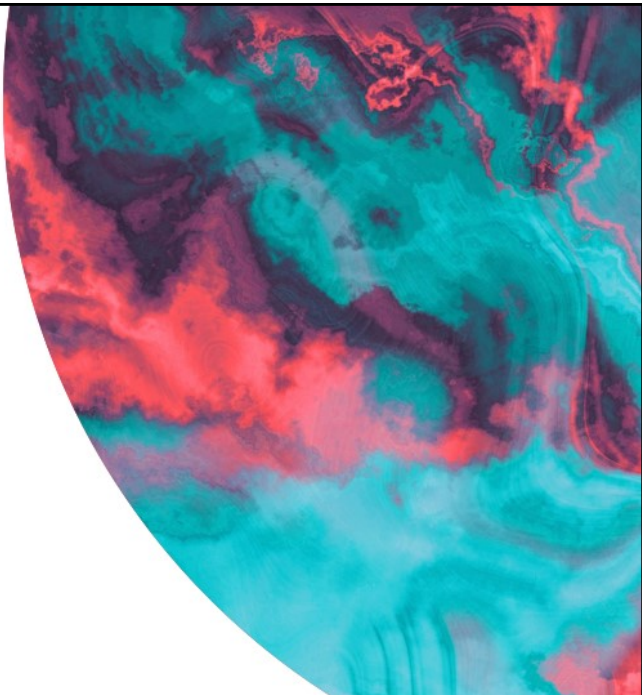
a. Why?

23. Let's consider the relationship between the individuals involved. Specifically, consider that the individuals involved have never been in a romantic relationship vs. have been in a romantic relationship, would this affect how you would react?

a. Why?

Debrief

- Thank you all for participating in the focus group.
- The aim of this study is to determine how individuals would behave when presented with a variety of different scenarios that are all examples of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA), and the reasons why they would behave in this way.
- It is hoped that this information will eventually lead to the development of educational materials that help people understand if, when and how to intervene in similar situations.



[5 mins]

Debrief

- Thank you all for participating in the focus group.
- The aim of this study is to determine how individuals would behave when presented with a variety of different scenarios that are all examples of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA), and the reasons why they would behave in this way. The study also aims to determine what inhibits or facilitates positive bystander intervention in these contexts.
- It is hoped that this information will eventually lead to the development of educational materials to encourage bystanders to intervene.

- Inhibitors and facilitators have previously been considered in physical sexual violence contexts and bystander intervention programmes have been developed to prevent physical sexual violence, but little is known about these factors and bystander intervention where sexual violence has been enacted in IBSA contexts. There is reason to believe that those factors which are important in physical sexual violence contexts are relevant in image-based sexual abuse contexts, but possibly with varying importance.
- The qualitative data obtained from the focus group will be analysed using thematic analysis to highlight patterns in how individuals would behave, the reasons why they would behave in this way, and what inhibitors and facilitators were considered during the discussion.
- As I indicated at the outset, the data collected is confidential, and your identity will remain strictly anonymous in any final reports.
- In the unlikely event that taking part in this study has caused any personal or emotional distress, there are a number of websites and organisations that can provide support:
 - Revenge Porn Helpline: 0345 6000 459 or <https://revengepornhelpline.org.uk/>
 - Victims of Internet Crime: info@voic.org.uk or <https://voic.org.uk/>
 - Goldsmiths well-being service:
<https://www.gold.ac.uk/students/wellbeing/wellbeing-service/>.

[Hand out paper copies of debrief information and collect demographic information].

Appendix F

Preregistration for Focus Group Study

This template is modified from Haven, Tamarinde L. & Van Grootel, Leonie. (2019).

Preregistering qualitative research. 10.1080/08989621.2019.1580147.

Study Information

1. Title

Behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of sexual images of others: A focus group study

2. Authorship

Chelsea J Mainwaring, Adrian J Scott, Fiona Gabbert

3. Research Aim

This study aims to explore how individuals would behave in response to a variety of scenarios that are all examples of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) (i.e., the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and threatening to share sexual images), as well as the reasons why they would behave in this way. The study also aims to explore what inhibits or facilitates positive bystander intervention in these contexts.

4. Research Questions

4.1. Research questions (subject to modification at *n* moments).

- How do individuals think they would behave in response to a variety of different IBSA scenarios?
- What inhibits or facilitates individuals to enact positive bystander intervention in these IBSA scenarios?

5. Use of Theory

- 5.1. Please specify the role of theory in your research design. Are you planning to work primarily inductive (theory use mainly for purpose relevance of the research), inductive with deductive aspects (theory development using open theoretical concepts) or primarily deductive (mainly refining existing theory)?

Primarily inductive approach given the exploratory nature of the research.

- 5.2. Based on your research question, what are your (theoretical) expectations or working hypotheses?

Research is exploratory and will be used to inform later quantitative research.

- 5.3. Please elaborate if your research is conducted from a certain theoretical paradigm (for example, social constructionism, positivism, postpositivism, critical theory, etc.). How will this paradigm influence your research?

Positivist qualitative research: assumes the existence of an external reality that can be understood and summarised and focuses upon generating knowledge that reflects what is happening in the real world, through non-statistical means (Su, 2018; Willig, 2013).

Design Plan

6. Tradition

- 6.1. Please specify the type of tradition you work in:
- 6.1.1. Grounded theory
 - 6.1.2. Phenomenology
 - 6.1.3. Narrative approach
 - 6.1.4. Ethnography
 - 6.1.5. Case study
 - 6.1.6. Text-based approach (discourse analysis, conversation analysis)
 - 6.1.7. Generic

6.1.8. Other, being:

Generic; the research focuses upon the actual content of the participants reports and what they think about the issues presented (Percy et al., 2015).

7. Study Type

7.1. Specify your study type (select multiple if appropriate)

Other

8. Study Design (describe)

8.1. Explain your study design freely (max. 500 words).

Focus groups, comprising 4-8 university students per focus group, will be used to explore hypothetical IBSA scenarios in regard to bystander behaviour. The following demographic information will be obtained: gender, age, sexual orientation, race/ethnicity, and previous participation in a bystander intervention programme. A PowerPoint presentation will be displayed for the participants. At the beginning of the focus group, the facilitator will explain the aims of the group discussion, what is expected of the participants, and the ground rules that all participants are expected to adhere to (openness and honesty, confidentiality, respect for other views, no interruptions). Participants will then be asked to consider three scenarios (one scenario for each of the following: the non-consensual taking of sexual images, the non-consensual sharing of sexual images, and the threatening to share sexual images) and discuss how they would behave in these situations and why. These scenarios will be projected and paper copies will also be given to the participants. They will then be asked a series of follow up/probing questions to get the participants to consider slight variations to the scenarios and whether these variations might change how they would behave and why. Presentation of the scenarios will be counterbalanced across the focus groups. Focus group discussions will be audio recorded and transcribed.

Sampling Plan

9. Existing Data/Non-existing Data (choose one)

Non-existing data

10. Explanation of Existing Data (optional)

N/A

11. Data Collection Procedures

- 11.1. Please indicate the data collection procedure(s) you will use (select multiple if appropriate):

Focus groups

12. Type of Data Collected

Text (spoken/written)

13. Sample Size

Focus groups will comprise 4-8 people, and a maximum of 10 focus groups will be completed or until saturation occurs. Therefore, the maximum number of participants would be 80, but is more likely to be in the range of 40-60 participants.

14. Type of Sampling Rationale

- 14.1. Please indicate the type of sampling you will rely on:

14.1.1. Maximum variation

14.1.2. Purposive

14.1.3. Theoretical

14.1.4. Convenience

14.1.5. Snowball

14.1.6. Random

14.1.7. Mixed (please describe)

14.1.8. Other (please describe)

Convenience and snowball techniques will be used.

14.2. Please describe why you choose this particular type of sampling.

This research is targeting students and these approaches are best when working in an academic setting.

15. Sort of Sample

15.1. Please pick the ideal composition of your sample:

- 15.1.1. Heterogeneous
- 15.1.2. Homogeneous
- 15.1.3. Extreme or deviant cases
- 15.1.4. Typical cases
- 15.1.5. Other (please describe)

Typical cases - students at a University within the UK.

16. Stopping Rule

16.1. Please indicate what will determine stopping data collection:

Data collection will cease when 10 focus groups have been completed or when saturation occurs (whichever comes first).

17. Data Collection Plan

17.1. Please describe your data collection plan freely. Be as explicit as possible.

- 17.1.1. For example, if you plan to use elicitation techniques in your interviews or you will make your focus group participants rank certain categories, describe this here.

Participants will be asked to consider three scenarios (one scenario for each of the following: the non-consensual taking of sexual images, the non-consensual sharing of sexual images, and the threatening to share sexual images) and discuss how they would behave in these situations and why. These scenarios will be projected and paper copies will also be given to

the participants. They will then be asked a series of follow up/probing questions to get the participants to consider slight variations to the scenarios and whether these variations might change how they would behave and why.

Script

18. Data Collection instruments

Please upload your topic guide, observation guide, field notes, etc. (subject to modifications at *n* moments).

- 18.1.1. Typical changes in exact script may occur at start of the study, after first instance(s) of data collection, etc.

See PowerPoint (ver 6) uploaded which shows what will be displayed to the participants.

Included in the 'notes' section is the semi-structured focus group schedule used by the focus group facilitator.

Analysis Plan

19. Data Analyses

- 19.1. Please specify what type of analysis you are planning on conducting:

Thematic analysis

- 19.2. Please describe how you will go about analysing your data, e.g.:

- 19.2.1. What will the actual procedure look like? Who is involved in the data analyses?

- 19.2.2. What level of interpretation do you wish to attain?

The six steps outlined in Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012) for conducting a thematic analysis will be followed.

Other

20. Other (Optional)

- 20.1. If there is any additional information that you feel needs to be included in your preregistration, please enter it here. Literature cited, disclosures of any related work such as replications or work that uses the same data, or other context that will be helpful for future readers would be appropriate here.

References

- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77–101.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology: Vol. 2 Research Designs* (Vol. 2, pp. 57–71). American Psychological Association.
- Percy, W. H., Kostere, K., & Kostere, S. (2015). Generic qualitative research in psychology. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(2), 76–85.
- Su, N. (2018). Positivist qualitative methods. In *The SAGE handbook of qualitative business and management research methods: History and traditions* (pp. 17–31). SAGE Publications Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526430212>
- Willig, C. (2013). *Introducing qualitative research in psychology* (3rd ed.). Open University Press.

