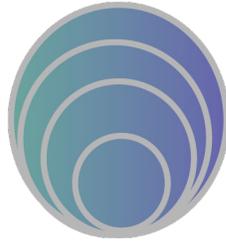


CAMPUS
Technical Assistance
and Resource Project



Literature Review On Preventing Interpersonal Violence Among Students Studying Abroad

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Literature Review On Preventing Interpersonal Violence Among Students Studying Abroad

BACKGROUND

The number of American students who study abroad has tripled within the past twenty years. In the 2015/2016 academic year alone, over 325,000 students attending US colleges received academic credit through a study abroad experience. The top destinations for US-based students studying abroad are Europe, Latin America, and the Caribbean. Although the majority of students who participate in study abroad experiences identify as female (66%) and white (83%), the population has begun to diversify, with greater inclusion of students from underrepresented racial and ethnic backgrounds. The majority of these students participate in study abroad programs during their undergraduate careers (88%), most often during their junior year in college. While the population of US-based students participating in study abroad experiences has steadily increased over time, only about 10% of all US-based undergraduate students (including community college students) will study abroad by the time that they graduate (Institute of International Education, 2017). However, increased student participation in such programs warrants some important considerations.

In particular, the issue of ensuring student health and safety abroad deserves attention. Despite the importance of this topic, relatively little research has been conducted about student health and safety when studying abroad. Most of the existing literature focuses on exposure to infectious diseases such as malaria and yellow fever. A growing body of literature also explores health risk behaviors such as alcohol use and unprotected sex among students traveling abroad. To date, very little research has been conducted about student experiences of interpersonal violence while studying abroad, including dating/domestic violence, sexual assault, sexual harassment, and stalking.

This is concerning because regulations such as the Clery Act require that colleges are prepared to respond to incidents of interpersonal violence, notify students of crimes that occur on campus, and implement campus-wide prevention programs (Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act). Given the constellation of study abroad program options, which include both university owned and operated programs as well as those contracted with other program providers, colleges often have limited and/or ambiguous jurisdiction over these programs and how to enforce regulations while students are undertaking educational experiences abroad. As such, colleges need guidance about how best to prepare students for their study abroad experiences and protect them once they are abroad.

To address this research gap, Alteristic Inc. conducted a series of surveys, focus groups, and key informant interviews with students who had previously studied abroad about their experiences with interpersonal violence and their perceptions about how to prevent acts of harm from occurring. We supplemented these findings with a search of the peer-reviewed literature in order to explore their insights in further depth and uncover promising practices for prevention. In the report that follows, we summarize the results and themes of these research activities and suggest implications for prevention efforts. We then used the findings presented in this report to create an accompanying toolkit that colleges can use to enhance their efforts to prevent future acts of interpersonal violence from occurring while students are studying abroad.

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW, SURVEY, AND FOCUS GROUP FINDINGS

To learn more about students' lived experiences of interpersonal violence while studying abroad, Alteristic conducted a series of key informant interviews with students from a variety of colleges who had studied abroad. Key informant interviews were conducted expressly to inform this report. In addition, Alteristic partnered with Middlebury College, a private liberal arts college in the Northeastern United States that offers a number of educational experiences abroad, to conduct surveys and focus groups. The goal of the surveys and focus groups was to inform adaptation of a bystander intervention prevention program for students participating in Middlebury's programs abroad. Separate surveys were conducted with study abroad personnel and students. Survey data were then supplemented by data from student focus groups. Although these activities were part of a stand-alone curriculum adaptation project, they have relevance for this report.

The key informant interviews, surveys, and focus groups explored warning signs, perpetration patterns, barriers to intervention, efficacious interventions, pre- and post-departure information received, and the ways in which students communicate norms to their peers. Results and findings from these efforts are presented below.

Key Informant Interview Findings

Alteristic conducted independent key informant interviews with fourteen students (11 female, 3 male) from four private liberal arts colleges across the US, a convenience sample of OVW Grantee campuses. All interviewees had participated in one or more study abroad programs during their undergraduate career. Participant demographics were not disclosed during the interviews and as such are unknown. Student participants had traveled to destinations in Africa (South Africa, Madagascar, Senegal, Tanzania), Asia (India, Japan, Nepal, Singapore), the Caribbean (Turks and Caicos), Europe (Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain), Oceania (Tasmania), and South America (Ecuador) for their study abroad experiences.