Appendix G

Ethics Documentation for Experimental Studies

Research Participant Information

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF NUDE OR SEXUAL IMAGES OF OTHERS

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this information.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study contributes to Chelsea Mainwaring's (the principal researcher's) PhD programme of studies at Goldsmiths, University of London. This student project is being supervised by Dr Adrian Scott and Professor Fiona Gabbert. The objective of this research is to understand attitudes and the behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (photos or videos). You must be currently residing within the UK and be between the ages of 18 and 39 years to participate. Data collection is expected to be completed by the end of April 2022.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are part of the general population, which is the population of interest, and you are between the ages of 18 and 39 years and currently residing within the UK.

Do I have to take part?

As participation is entirely voluntary, it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be asked to confirm that you consent to this. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. If you complete the survey and then wish to withdraw your data at a later stage, please contact the principal researcher to ask to withdraw your data and include your Prolific ID. It will only be possible to withdraw your data up until data analysis commences. If you decide to withdraw from the study, this will in no way influence or adversely affect you.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Participation will involve taking part in an online survey concerning your attitudes and behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (photos or videos). You will be presented with a scenario and asked about your attitudes and behavioural responses towards this scenario. You will also be asked about your own experiences of these behaviours. It should take about 15 minutes to complete.

Data will be held securely and in confidence.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are minimal risks associated with participating in this study. However, it is possible

that the research topic and associated survey questions elicit unpleasant memories of any personal experiences. Therefore, please consider whether you are comfortable in taking part given the focus of this study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

You will be provided with relevant websites to access further information about this topic.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event that you wish to make a complaint about your experience as a participant in this study, please contact my principal supervisor, Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk) or the Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. In the final report your individual identity will remain strictly anonymous. Please see GDPR guidelines provided, on the next page, in regard to the handling of personal data.

What will happen to the results of this study?

The data obtained from the survey will be analysed using a variety of different statistical and analytical techniques to provide an understanding of attitudes and behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images. It is hoped that this study, and data from this study, will be published in peer-reviewed journals, presented at conferences, and will form part of the principal researcher's PhD thesis.

Who has reviewed this study?

This study has been reviewed by the Psychology Ethics Committee.

Research integrity

Goldsmiths, University of London, is committed to compliance with the Universities UK Research Integrity Concordat. You are entitled to expect the highest level of integrity from our researchers during the course of their research.

Contact for further information

If you have any questions, please ask the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (c.mainwaring@gold.ac.uk).

General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and Goldsmiths Research: Guidelines for participants

Please note that the following information does not constitute, and should not be construed as, legal advice. These guidelines are designed to help participants understand their rights under GDPR which came into force on 25 May 2018.

Your rights as a participant (data subject) in this study

The updated data protection regulation is a series of conditions designed to protect an individual's personal data. Not all data collected for research is personal data.

Personal data is data such that a living individual can be identified; collection of personal data is sometimes essential in conducting research and GDPR sets out that data subjects should be treated in a lawful and fair manner and that information about the data processing should be explained clearly and transparently. Some data we might ask to collect falls under the heading of special categories data. This type of information includes data about an individual's race; ethnic origin; politics; religion; trade union membership; genetics; biometrics (where used for ID purposes); health; sex life; or sexual orientation. This data requires particular care.

Under GDPR you have the following rights over your personal data[1]:

- **The right to be informed.** You must be informed if your personal data is being used.
- **The right of access.** You can ask for a copy of your data by making a 'subject access request'.
- **The right to rectification.** You can ask for your data held to be corrected.
- **The right to erasure.** You can ask for your data to be deleted.
- **The right to restrict processing.** You can limit the way an organisation uses your personal data if you are concerned about the accuracy of the data or how it is being used.
- **The right to data portability.** You have the right to get your personal data from an organisation in a way that is accessible and machine-readable. You also have the right to ask an organisation to transfer your data to another organisation.
- **The right to object.** You have the right to object to the use of your personal data in some circumstances. You have an absolute right to object to an organisation using your data for direct marketing.

- **How your data is processed using automated decision making and profiling.** You have the right not to be subject to a decision that is based solely on automated processing if the decision affects your legal rights or other equally important matters; to understand the reasons behind decisions made about you by automated processing and the possible consequences of the decisions, and to object to profiling in certain situations, including for direct marketing purposes.

Please note that these rights are not absolute and only apply in certain circumstances. You should also be informed how long your data will be retained and who it might be shared with.

How does Goldsmiths treat my contribution to this study?

Your participation in this research is very valuable and any personal data you provide will be treated in confidence using the best technical means available to us. The university's legal basis for processing your data[2] as part of our research findings is a "task carried out in the public interest". This means that our research is designed to improve the health, happiness and well-being of society and to help us better understand the world we live in. It is not going to be used for marketing or commercial purposes.

In addition to our legal basis under Article 6 (as described above), for **special categories data** as defined under Article 9 of GDPR, our condition for processing is that it is "necessary for archiving purposes in the public interest, scientific or historical research purposes or statistical purposes".[3]

If your data contributes to data from a group then your ability to remove data may be limited as the project progresses, when removal of your data may cause damage to the dataset.

You should also know that you may contact any of the following people if you are unhappy about the way your data or your participation in this study are being treated:

- Goldsmiths Data Protection Officer – dp@gold.ac.uk (concerning your rights to control personal data).
- Chair, Goldsmiths Research Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee - via reisc@gold.ac.uk, REISC Secretary (for any other element of the study).
- You also have the right to lodge a complaint with the Information Commissioner’s Office at <https://ico.org.uk/make-a-complaint/>

[1] <https://ico.org.uk/your-data-matters/>

[2] GDPR Article 6; the six lawful bases for processing data are explained here:

<https://ico.org.uk/for-organisations/guide-to-the-general-data-protection-regulation-gdpr/lawful-basis-for-processing/>

[3] Article 9 of the GDPR requires this type of data to be treated with great care because of the more significant risks to a person’s fundamental rights and freedoms that mishandling might cause, e.g., by putting them at risk of unlawful discrimination.

Please tick the appropriate box

	Yes	No
Have you read the Research Participant Information?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are you 18 years of age or older?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you understand that participation is anonymous so no identifying information will be included in any publications or presentations?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study at any time?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you agree to take part in this study?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Debrief information

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF NUDE OR SEXUAL IMAGES

Thank you for completing this study. Once you have read the following information, please click on the arrow at the bottom of the page to confirm your completion of the study.

The study you have just participated in aims to determine what situational factors are important in facilitating or inhibiting bystanders (those who witness criminal behaviour or social rule

violations) to intervene when faced with an incident of image-based sexual abuse (IBSA). IBSA encompasses the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and threats to share nude or sexual images (photos or videos). To achieve this aim, you were presented with a scenario which described one of these behaviours and a particular situational factor was manipulated. You were then asked about how you think you would respond to this behaviour.

Facilitating and inhibiting factors have previously been considered in physical sexual violence contexts and bystander intervention programmes have been developed to prevent physical sexual violence, but little is known about these factors and bystander intervention where sexual violence has been enacted in IBSA contexts. There is reason to believe that those factors which are important in physical sexual violence contexts may also be relevant in IBSA contexts. There are also likely to be some unique inhibitors and facilitators in these contexts. It is hoped that the information obtained from this will eventually help the development of educational materials aimed at encouraging bystanders to intervene in these contexts.

The quantitative and qualitative data obtained from this survey will be analysed using a range of analytical and statistical techniques to determine whether there are any effects of situational factors upon willingness to intervene as a bystander.

As I indicated at the outset, the data collected is confidential, and your identity will remain strictly anonymous in any final reports.

In the unlikely event that taking part in this study has caused any personal or emotional distress, there are a number of websites and organisations that can provide support:

- Revenge Porn Helpline: 0345 6000 459 or <https://revengepornhelpline.org.uk/>
- Victims of Internet Crime: info@voic.org.uk or <https://voic.org.uk/>

If you would like any further information about this topic or this study, please contact the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (c.mainwaring@gold.ac.uk) or Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk). The Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas, can also be contacted (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

May I sincerely thank you for taking part in this study.

Chelsea Mainwaring

Appendix H

Demographic Questionnaire for Experimental and Survey Studies

What is your age (in years)?

[drop-down list of options]

In what country do you currently reside?

[drop-down list of options]

What gender do you identify with?

- Male
- Female
- Prefer to self-describe (please specify)
- Prefer not to say

What is your sexuality?

- Heterosexual
- Homosexual
- Bisexual
- Prefer to self-describe (please specify)
- Prefer not to say

What is your ethnicity?

- White
- Black/African/Caribbean/Black British
- Asian/Asian British

- Mixed/multiple ethnic groups
- Other, please specify
- Prefer not to say

Which best describes your current professional or employment status?

- Employed full-time
- Employed part-time
- Seeking opportunities
- Student
- Retired
- Other, please specify
- Prefer not to say

What is your current highest level of qualification obtained?

- GCSE; O-levels; other level 2 qualification
- A level; level 3 certificate; other level 3 qualification
- Higher national diploma; foundation degree; other level 5 qualification
- Bachelor's degree; degree apprenticeship; other level 6 qualification
- Master's degree; postgraduate diploma; other level 7 qualification
- Doctorate degree; level 8 diploma; other level 8 qualification
- Other, please specify
- Prefer not to say

Have you ever participated in a bystander intervention training programme before?

- Yes

- No
- Unsure

Appendix I

Vignettes for Experiment 1, 2, and 3

Experiment 1: Non-Consensual Taking

1. We would like you to imagine that you are **travelling alone on a train**. There are only two other individuals in the carriage with you. You do not know either of these individuals and they do not appear to know each other. You observe what appears to be one of these individuals using their phone to take a sexual photo of the other person who is standing in the aisle on the train. The target of the photo does not appear to be aware of this.
2. We would like you to imagine that you are **travelling on a train with five of your friends**. There are only two other individuals in the carriage with you and your friends. You do not know either of these individuals and they do not appear to know each other. You observe what appears to be one of these individuals using their phone to take a sexual photo of the other person who is standing in the aisle on the train. The target of the photo does not appear to be aware of this.
3. We would like you to imagine that **you are travelling alone on a train. There are seven other individuals in the same carriage with you**. You do not know any of these individuals and they do not appear to know each other. You observe what appears to be one of these individuals using their phone to take a sexual photo of another person who is standing in the aisle on the train. The target of the photo does not appear to be aware of this.

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

1. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting with a friend via text. They tell you about how they **received a nude photo from their partner the other day** and proceed to forward this photo to you. They ask you not to forward the photo to

anyone else in case their partner finds out that they shared it. **You are also friends with this partner.**

2. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting with a friend via text. They tell you about how they **managed to take a nude photo of their partner the other day without them knowing** and proceed to forward this photo to you. They ask you not to forward the photo to anyone else in case their partner finds out that they shared it. **You are also friends with this partner.**
3. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting with a friend via text. They tell you about how they **received a nude photo from their partner the other day** and proceed to forward this photo to you. They ask you not to forward the photo to anyone else in case their partner finds out that they shared it. **You do not know your friend's partner personally.**
4. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting with a friend via text. They tell you about how they **managed to take a nude photo of their partner the other day without them knowing** and proceed to forward this photo to you. They ask you not to forward the photo to anyone else in case their partner finds out that they shared it. **You do not know your friend's partner personally.**

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

1. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting to a friend over the phone. Your friend discloses to you that **they had sent their partner a nude photo of themselves** and that their partner is now threatening to upload this photo of your friend on social media. **You are also friends with this partner.**
2. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting to a friend over the phone. Your friend discloses to you that **their partner took a nude photo of them without them**

knowing and that their partner is now threatening to upload this photo of your friend on social media. **You are also friends with this partner.**

3. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting to a friend over the phone. Your friend discloses to you that **they had sent their partner a nude photo of themselves** and that their partner is now threatening to upload this photo of your friend on social media. **You do not know your friend's partner personally.**
4. We would like you to imagine that you are chatting to a friend over the phone. Your friend discloses to you that **their partner took a nude photo of them without them knowing** and that their partner is now threatening to upload this photo of your friend on social media. **You do not know your friend's partner personally.**

Appendix J

Measures and Items Used in Experiment 1, 2, and 3

Experiment 1: Non-Consensual Taking

Likelihood of Bystander Intervention

1. Tell the person taking the photo to stop what they are doing
2. Tell the person taking the photo that what they are doing is wrong
3. Knock the phone out of the person's hand
4. Indicate to the person taking the photo, non-verbally, to stop what they are doing
5. Block the view of the person taking the photo
6. Offer your seat to the target of the photo
7. Tell the target of the photo what is happening
8. Advise the target of the photo to inform the police of the situation
9. Offer emotional support to the target of the photo
10. Obtain evidence of the person taking the photo
11. Inform the police
12. Not say or do anything and remain where you are
13. Not say or do anything and leave the train carriage
14. Ask the person taking the photo why they are taking the photo
15. Speak to the target of the photo and offer them advice on how to deal with the situation
16. Advise the target of the photo that they should be more careful in future to avoid this happening again

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something in this situation

2. I would feel responsible to say something to the person taking the photo to condemn the behaviour
3. I would not feel responsible to tell the target of the photo that this was happening
4. I would feel responsible to help the target of the photo in some way
5. I would feel guilty if I did not address the behaviour in some way
6. I would think it is up to the target of the photo to deal with the situation
7. I would feel guilty if I did not help the target of the photo
8. I would think it is not up to me to address the behaviour

Victim Empathy

1. I would feel sorry for the target of the photo
2. I would feel sympathy for the target of the photo

Victim Blame

1. I would think that the target of the photo is at least partly to blame for the situation
2. I would think that the target of the photo has at least some control over the situation
3. I would think that the target of the photo could have prevented the situation

Perpetrator Motivations

1. I would think the person taking the photo is unaware of the potential impact their behaviour may have on the target of the photo
2. I would think the person taking the photo is trying to be funny
3. I would think the person taking the photo is trying to embarrass the target of the photo
4. I would think the person taking the photo is trying to humiliate the target of the photo
5. I would think the person taking the photo is trying to control the target of the photo

Feelings of Safety

1. I would be concerned for my own safety if I said or did something

Audience Inhibition

1. I would be concerned that I would look stupid if I said or did something
2. I would not care about possibly making a fool out of myself if I said or did something
3. I would be concerned that others would not support me if I said or did something

Victim/Perpetrator Responsibility

1. Responsibility of person taking the photo _____
2. Responsibility of person who is the target of the photo _____

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing***Likelihood of Bystander Intervention***

1. Tell your friend to stop sending nude photos of their partner
2. Tell your friend that it is wrong to send nude photos of their partner
3. Contact your friend's partner and tell them you have been sent this photo
4. Contact your friend's partner and advise them to inform the police of the situation
5. Offer emotional support to your friend's partner
6. Keep the photo as evidence that your friend has shared this photo with you
7. Inform the police
8. Not say or do anything and continue with the conversation
9. Not say or do anything and stop texting your friend who sent the photo
10. Forward the photo on to another friend of yours
11. Comment on the photo, e.g., how their partner looks
12. Ask your friend who sent the photo if they have any other photos they can share
13. Ask your friend why they sent you the photo
14. Contact your friend's partner and offer them advice on how to deal with the situation
15. Delete the photo and/or message from your phone

16. Advise your friend's partner that they should be more careful in future to avoid this happening again

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something in this situation
2. I would feel responsible to say something to my friend who sent me the photo to condemn the behaviour
3. I would not feel responsible to tell my friend's partner that the photo had been sent to me
4. I would feel responsible to help my friend's partner in some way
5. I would feel guilty if I did not address the behaviour in some way
6. I would think it is up to my friend's partner to deal with the situation
7. I would feel guilty if I did not help my friend's partner
8. I would think it is not up to me to address the behaviour

Victim Empathy

1. I would feel sorry for my friend's partner
2. I would feel sympathy for my friend's partner

Victim Blame

1. I would think that my friend's partner is at least partly to blame for the situation
2. I would think that my friend's partner has at least some control over the situation
3. I would think that my friend's partner could have prevented the situation

Perpetrator Motivations

1. I would think my friend is unaware of the potential impact their behaviour may have on their partner
2. I would think my friend is trying to be funny by sending me this photo
3. I would think my friend is trying to embarrass their partner

4. I would think my friend is trying to humiliate their partner
5. I would think my friend is trying to control their partner
6. I would think my friend is trying to get back at their partner for something they did

Victim/Perpetrator Responsibility

1. Responsibility of your friend who sent the photo _____
2. Responsibility of your friend's partner who is in the photo _____

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

Likelihood of Bystander Intervention

1. Tell your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo to stop making these threats
2. Tell your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo that it is wrong to make these threats
3. Advise your friend who is being threatened to inform the police of the situation
4. Offer emotional support to your friend who is being threatened
5. Advise your friend who is being threatened to obtain evidence of these threats
6. Inform the police
7. Not say or do anything and continue with the conversation
8. Not say or do anything and stop talking with your friend on the phone
9. Ask your friend who is being threatened about the photo, e.g., how they look
10. Ask your friend's partner who is threatening to upload the photo why they are threatening this
11. Tell your friend who is being threatened not to worry about it
12. Offer your friend who is being threatened advice on how to deal with the situation
13. Advise your friend who is being threatened that they should be more careful in future to avoid this happening again

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something in this situation
2. I would feel responsible to say something to the person who is threatening to upload the photo to condemn the behaviour
3. I would feel responsible to help my friend who is being threatened in some way
4. I would feel guilty if I did not address the behaviour in some way
5. I would think it is up to my friend who is being threatened to deal with the situation
6. I would feel guilty if I did not help my friend who is being threatened
7. I would think it is not up to me to address the behaviour

Victim Empathy

1. I would feel sorry for my friend who is being threatened
2. I would feel sympathy for my friend who is being threatened

Victim Blame

1. I would think that my friend who is being threatened is at least partly to blame for the situation
2. I would think that my friend who is being threatened has at least some control over the situation
3. I would think that my friend who is being threatened could have prevented the situation

Perpetrator Motivations

1. I would think my friend's partner is unaware of the potential impact their behaviour may have on my friend
2. I would think my friend's partner is trying to be funny in making these threats
3. I would think my friend's partner is trying to embarrass my friend
4. I would think my friend's partner is trying to humiliate my friend

5. I would think my friend's partner is trying to control my friend
6. I would think my friend's partner is trying to get back at my friend for something they did

Victim/Perpetrator Responsibility

1. Responsibility of your friend's partner who is threatening ____
2. Responsibility of your friend who is being threatened ____

Appendix K

Experiment and Survey Pilot Feedback and Changes

Pilot 1

Pilot participants were asked the following questions:

1. Did you find it easy to work through the survey? (i.e., did each page guide you logically through the different components?)
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
2. Was the study engaging?
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
3. Were the instructions clear throughout the study?
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
4. Was the scenario provided engaging?
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
5. Was the scenario easy to understand?
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
6. Did you find any items or questions difficult to understand?
 - a. If yes or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
7. Did you find any items or questions to be ambiguous (open to more than one interpretation)
 - a. If yes or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
8. When asked to write about your own real-life experiences, did you feel that this section was engaging?
 - a. If no or somewhat, they were asked to elaborate.
9. Did you feel that the study was too long?

10. Finally, they were asked to rate which scale layout they preferred (1 = scale repeated for each item within the matrix, 2 = scale appeared only at the top of the matrix, 3 = scale appeared at the top and in the middle of the matrix).

See Table K1 for feedback from the pilot participants.

Table K1

Feedback from Pilot Participants

Q#	Yes <i>n</i> (%)	No <i>n</i> (%)	Somewhat <i>n</i> (%)	Researcher notes/Elaboration from participants
1	15 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	All participants found it easy to work through the survey.
2	12 (80)	0 (0)	3 (20)	All participants felt the study was or was somewhat engaging. Further comments from participants who selected 'somewhat': <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Felt some questions were repeated 2. Felt like it took a long time to answer all the questions 3. Felt nervous talking about own personal situations as they have experienced such things previously.
3	12 (80)	0 (0)	3 (20)	All participants felt the instructions were or were somewhat clear. Further comments from participants who selected 'somewhat': <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Some instructions were wordy
4	15 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	All participants felt that the scenarios provided were engaging.
5	13 (87)	0 (0)	2 (13)	Nearly all participants felt the scenarios were easy to understand. Those who said 'somewhat' or 'no' commented: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of clarity as to whether it was a photo of their friend or of their partner (scenario specific) 2. Not clear if photo depicted friend and partner or just the friend (scenario specific).
6	4 (27)	8 (53)	3 (20)	Majority felt that there were no items or questions that were difficult to understand. Those who said 'yes' or 'somewhat' commented: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. When assigning responsibility to victim and perpetrator, not clear if question asks about responsibility in regard to addressing the

				behaviour or in regard to the behaviour happening in the first place
				2. Questions which included the word 'not'.
				3. Some items which were similar made it difficult to differentiate between them.
7	4 (27)	6 (40)	5 (33)	The majority of participants felt that there were some items that were ambiguous. Although, many of the comments seemed to relate to things other than ambiguity. Comments included: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Felt that there was more to the answer than just a yes or no 2. Some questions seemed to be repeated 3. Actions dependent on the situation and what the victim would want to do.
8	9 (90)	1 (10)	0 (0)	Nearly all participants felt that the opportunity to talk about their own experiences was engaging. Answer of 'no' due to having to think about personal experiences which was challenging for them.
9	1 (7)	10 (67)	4 (27)	The majority of the participants did not feel that the study was too long. Some felt it was 'somewhat' too long.
10				'Repeat headers' layout function was most popular

Changes Made Following Pilot 1

Note: Some changes were made to try and reduce ambiguity and increase clarity, despite not necessarily being raised by any participants specifically.

Changes to the Experiment

1. No changes necessary for scenarios within Experiment 1: Non-consensual taking.
2. For Experiment 2: Non-consensual sharing, the length of middle sentence was reduced and scenario overall for greater clarity and ease of reading. Relationship with victim IV manipulated in final sentence instead of midsentence.
3. For Experiment 3: Making threats to share, changed 'themselves' to 'themselves' so that there is no confusion over whether the photo depicts the friend and the partner or just

the friend. Relationship with perpetrator IV manipulated in final sentence instead of midsentence.

4. To ensure DV and mediator variable items were clear, and that it was clear whom the items were referring to, additional bits of information were added. This was particularly relevant for the scenario in which the bystander is friends with both the victim and perpetrator and confusion may have arisen when items referred to 'your friend'. For example, item 'not say or do anything and stop texting your friend' was changed to 'not say or do anything and stop texting your friend who sent the photo' to increase clarity in regard to whether the item referred to action towards the victim or perpetrator.
5. Distinction between 'friend' and 'friend's partner' was also used to ensure consistency and to help the participant to determine whom the item referred to.
6. Some items which had the word 'not' were revised and this word was removed. This was only in cases where the research team felt that the item could have created confusion or where a pilot participant was specific about the confusion of that particular item.
7. Responsibility assigned to victim and perpetrator section was modified given feedback on lack of clarity in regard to responsibility for the behaviour or responsibility to sort it out. It was also revised to be less 'wordy'.

Changes to the Survey

1. For the contextual variables section, the data was showing a slight ceiling effect in regard to the social norms towards perpetration – many felt that friends were 'extremely unlikely' to engage in any of the behaviours. Although this might be a true reflection of their friends willingness to engage in these behaviours, it was important to revise the items to be more inclusive of the 'less' serious perpetrations of these

behaviours. The 'sharing' and 'uploading online' items were combined into one and an additional item was added which referred to 'showing a friend', as this behaviour is perhaps considered less serious because the actual image remains in the possession of the recipient. These changes were also reflected in the 'frequency of behaviours' section to keep things consistent.

2. For the trust and confidence in procedures of reporting section, one participant provided feedback that they found this section difficult because they did not have much knowledge in regard to how the police deal with these things. The text at the beginning of this section was revised so that the participants know that they are being asked for their own personal views in regard to this, rather than an objective assessment of how the police would respond – i.e., it needed to be clear that it is not a test of their knowledge of police processes but rather their own beliefs of trust and confidence in the police.

Changes for Experiment and Survey

1. Questions were not labelled in sequential order which made the SPSS data set very difficult to understand. Therefore, item and question numbering was recoded.
2. As scale layout 3 (scale at the top and in the middle of the matrix) was the most popular layout, this was changed for all matrices which had more than 6 items in the matrix. A cut off point of 6 items was used because when this 'repeat headers' function is enabled, the maximum no. of items Qualtrics will divide the matrix into before repeating the header is 6. Also, this number of items can fit comfortably on one page in an internet browser so the scale is still visible.
3. As some participants felt that the experiment and survey was somewhat too long, text was added to guide the participant through their progress (e.g., 'there are four sections

in this survey’, ‘welcome to section 3’, ‘thank you for making it to the final section of the survey’), to help guide their expectations of the length.

Reflections Regarding Ceiling/Floor Effects:

1. Participants appeared to use whole scale ranges for all variables available (except for those highlighted above) and there was clear variation across participants.

Reflections Regarding Reverse-Scored Items:

1. Overall, responses were as expected across all elements of the experiment and survey (i.e., reversed item responses were generally on the opposite end of the scale to non-reversed items).
2. One item was changed because the reverse scored nature was confusing (as outlined previously).

Pilot 2

Following the revisions made after Pilot 1, the experiment and survey went live with friends, family, and first year psychology students. Forty-two participants took part in the second pilot.

Collating informal feedback from this pilot and that from Pilot 1, there were concerns regarding repetition across the experiment and survey (e.g., some of the comments above mentioned a sense of repetition and a participant mentioned that they felt like they were answering the same questions again). There were also concerns regarding the length of the study and participant fatigue, with some taking nearly an hour. It was decided that the experiment and survey would be split into two separate studies with different samples. There were two main advantages to this: 1) greater participant attention and reduced fatigue due to shorter attention span required; and 2) the collection of data from two separate samples resulting in a larger overall sample size and greater sample variation.

Appendix L

Preregistration for Experiment 1, 2, and 3

1. Data collection – have any data been collected for this study already?

No, no data have been collected for this study yet

2. Hypothesis - what is the main question being asked or hypotheses being tested in this study?

Overall research question: What situational variables facilitate and/or inhibit bystander intervention in image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) contexts?

More specifically:

- In the context of being a bystander to the non-consensual taking of a nude/sexual image, are there differences in bystander intervention depending on whether there are other bystanders present?
- In the context of being a bystander to the non-consensual distribution of a nude/sexual image, are there differences in bystander intervention depending on whether the images were originally taken with consent?
- In the context of being a bystander to the non-consensual distribution of a nude/sexual image, are there differences in bystander intervention depending on the relationship between the bystander and the victim?
- In the context of being a bystander to the threats to distribute a nude/sexual image, are there differences in bystander intervention depending on whether the images were originally taken with consent?

- In the context of being a bystander to the threats to distribute a nude/sexual image, are there differences in bystander intervention depending on the relationship between the bystander and the perpetrator?

3. Dependent variable – describe the key dependent variable(s) specifying how they will be measured

The dependent variable is ‘bystander intervention’ which is operationalised as the participant’s rated willingness to intervene in a variety of different ways (for example, ‘inform the police’). Participants will be asked to rate their likelihood of intervention on a 7-point scale (extremely unlikely – extremely likely). Items will be factor analysed to create groups of intervention types, which will form the basis of the dependent variables used within the analyses.

4. Conditions – how many and which conditions will participants be assigned to?

This is a between-subjects design and participants will be assigned to one of the following 11 conditions. Taken scenario with one independent variable which has three levels – variable label: no other bystanders, other bystanders who are strangers, other bystanders who are friends. Distributed scenario with two independent variables, both of which have two levels – variable 1 label: consent to take image, no consent to take image, and variable 2 label: friends with the victim, not friends with the victim. Threatened scenario with two independent variables, both of which have two levels – variable 1 label: consent to take image, no consent to take image, and variable 2 label: friends with the perpetrator, not friends with the perpetrator.

5. Analyses – specify exactly which analyses you will conduct to examine the main questions

The data collected within the non-consensual taking of a nude/sexual image conditions will be analysed using a one-way MANOVA. If the multivariate test is significant, then each of the dependent variables will be looked at with appropriate tests and corrections (e.g., univariate tests with Bonferroni corrections where necessary, or similar).

The data collected within the non-consensual distribution of a nude/sexual image conditions will be analysed using a two-way MANOVA. If the multivariate test is significant, then each of the dependent variables will be looked at with appropriate tests and corrections (e.g., univariate tests with Bonferroni corrections where necessary, or similar). If interactions are observed, additional analyses will explore these.

The data collected within the threats to distribute a nude/sexual image conditions will be analysed using a two-way MANOVA. If the multivariate test is significant, then each of the dependent variables will be looked at with appropriate tests and corrections (e.g., univariate tests with Bonferroni corrections where necessary, or similar). If interactions are observed, additional analyses will explore these.

6. Outliers and exclusions – describe exactly how outliers will be defined and handled, and your precise rule(s) excluding observations

Data from those aged 40+, <18, or those residing outside of the UK will be excluded from the analyses. Data will also be excluded for participants who fail to correctly answer the attention check questions. Outliers will be identified using the guidance in Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) and any outliers identified will be investigated. Outliers will be checked to make sure

that they are not the result of inappropriate participant behaviour (e.g., selecting the same response for all items in the questionnaires) or incorrect data entries. If there are any data entry errors, these will be rectified. If any outliers appear to be the result of inappropriate participant behaviour, then the data for this participant will be removed from the analyses. Any extreme outliers which do not appear to be the result of inappropriate participant behaviour or data entry errors will be investigated to determine whether they present any undue influence on the analyses. If there is no impact upon the results, then these outliers will be retained.

7. Sample size – how many observations will be collected or what will determine sample size?

Sample will be obtained from the general population and participants must be between the age of 18 and 39 and currently residing within the UK. For the study to have suitable power, at least 376 participants will be sought, equally distributed across scenarios and conditions.

8. Other – anything else you would like to preregister (e.g., secondary analyses, variables collected for exploratory purposes, unusual analyses planned?)
 - Additional variables will be collected for the purposes of exploratory analyses, in particular, exploratory mediation analyses: feelings of safety; audience inhibition; feelings of responsibility to intervene; victim empathy; victim blame; perpetrator mitigation; responsibility assigned to the victim and perpetrator.
 - Participants will also be asked to draw upon their own real-life experiences as a bystander to any form of IBSA (if applicable). This will form an open-ended section at the end of the study. This information will be analysed using a top-down approach to support or provide further context for any statistical effects found in the

experiment. It is difficult to predict how many participants will complete this section, but if sufficient responses are obtained then the data might be examined separately.

9. Name – give a title for this AsPredicted preregistration

BYSTANDERS IN IMAGE-BASED SEXUAL ABUSE; THE ROLE OF SITUATIONAL
VARIABLES

10. For record keeping purposes, tell us the type of study you are preregistering

Experiment

Appendix M

Non-Parametric Analyses for Experiments 2 and 3

Experiment 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to examine differences on victim-focused intervention and perpetrator-focused intervention according to initial consent to take the image and relationship with the victim.

The test was significant for victim-focused intervention and initial consent ($U [N_{self-taken} = 64, N_{stealth-taken} = 61] = 2456.50, z = 2.50, p = .012$). There was a greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention when the image was stealth-taken (mean rank = 71.3) compared to when the image was self-taken (mean rank = 55.1). The test was also significant for perpetrator-focused intervention and initial consent ($U [N_{self-taken} = 64, N_{stealth-taken} = 61] = 2552.50, z = 3.02, p = .003$). There was a greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention when the image was stealth-taken (mean rank = 72.8) compared to when the image was self-taken (mean rank = 53.6).

In regard to relationship with the victim, there was a significant effect for victim-focused intervention ($U [N_{friend} = 63, N_{stranger} = 62] = 1497.50, z = -2.26, p = .024$). There was a greater likelihood of victim-focused intervention when the victim was a friend (mean rank = 70.2) compared to when they were a stranger (mean rank = 55.7).

Experiment 3: Making Threats to Share

Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to examine differences on perpetrator-focused intervention and justice-focused intervention according to relationship with the perpetrator.

In regard to relationship with the perpetrator, there was a significant effect for perpetrator-focused intervention ($U [N_{friend} = 63, N_{stranger} = 62] = 865.50, z = -5.39, p < .001$). There was a greater likelihood of perpetrator-focused intervention when the perpetrator was a friend (mean rank = 80.3) compared to when they were a stranger (mean rank = 45.5). There

was also a marginally significant effect upon justice-focused intervention ($U [N_{friend} = 63, N_{stranger} = 62] = 2341.50, z = 1.93, p = .054$). There was a greater likelihood of justice-focused intervention when the perpetrator was a stranger (mean rank = 69.3) compared to when they were a friend (mean rank = 56.8).

Appendix N

Tables of Full Regression Models that Define Parallel Multiple Mediator Models

Table N1

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Victim-Focused Intervention (Y) and Initial Consent (X) for Experiment 2

	Consequent																							
	M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)			M ₂ (victim empathy)			M ₃ (victim blame)			M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)			M ₅ (victim responsibility)			Y (victim-focused intervention)								
	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p						
Antecedent	<i>a</i> ₁	.43	.20	.036	<i>a</i> ₂	.57	.23	.015	<i>a</i> ₃	-1.46	.23	<.001	<i>a</i> ₄	.70	.22	.002	<i>a</i> ₅	-8.92	3.53	.013	<i>c</i> ^l	.44	.30	.154
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₁	.71	.13	<.001		
M ₂ (victim empathy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₂	.02	.12	.844		
M ₃ (victim blame)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₃	.08	.13	.532		
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₄	.18	.11	.085		
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₅	.00	.01	.904		
Model summary	<i>R</i> ² = .035 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 4.49, <i>p</i> = .036			<i>R</i> ² = .047 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 6.06, <i>p</i> = .015			<i>R</i> ² = .250 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 40.95, <i>p</i> < .001			<i>R</i> ² = .076 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 10.13, <i>p</i> = .002			<i>R</i> ² = .049 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 6.40, <i>p</i> = .013			<i>R</i> ² = .340 <i>F</i> (6, 118) = 10.12, <i>p</i> < .001								

Note. C = coefficient.

Table N2

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Perpetrator-Focused Intervention (Y) and Initial Consent (X) for Experiment 2

Antecedent	Consequent																								
	M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)			M ₂ (victim empathy)			M ₃ (victim blame)			M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)			M ₅ (victim responsibility)			Y (perpetrator-focused intervention)									
	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p							
X (initial consent)	<i>a</i> ₁	.43	.20	.036	<i>a</i> ₂	.57	.23	.015	<i>a</i> ₃	-1.46	.23	< .001	<i>a</i> ₄	.70	.22	.002	<i>a</i> ₅	-8.92	3.53	.013	<i>c</i> ^l	.27	.17	.123	
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₁	.57	.07	< .001			
M ₂ (victim empathy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₂	.14	.07	.039			
M ₃ (victim blame)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₃	.11	.08	.156			
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₄	.10	.06	.089			
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₅	-.00	< .01	.550			
Model summary	<i>R</i> ² = .035			<i>R</i> ² = .047			<i>R</i> ² = .250			<i>R</i> ² = .076			<i>R</i> ² = .049			<i>R</i> ² = .533									
	<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 4.49, <i>p</i> = .036			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 6.06, <i>p</i> = .015			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 40.95, <i>p</i> < .001			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 10.13, <i>p</i> = .002			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 6.40, <i>p</i> = .013			<i>F</i> (6, 118) = 22.46, <i>p</i> < .001									

Note. C = coefficient.

Table N3

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Victim-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Victim (X) for Experiment 2

Antecedent	Consequent																							
	M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)			M ₂ (victim empathy)			M ₃ (victim blame)			M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)			M ₅ (victim responsibility)			Y (victim-focused intervention)								
	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p						
X (relationship with victim)	<i>a</i> ₁	-.05	.21	.809	<i>a</i> ₂	-.35	.24	.143	<i>a</i> ₃	.35	.26	.181	<i>a</i> ₄	.23	.23	.308	<i>a</i> ₅	2.76	3.61	.446	<i>c</i> ^l	-.63	.25	.012
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₁	.73	.12	< .001	
M ₂ (victim empathy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₂	-.02	.12	.885	
M ₃ (victim blame)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₃	.01	.12	.901	
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₄	.26	.10	.012	
M ₅ (victim responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₅	.00	.01	.796	
Model summary	<i>R</i> ² = .001			<i>R</i> ² = .017			<i>R</i> ² = .015			<i>R</i> ² = .009			<i>R</i> ² = .004			<i>R</i> ² = .363								
	<i>F</i> (1, 123) = .06,			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 2.18,			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.81,			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.05,			<i>F</i> (1, 123) = .58,			<i>F</i> (6, 118) = 11.23,								
	<i>p</i> = .809			<i>p</i> = .143			<i>p</i> = .181			<i>p</i> = .308			<i>p</i> = .446			<i>p</i> < .001								

Note. C = coefficient.

Table N4

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Perpetrator-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Perpetrator (X) for Experiment 3

	Consequent																											
	M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)			M ₂ (victim empathy)			M ₃ (victim blame)			M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)			M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)			M ₆ (victim responsibility)			Y (perpetrator-focused intervention)									
	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p							
Antecedent																												
X (relationship with perpetrator)	<i>a</i> ₁	-.28	.18	.125	<i>a</i> ₂	-.20	.16	.198	<i>a</i> ₃	-.28	.25	.264	<i>a</i> ₄	-.15	.14	.293	<i>a</i> ₅	-.13	.26	.626	<i>a</i> ₆	-4.36	4.14	.295	<i>c</i> ¹	-1.69	.28	<.001
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₁	.96	.15	<.001				
M ₂ (victim empathy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₂	-.59	.18	.002				
M ₃ (victim blame)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₃	.10	.11	.370				
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₄	-.34	.18	.060				
M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₅	.09	.10	.337				
M ₆ (victim responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>b</i> ₆	.01	.01	.135				
Model summary	<i>R</i> ² = .019 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 2.39, <i>p</i> = .125			<i>R</i> ² = .014 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.68, <i>p</i> = .198			<i>R</i> ² = .010 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.26, <i>p</i> = .264			<i>R</i> ² = .009 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.12, <i>p</i> = .293			<i>R</i> ² = .002 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = .24, <i>p</i> = .626			<i>R</i> ² = .009 <i>F</i> (1, 123) = 1.11, <i>p</i> = .295			<i>R</i> ² = .466 <i>F</i> (6, 118) = 14.55, <i>p</i> < .001									

Note. C = coefficient.

Table N5

Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for Parallel Multiple Mediator Model for Justice-Focused Intervention (Y) and Relationship with Perpetrator (X) for Experiment 3

Antecedent	Consequent																											
	M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)			M ₂ (victim empathy)			M ₃ (victim blame)			M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)			M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)			M ₆ (victim responsibility)			Y (justice-focused intervention)									
	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p	C	SE	p							
X (relationship with perpetrator)	a ₁	-.28	.18	.125	a ₂	-.20	.16	.198	a ₃	-.28	.25	.264	a ₄	-.15	.14	.293	a ₅	-.13	.26	.626	a ₆	-4.36	4.14	.295	c'	.53	.19	.007
M ₁ (feelings of responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₁	.34	.11	.002			
M ₂ (victim empathy)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₂	-.06	.13	.630			
M ₃ (victim blame)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₃	-.19	.08	.013			
M ₄ (perpetrator malicious motivations)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₄	.29	.13	.025			
M ₅ (perpetrator mitigation)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₅	-.01	.07	.911			
M ₆ (victim responsibility)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	b ₆	.01	<.01	.236			
Model summary	R ² = .019 F(1, 123) = 2.39, p = .125			R ² = .014 F(1, 123) = 1.68, p = .198			R ² = .010 F(1, 123) = 1.26, p = .264			R ² = .009 F(1, 123) = 1.12, p = .293			R ² = .002 F(1, 123) = .24, p = .626			R ² = .009 F(1, 123) = 1.11, p = .295			R ² = .265 F(7, 117) = 6.04, p < .001									

Note. C = coefficient.

Appendix O

Ethics Documentation for Survey Studies

Research Participant Information

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF NUDE OR SEXUAL IMAGES OF OTHERS

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this information.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study contributes to Chelsea Mainwaring's (the principal researcher's) PhD programme of studies at Goldsmiths, University of London. This student project is being supervised by Dr Adrian Scott and Professor Fiona Gabbert. The objective of this research is to understand attitudes and the behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (photos or videos). You must be currently residing within the UK and be between the ages of 18 and 39 years to participate. Data collection is expected to be completed by the end of April 2022.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are part of the general population, which is the population of interest, and you are between the ages of 18 and 39 years and currently residing within the UK.

Do I have to take part?

As participation is entirely voluntary, it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be asked to confirm that you consent to this. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. If you complete the survey and then wish to withdraw your data at a later stage, please contact the principal researcher to ask to withdraw your data and include your Prolific ID. It will only be possible to withdraw your data up until data analysis commences. If you decide to withdraw from the study, this will in no way influence or adversely affect you.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Participation will involve taking part in an online survey concerning your attitudes and behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images (photos or videos), as well as some more general attitudes. You will also be asked about your own experiences of these behaviours. It should take about 15 minutes to complete.

Data will be held securely and in confidence.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are minimal risks associated with participating in this study. However, it is possible that the research topic and associated survey questions elicit unpleasant memories of any

personal experiences. Therefore, please consider whether you are comfortable in taking part given the focus of this study.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

You will be provided with relevant websites to access further information about this topic.

What if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely event that you wish to make a complaint about your experience as a participant in this study, please contact my principal supervisor, Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk) or the Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. In the final report your individual identity will remain strictly anonymous. Please see GDPR guidelines provided, on the next page, in regard to the handling of personal data.

What will happen to the results of this study?

The data obtained from the survey will be analysed using a variety of different statistical and analytical techniques to provide an understanding of attitudes and behavioural responses to the taking and sharing of nude or sexual images. It is hoped that this study, and data from this study, will be published in peer-reviewed journals, presented at conferences, and will form part of the principal researcher's PhD thesis.

Who has reviewed this study?

This study has been reviewed by the Psychology Ethics Committee.

Research integrity

Goldsmiths, University of London, is committed to compliance with the Universities UK Research Integrity Concordat. You are entitled to expect the highest level of integrity from our researchers during the course of their research.

Contact for further information

If you have any questions, please ask the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (c.mainwaring@gold.ac.uk).

General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and Goldsmiths Research: Guidelines for participants

Please note that the following information does not constitute, and should not be construed as, legal advice. These guidelines are designed to help participants understand their rights under GDPR which came into force on 25 May 2018.

Your rights as a participant (data subject) in this study

The updated data protection regulation is a series of conditions designed to protect an individual's personal data. Not all data collected for research is personal data.

Personal data is data such that a living individual can be identified; collection of personal data is sometimes essential in conducting research and GDPR sets out that data subjects

should be treated in a lawful and fair manner and that information about the data processing should be explained clearly and transparently. Some data we might ask to collect falls under the heading of special categories data. This type of information includes data about an individual's race; ethnic origin; politics; religion; trade union membership; genetics; biometrics (where used for ID purposes); health; sex life; or sexual orientation. This data requires particular care.

Under GDPR you have the following rights over your personal data[1]:

- **The right to be informed.** You must be informed if your personal data is being used.
- **The right of access.** You can ask for a copy of your data by making a 'subject access request'.
- **The right to rectification.** You can ask for your data held to be corrected.
- **The right to erasure.** You can ask for your data to be deleted.
- **The right to restrict processing.** You can limit the way an organisation uses your personal data if you are concerned about the accuracy of the data or how it is being used.
- **The right to data portability.** You have the right to get your personal data from an organisation in a way that is accessible and machine-readable. You also have the right to ask an organisation to transfer your data to another organisation.
- **The right to object.** You have the right to object to the use of your personal data in some circumstances. You have an absolute right to object to an organisation using your data for direct marketing.
- **How your data is processed using automated decision making and profiling.** You have the right not to be subject to a decision that is based solely on automated processing if the decision affects your legal rights or other equally important matters;

to understand the reasons behind decisions made about you by automated processing and the possible consequences of the decisions, and to object to profiling in certain situations, including for direct marketing purposes.

Please note that these rights are not absolute and only apply in certain circumstances. You should also be informed how long your data will be retained and who it might be shared with.

How does Goldsmiths treat my contribution to this study?

Your participation in this research is very valuable and any personal data you provide will be treated in confidence using the best technical means available to us. The university's legal basis for processing your data[2] as part of our research findings is a "task carried out in the public interest". This means that our research is designed to improve the health, happiness and well-being of society and to help us better understand the world we live in. It is not going to be used for marketing or commercial purposes.

In addition to our legal basis under Article 6 (as described above), for **special categories data** as defined under Article 9 of GDPR, our condition for processing is that it is "necessary for archiving purposes in the public interest, scientific or historical research purposes or statistical purposes".[3]

If your data contributes to data from a group then your ability to remove data may be limited as the project progresses, when removal of your data may cause damage to the dataset.

You should also know that you may contact any of the following people if you are unhappy about the way your data or your participation in this study are being treated:

- Goldsmiths Data Protection Officer – dp@gold.ac.uk (concerning your rights to control personal data).
- Chair, Goldsmiths Research Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee - via reisc@gold.ac.uk, REISC Secretary (for any other element of the study).
- You also have the right to lodge a complaint with the Information Commissioner’s Office at <https://ico.org.uk/make-a-complaint/>

[1] <https://ico.org.uk/your-data-matters/>

[2] GDPR Article 6; the six lawful bases for processing data are explained here:

<https://ico.org.uk/for-organisations/guide-to-the-general-data-protection-regulation-gdpr/lawful-basis-for-processing/>

[3] Article 9 of the GDPR requires this type of data to be treated with great care because of the more significant risks to a person’s fundamental rights and freedoms that mishandling might cause, e.g., by putting them at risk of unlawful discrimination.

Please tick the appropriate box

	Yes	No
Have you read the Research Participant Information?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are you 18 years of age or older?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you understand that participation is anonymous so no identifying information will be included in any publications or presentations?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study at any time?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Do you agree to take part in this study?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Debrief information

ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO THE TAKING AND SHARING OF NUDE OR SEXUAL IMAGES

Thank you for completing this study. Once you have read the following information, please click on the arrow at the bottom of the page to confirm your completion of the study.

The study you have just participated in aims to determine what individual and contextual factors are important in facilitating or inhibiting bystanders (those who witness criminal behaviour or social rule violations) to intervene when faced with an incident of image-based

sexual abuse (IBSA). IBSA encompasses the non-consensual taking, non-consensual sharing, and threats to share nude or sexual images (photos or videos). To achieve this aim, you were presented with one of these behaviours and asked about how you think you would respond to this behaviour. You were also asked about your attitudes towards these behaviours and other general attitudes which measured the individual and contextual factors of interest.

Facilitating and inhibiting factors have previously been considered in physical sexual violence contexts and bystander intervention programmes have been developed to prevent physical sexual violence, but little is known about these factors and bystander intervention where sexual violence has been enacted in IBSA contexts. There is reason to believe that those factors which are important in physical sexual violence contexts may also be relevant in IBSA contexts. There are also likely to be some unique inhibitors and facilitators in these contexts. It is hoped that the information obtained from this study will eventually help the development of educational materials aimed at encouraging bystanders to intervene in these contexts.

The quantitative and qualitative data obtained from this survey will be analysed using a range of analytical and statistical techniques to determine whether there are any relationships between a variety of individual and contextual factors and willingness to intervene as a bystander.

As I indicated at the outset, the data collected is confidential, and your identity will remain strictly anonymous in any final reports.

In the unlikely event that taking part in this study has caused any personal or emotional distress, there are a number of websites and organisations that can provide support:

- Revenge Porn Helpline: 0345 6000 459 or <https://revengepornhelpline.org.uk/>
- Victims of Internet Crime: info@voic.org.uk or <https://voic.org.uk/>

If you would like any further information about this topic or this study, please contact the principal researcher, Chelsea Mainwaring (c.mainwaring@gold.ac.uk) or Dr Adrian Scott (a.scott@gold.ac.uk). The Chair of the Psychology Ethics Committee, Yulia Kovas, can also be contacted (y.kovas@gold.ac.uk).

May I sincerely thank you for taking part in this study.

Chelsea Mainwaring

Appendix P

Measures and Items for Surveys 1, 2, and 3

Survey 1: Non-Consensual Taking

Likelihood of Bystander Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police
4. Confront the person who took this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)
9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Perception of Behaviour as Problematic

1. There is nothing wrong with this behaviour
2. This behaviour is problematic

Confidence to Intervene

1. I would be unsure in how to address or stop this behaviour
2. I would be confident in how I could help the person depicted in the image
3. I would not know what to say or do
4. I would feel confident speaking up against this behaviour

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something to address or stop the behaviour

2. I would feel responsible to say something to the person who took the image to condemn the behaviour
3. I would not feel responsible to tell the person depicted in the image about the situation
4. I would leave it to others to get involved and stop the behaviour
5. I would think it is up to the person depicted in the image to deal with the situation
6. I would feel responsible to help the person depicted in the image
7. I would feel guilty if I did not address or condemn the behaviour
8. I would feel guilty if I did not help the person depicted in the image
9. I would think it is not up to me to address or condemn this behaviour

Social Norms Towards Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police
4. Confront the person who took this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)
9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Social Norms Towards Perpetration

1. Take a nude or sexual image of a romantic or sexual partner without that partner's knowledge and/or permission

2. Take a nude or sexual image of a friend or acquaintance without that person's knowledge and/or permission
3. Take a nude or sexual image of a person whom they do not know without that person's knowledge and/or permission

Frequency of IBSA

1. Someone taking nude or sexual images of a romantic or sexual partner without that person's knowledge and/or permission
2. Someone taking nude or sexual images of a friend or acquaintance without that person's knowledge and/or permission
3. Someone taking nude or sexual images of a person whom they do not know without that person's knowledge and/or permission

Trust and Confidence in the Police/CJS

1. The police would not be effective in obtaining justice for those who had nude or sexual images taken without their knowledge and/or permission
2. I would not be comfortable in approaching the police to report this behaviour
3. I believe that the police would handle any reports of this kind sensitively
4. I would not trust the police to respond appropriately to the reporting of this kind of behaviour
5. I would not trust the police to take any reports of this kind of behaviour seriously
6. I believe those who take nude or sexual images of others without their knowledge and/or permission would be appropriately punished under the law
7. I would trust the police to ensure the safety of the person who is being targeted
8. I would trust the police to treat those who report these crimes with dignity and respect

Endorsement of IBSA Myths - Modified SIAMA scale (Powell et al., 2019)²²

1. People should be flattered if their partner or ex-partner shows nude or sexual images of them to friends^{*#}
2. There is no need for someone to get upset if their partner or ex-partner shares nude or sexual images of them with others^{*#}
3. It is not a big deal if people brag to their friends by showing them nude or sexual images of their partner^{*#}
4. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images shared without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
5. People should be flattered if someone tries to take a nude or sexual image of them without their knowledge and/or permission⁺
6. It is more serious if a stranger takes a nude or sexual image of someone without their knowledge and/or permission compared to someone they know⁺
7. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images taken without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
8. If someone takes a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission, it is okay as long as they don't share the image with anyone else⁺
9. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves to others are at least partly responsible if the image is shared further^{*#}
10. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should understand the risk that it might be shared^{*#}
11. It is risky to take nude or sexual selfies, even if they never get sent to anyone[#]

²² Note. * = item made gender neutral; # = item modified; + = new item.

12. Those in romantic or sexual relationships should make sure that they trust their partner 100% before sending them any nude or sexual images⁺
13. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should make it clear that they don't want those images shared with anyone else⁺
14. People should avoid sending nude or sexual images of themselves because they do not know where the images could be shared⁺
15. People who have sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission should be more careful with what they choose to wear⁺
16. People who have nude or sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission whilst they are intoxicated are at least partly to blame⁺

Own Image-Taking and Sharing Behaviours

1. Sent someone a nude or sexual image of yourself
2. Let someone take a nude or sexual image of yourself
3. Asked someone to send you a nude or sexual image of themselves
4. Recorded a nude or sexual video with someone

IBSA Victimisation

1. Had someone take or try to take a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
2. Had someone show, send to others, or post online a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
3. Had someone threaten to post online or send/show others a nude or sexual image of you

IBSA Perpetration

1. Taken or tried to take a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission

2. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently showed/sent to another person
3. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently threatened to post online or show/send to others

General Empathy – Perspective-Taking and Empathetic Concern Subscales from IRI

(Davis, 1980)²³

Perspective Taking

1. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the “other person’s” point of view*
2. I try to look at everybody’s side of a disagreement before I make a decision
3. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective
4. If I’m sure I’m right about something, I don’t waste much time listening to other people’s arguments
5. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both
6. When I’m upset at someone, I usually try to “put myself in their shoes” for a while*
7. Before criticising somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place

Empathetic Concern

1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me
2. Sometimes I don’t feel sorry for other people when they are having problems
3. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them
4. Other people’s misfortunes does not usually disturb me a great deal
5. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don’t feel very much pity for them

²³ *Note.* * = item made gender neutral.

6. I am often quite touched by things I see happen
7. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person

Survey 2: Non-Consensual Sharing

Likelihood of Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police
4. Confront the person who shared this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)
9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Perception of Behaviour as Problematic

1. There is nothing wrong with this behaviour
2. This behaviour is problematic

Confidence to Intervene

1. I would be unsure in how to address or stop this behaviour
2. I would be confident in how I could help the person depicted in the image
3. I would not know what to say or do
4. I would feel confident speaking up against this behaviour

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something to address or stop the behaviour

2. I would feel responsible to say something to the person sharing the image to condemn the behaviour
3. I would not feel responsible to tell the person depicted in the image about the situation
4. I would leave it to others to get involved and stop the behaviour
5. I would think it is up to the person depicted in the image to deal with the situation
6. I would feel responsible to help the person depicted in the image
7. I would feel guilty if I did not address or condemn the behaviour
8. I would feel guilty if I did not help the person depicted in the image
9. I would think it is not up to me to address or condemn this behaviour

Social Norms Towards Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police
4. Confront the person who shared this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)
9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Social Norms Towards Perpetration

1. Share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner without that partner's permission

2. Show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner, without that partner's permission
3. Share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance, without that person's permission
4. Show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance, without that person's permission
5. Share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger, without that person's permission
6. Show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger, without that person's permission

Frequency of IBSA

1. Someone sharing or uploading online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner, without that partner's permission
2. Someone showing a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner, without that partner's permission
3. Someone sharing or uploading online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance, without that person's permission
4. Someone showing a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance, without that person's permission
5. Someone sharing or uploading online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger, without that person's permission
6. Someone showing a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger, without that person's permission

Trust and Confidence in the Police/CJS

1. The police would not be effective in obtaining justice for those who had nude or sexual images shared without their permission
2. I would not be comfortable in approaching the police to report this behaviour
3. I believe that the police would handle any reports of this kind sensitively
4. I would not trust the police to respond appropriately to the reporting of this kind of behaviour
5. I would not trust the police to take any reports of this kind of behaviour seriously
6. I believe those who share nude or sexual images of others without their permission would be appropriately punished under the law
7. I would trust the police to ensure the safety of the person who is being targeted
8. I would trust the police to treat those who report these crimes with dignity and respect

Endorsement of IBSA Myths - Modified SIAMA scale (Powell et al., 2019)²⁴

1. People should be flattered if their partner or ex-partner shows nude or sexual images of them to friends^{*#}
2. There is no need for someone to get upset if their partner or ex-partner shares nude or sexual images of them with others^{*#}
3. It is not a big deal if people brag to their friends by showing them nude or sexual images of their partner^{*#}
4. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images shared without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
5. People should be flattered if someone tries to take a nude or sexual image of them without their knowledge and/or permission⁺

²⁴ Note. * = item made gender neutral; # = item modified; + = new item.

6. It is more serious if a stranger takes a nude or sexual image of someone without their knowledge and/or permission compared to someone they know⁺
7. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images taken without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
8. If someone takes a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission, it is okay as long as they don't share the image with anyone else⁺
9. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves to others are at least partly responsible if the image is shared further^{*#}
10. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should understand the risk that it might be shared^{*#}
11. It is risky to take nude or sexual selfies, even if they never get sent to anyone[#]
12. Those in romantic or sexual relationships should make sure that they trust their partner 100% before sending them any nude or sexual images⁺
13. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should make it clear that they don't want those images shared with anyone else⁺
14. People should avoid sending nude or sexual images of themselves because they do not know where the images could be shared⁺
15. People who have sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission should be more careful with what they choose to wear⁺
16. People who have nude or sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission whilst they are intoxicated are at least partly to blame⁺

Own Image-Taking and Sharing Behaviours

5. Sent someone a nude or sexual image of yourself
6. Let someone take a nude or sexual image of yourself
7. Asked someone to send you a nude or sexual image of themselves

8. Recorded a nude or sexual video with someone

IBSA Victimization

4. Had someone take or try to take a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
5. Had someone show, send to others, or post online a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
6. Had someone threaten to post online or send/show others a nude or sexual image of you

IBSA Perpetration

4. Taken or tried to take a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission
5. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently showed/sent to another person
6. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently threatened to post online or show/send to others

General Empathy – Perspective-Taking and Empathetic Concern Subscales from IRI

(Davis, 1980)²⁵

Perspective Taking

1. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the “other person’s” point of view*
2. I try to look at everybody’s side of a disagreement before I make a decision
3. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective

²⁵ Note. * = item made gender neutral.

4. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments
5. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both
6. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in their shoes" for a while*
7. Before criticising somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place

Empathetic Concern

1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me
2. Sometimes I don't feel sorry for other people when they are having problems
3. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them
4. Other people's misfortunes does not usually disturb me a great deal
5. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them
6. I am often quite touched by things I see happen
7. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person

Survey 3: Making Threats to Share

Likelihood of Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police
4. Confront the person who threatened to share this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)

9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Perception of Behaviour as Problematic

1. There is nothing wrong with this behaviour
2. This behaviour is problematic

Confidence to Intervene

1. I would be unsure in how to address or stop this behaviour
2. I would be confident in how I could help the person depicted in the image
3. I would not know what to say or do
4. I would feel confident speaking up against this behaviour

Feelings of Responsibility

1. I would not feel responsible to say or do something to address or stop the behaviour
2. I would feel responsible to say something to the person making these threats to condemn the behaviour
3. I would not feel responsible to tell the person depicted in the image about the situation
4. I would leave it to others to get involved and stop the behaviour
5. I would think it is up to the person depicted in the image to deal with the situation
6. I would feel responsible to help the person depicted in the image
7. I would feel guilty if I did not address or condemn the behaviour
8. I would feel guilty if I did not help the person depicted in the image
9. I would think it is not up to me to address or condemn this behaviour

Social Norms Towards Intervention

1. Try to help or provide emotional support to the person depicted in the image
2. Report the behaviour to a relevant authority (i.e., university, human resources)
3. Report the behaviour to the police

4. Confront the person who threatened to share this image
5. Do nothing
6. Provide advice to the person depicted in the image
7. Inform the person depicted in the image of the situation
8. Help the person depicted in the image to access relevant resources (i.e., support websites)
9. Joke about the behaviour
10. Advise the person depicted in the image that they should be more careful in the future

Social Norms Towards Perpetration

1. Threaten to share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner
2. Threaten to show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a romantic or sexual partner
3. Threaten to share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance
4. Threaten to show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a friend or acquaintance
5. Threaten to share or upload online a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger
6. Threaten to show a friend a nude or sexual image that they had taken of, or received from, a stranger

Frequency of IBSA

1. Someone threatening to share or upload online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a romantic or sexual partner

2. Someone threatening to show a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a romantic or sexual partner
3. Someone threatening to share or upload online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a friend or acquaintance
4. Someone threatening to show a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a friend or acquaintance
5. Someone threatening to share or upload online nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a stranger
6. Someone threatening to show a friend nude or sexual images that they had taken of, or been sent by, a stranger

Trust and Confidence in the Police/CJS

1. The police would not be effective in obtaining justice for those who were threatened with having nude or sexual images shared
2. I would not be comfortable in approaching the police to report this behaviour
3. I believe that the police would handle any reports of this kind sensitively
4. I would not trust the police to respond appropriately to the reporting of this kind of behaviour
5. I would not trust the police to take any reports of this kind of behaviour seriously
6. I believe that those who threaten to share nude or sexual images of others without their permission would be appropriately punished under the law
7. I would trust the police to ensure the safety of the person who is being targeted
8. I would trust the police to treat those who report these crimes with dignity and respect

Endorsement of IBSA Myths - Modified SIAMA scale (Powell et al., 2019)²⁶

1. People should be flattered if their partner or ex-partner shows nude or sexual images of them to friends^{*#}
2. There is no need for someone to get upset if their partner or ex-partner shares nude or sexual images of them with others^{*#}
3. It is not a big deal if people brag to their friends by showing them nude or sexual images of their partner^{*#}
4. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images shared without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
5. People should be flattered if someone tries to take a nude or sexual image of them without their knowledge and/or permission⁺
6. It is more serious if a stranger takes a nude or sexual image of someone without their knowledge and/or permission compared to someone they know⁺
7. It is a bit extreme to say that having nude or sexual images taken without permission is a form of sexual violence⁺
8. If someone takes a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission, it is okay as long as they don't share the image with anyone else⁺
9. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves to others are at least partly responsible if the image is shared further^{*#}
10. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should understand the risk that it might be shared^{*#}
11. It is risky to take nude or sexual selfies, even if they never get sent to anyone[#]

²⁶ Note. * = item made gender neutral; # = item modified; + = new item.

12. Those in romantic or sexual relationships should make sure that they trust their partner 100% before sending them any nude or sexual images⁺
13. People who send nude or sexual images of themselves should make it clear that they don't want those images shared with anyone else⁺
14. People should avoid sending nude or sexual images of themselves because they do not know where the images could be shared⁺
15. People who have sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission should be more careful with what they choose to wear⁺
16. People who have nude or sexual images taken of themselves without their knowledge and/or permission whilst they are intoxicated are at least partly to blame⁺

Own Image-Taking and Sharing Behaviours

9. Sent someone a nude or sexual image of yourself
10. Let someone take a nude or sexual image of yourself
11. Asked someone to send you a nude or sexual image of themselves
12. Recorded a nude or sexual video with someone

IBSA Victimisation

7. Had someone take or try to take a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
8. Had someone show, send to others, or post online a nude or sexual image of you without your permission
9. Had someone threaten to post online or send/show others a nude or sexual image of you

IBSA Perpetration

7. Taken or tried to take a nude or sexual image of someone else without their knowledge and/or permission

8. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently showed/sent to another person
9. Received a nude or sexual image intended for yourself which you subsequently threatened to post online or show/send to others

General Empathy – Perspective-Taking and Empathetic Concern Subscales from IRI

(Davis, 1980)²⁷

Perspective Taking

1. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the “other person’s” point of view*
2. I try to look at everybody’s side of a disagreement before I make a decision
3. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective
4. If I’m sure I’m right about something, I don’t waste much time listening to other people’s arguments
5. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both
6. When I’m upset at someone, I usually try to “put myself in their shoes” for a while*
7. Before criticising somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place

Empathetic Concern

1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me
2. Sometimes I don’t feel sorry for other people when they are having problems
3. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them
4. Other people’s misfortunes does not usually disturb me a great deal
5. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don’t feel very much pity for them

²⁷ Note. * = item made gender neutral.

6. I am often quite touched by things I see happen
7. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person

Appendix Q

Preregistration for Survey Studies

- 1) Data collection – have any data been collected for this study already?

No, no data have been collected for this study yet

- 2) Hypothesis - what is the main question being asked or hypotheses being tested in this study?

Overall research question: What individual and contextual variables predict bystander intervention in image-based sexual abuse (IBSA) contexts?

The individual predictor variables comprise: Bystander gender, perceptions of the IBSA behaviour as being problematic, confidence to intervene, feelings of responsibility to intervene, general empathy, endorsement of IBSA myths, previous IBSA victimisation experiences, previous IBSA perpetration experiences, and own image-taking and image-sharing behaviours.

The contextual predictor variables comprise: Trust and confidence in the police and criminal justice responses to IBSA, perceived commonality of IBSA, social norms towards intervention in IBSA contexts, and social norms towards perpetration of IBSA.

- 3) Dependent variable – describe the key dependent variable(s) specifying how they will be measured

The outcome variable is ‘bystander intervention’ which is operationalised as participants’ rated willingness to intervene in a variety of different ways (for example, ‘report the behaviour to the police’). Participants will be asked to rate their likelihood of intervention on

a 7-point scale (extremely unlikely-extremely likely). Items will be factor analysed to create groups of intervention types for each IBSA context (non-consensual taking, non-consensual distribution, or threats to distribute nude or sexual images), which will then form the basis of the outcome variables used within the analyses.

4) Conditions – how many and which conditions will participants be assigned to?

There are no experimental conditions but participants will only be asked about their general attitudes and willingness to intervene in the context of one of three types of IBSA contexts (non-consensual taking, non-consensual distribution, or threats to distribute nude or sexual images).

5) Analyses – specify exactly which analyses you will conduct to examine the main questions

Separate analyses will be conducted for each IBSA context and will involve creating a regression model through the use of a purposeful variable selection method. Steps for purposeful variable selection from Hosmer et al. (2013) will be followed. The outcome variables used within the models will be determined through factor analysis of the intervention items as outlined above.

6) Outliers and exclusions – describe exactly how outliers will be defined and handled, and your precise rule(s) excluding observations

Data from those aged 40+, <18, or those residing outside of the UK will be excluded from the analyses. Data will also be excluded for participants who fail to correctly answer the attention check question. Outliers will be identified using the guidance in Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) and any outliers identified will be investigated. Outliers will be checked to make sure

that they are not the result of inappropriate participant behaviour (e.g., selecting the same response for all items in the questionnaires) or incorrect data entries. If there are any data entry errors, these will be rectified. If any outliers appear to be the result of inappropriate participant behaviour, then the data for this participant will be removed from the analyses. Any extreme outliers which do not appear to be the result of inappropriate participant behaviour or data entry errors will be investigated to determine whether they present any undue influence on the analyses. If there is no impact upon the results, then these outliers will be retained. If any extreme outliers do exert undue influence, they will be removed and commented upon.

- 7) Sample size – how many observations will be collected or what will determine sample size?

Sample will be obtained from the general population and participants must be between the age of 18 and 39 and currently residing within the UK. For the study to have suitable power and to ensure reliable regression coefficients, between 393 and 462 participants will be sought (Faul et al., 2009; Hosmer et al., 2013; Green, 1991, as cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), equally distributed across the three different scenarios.

- 8) Other – anything else you would like to preregister (e.g., secondary analyses, variables collected for exploratory purposes, unusual analyses planned?)

Participants will also be asked to draw upon their own real-life experiences as a bystander to any form of IBSA (if applicable). This will form an open-ended section at the end of the study. This information will be analysed using a top-down approach to support or provide further context for any statistical effects found. It is difficult to predict how

many participants will complete this section, but if sufficient responses are obtained then the data might be examined separately.

References

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- Hosmer, D. W., Lemeshow, S., & Sturdivant, R. (2013). *Applied Logistic Regression* (3rd ed.). John Wiley & Sons Inc.
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9) Name – give a title for this AsPredicted preregistration

BYSTANDERS IN IBSA: THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL AND CONTEXTUAL
VARIABLES

10) For record keeping purposes, tell us the type of study you are preregistering
Survey

Appendix R

Step 4 Model Building for Survey 3: Making Threats to Share

As stated in Chapter 6, a fourth predictor became significant when added to the model within Step 4 of the purposeful model building process. Step 4 involved adding variables that were not significant in Step 1. In this case, when IBSA myths (minimisation) was added, this became a significant positive predictor. This model with four predictors was statistically significant, $F(4, 127) = 51.16, p < .001$ and explained 61.7% (adjusted $R^2 = 60.5\%$) of the variance in the likelihood of engaging in bystander intervention. See Table R1 for a summary of the model with this fourth predictor variable included.

Table R1

Linear Regression Model for Study 3 with IBSA Myths (Minimisation) Predictor Included

	B	SE	Beta	t	p
Final model					
Confidence to intervene	.12	.05	.15	2.31	.023
Feelings of responsibility	.63	.08	.62	8.17	< .001
Social norms towards intervention	.23	.08	.20	2.82	.006
IBSA myths (minimisation)	.31	.10	.19	3.13	.002

In this model, there are four predictor variables making a unique contribution in the final model: confidence to intervene, feelings of responsibility, social norms towards intervention, and IBSA myths (minimisation). When looking at the beta values one can see that *feelings of responsibility* contributed to the model the most, followed by *social norms towards intervention*, and *IBSA myths (minimisation)*, with *confidence to intervene* contributing the least. For a one unit increase in feelings of responsibility, there is an increase of .63 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in supportive social norms towards intervention, there is an increase of .23 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. For a one unit increase in IBSA myths (minimisation), there is an increase of

.31 in the likelihood of bystander intervention. Finally, for a one unit increase in confidence to intervene, there is an increase of .12 in the likelihood of intervention.

The addition of this fourth variable was omitted for the following reasons: 1) this is not in line with what would be predicted based on previous research (i.e., endorsement of IBSA myths reduces the likelihood of intervention); 2) the prediction was counterintuitive in regard to initial univariate correlations (i.e., a negative correlation but a positive prediction); 3) additional exploratory analyses (see below) highlighted that this effect was likely due to a few extreme outliers; 4) the addition of this variable to the model would reduce the parsimony of the model; and 5) the addition of this variable would have little practical real-world implications regarding use in bystander intervention materials or programmes.

Regarding the exploratory analyses, the IBSA myths (minimisation) average scores were transformed into categorical variables with each group being representative of a point on the Likert scale to enable exploratory ANOVAs to be carried out. Line graphs showed that for groups up to an average score of 4, the relationship between IBSA myths (minimisation) and the likelihood of bystander intervention was negative, as would be expected. However, although the majority of the participants scored below an average of 3, there were four participants who scored an average above 3, and the average likelihood of intervention, although not significantly different, was slightly higher compared to those groups below an average of 3 ($M = 5.09$ versus $M = 5.46$ and 5.03). This meant that there was a positive relationship (as identified in a line graph) between IBSA myths (minimisation) and the likelihood of intervention when the average IBSA myths score was above 3. Further, there was a single participant who scored an average of 6 on the IBSA myths (minimisation) measure and this individual scored much higher on intervention likelihood compared to other groups ($M = 6.25$). Altogether, this may explain the unexpected relationship between this

variable and the likelihood of bystander intervention when added to the model (i.e., a few outliers with a high endorsement of IBSA myths and likelihood of intervention).

Further, it was hypothesised that the positive prediction may also be due to an interaction with the other significant variables in the model. Exploratory ANOVA analyses were also conducted whereby IBSA myths (minimisation) was the IV and the other predictor variables were the DVs. Endorsement of IBSA myths (minimisation) had a significant effect on feelings of responsibility, whereby those scoring less than an average of 2 on the IBSA myths measure had higher feelings of responsibility compared to those who scored above 2 but less than 3, and those who scored above 3. No differences were found between those scoring above 2 and above 3. When carrying out a 3 x 3 ANOVA with IBSA myths (minimisation) and feelings of responsibility as categorical IVs, although there was no statistically significant interaction identified, profile plots showed that the relationship between IBSA myths and likelihood of intervention was negative until the average score for IBSA myths exceed 3 (in line with that outlined above), however there was a positive relationship for all IBSA myth scores when feelings of responsibility were high. Again, this may have resulted in the positive prediction found within the regression model.