Pre-Departure Information and Education Received

When asked about pre-departure information and education they received about interpersonal violence, the majority of students talked about attending an in-person orientation session that included general program information and risk reduction tips. Students reported receiving the following advice: don't go out alone at night, dress conservatively, don't ride motorcycles, don't enter into romantic relationships with members of the host culture, don't socialize with men (advice given to female students), avoid certain places at certain times, wear sunscreen, drink moderately (if at all), and keep track of belongings. Although these risk reduction tips were shared universally, interviewees widely acknowledged their perception that most of them were intended for female students. Some of the tips were perceived as helpful; some were not. Beyond these tips, participants commonly stated that they were given few support options in case they experienced harm. Some participants shared that although their home institution stated that interpersonal violence would not be tolerated, they also acknowledged their limited jurisdiction once students were abroad.

One participant strongly advocated for creating specific pre-departure programming for women of color led by women of color because of their unique experiences of sexism and racism when traveling abroad. This participant talked about being unable to rely on law enforcement and lacking empathetic peers who could identify with her lived experiences of microaggression and marginalization while traveling abroad. She expressed a desire for increased attention and space to be devoted to aspects of identity and the study abroad experience at pre-departure, during study abroad programs, and during debriefing.

Post-Departure Information and Education Received

Only a couple of participants reported receiving interpersonal violence prevention education during their study abroad program; those who did receive training were attending institutions abroad that were modeled after US institutions. The majority of students who did not receive such education reported receiving risk reduction and safety information that was tailored for the cultural context in which they were living. Both female and male participants reported that female study abroad participants commonly received unwanted attention from men while studying abroad. Both female and male participants also reported that the program orientations they attended informed them that such treatment was to be ignored. Based on this information, several students reported setting group safety norms, such as using a "buddy system" or having male students enrolled in the program accompany female students during social time.

Many students expressed that it would be helpful to have a debriefing session that included time and space for exploring challenges faced abroad. They suggested that

although debriefing sessions happen, they often only focus on positive experiences and do not leave room to process negative or confusing experiences abroad.

Observed Interpersonal Violence Warning Signs

Nearly every interviewee talked about experiencing or witnessing pervasive street harassment such as catcalling and unwanted attention in social spaces such as bars, dance clubs, and restaurants. Female students most often reported direct experiences while male students were more likely to be in a bystander role. In addition, many female students shared experiences of being touched and groped in crowded spaces, including on public transportation, in dance clubs, and at community festivals or events. Almost universally, students expressed that they experienced negative stereotypes about Americans (e.g., rudeness, obesity, stupidity) and sexualized negative stereotypes about American women (e.g., sexually promiscuous, lack of sexual boundaries).

Three interviewees reported observing intimate partner violence between fellow program participants and more frequently, between local members of their host country. Over half of interviewees described incidents, including sexual assault and physical aggression, involving alcohol at parties and bars. Two participants suggested that students traveling abroad are seeking adventure and that their openness to new experiences leads to risk-taking that they might not try at home. Another student talked about making “deep connections [with other students] quickly” when traveling abroad, noting, “It feels like you know people better than you do.” Thus, when bad things happen, it is both shocking and feels like a significant violation of trust.

Patterns of Harm

When asked about who was most likely to cause harm—whether fellow study abroad program participants or members of the host country—students were most likely to identify perpetrators as members of the host country. Specifically, students identified men outside of the program targeting women as the most common pattern of harm they witnessed. Given that the majority of students talked about street harassment and harassment in social settings, this makes sense. Two interviewees also talked about witnessing residents of the host culture cause harm to each other; incidents of intimate partner violence and sexual assault between locals in relationships were commonly reported.

Barriers to Intervention

Students reported experiencing a number of barriers when considering whether or not to intervene to prevent harm from happening while abroad. The majority of students articulated language and cultural barriers, including lack of language

fluency and cultural differences that they perceived to be unsupportive of bystander intervention. When asked about these differences, one student said, “My host country was very different to the United States; intervention means different things in different places.” Several students agreed with this perspective, noting that norms about drinking are very different abroad. Many students expressed that drinking alcohol was an established norm in their host culture, and that they struggled to breach this cultural norm by intervening to curb alcohol use and increase student safety.

Another student stated, “Cultural norms about gender and violence differ from the US.” Female students agreed with this perspective and talked about how pervasive sexism and gender stereotypes made it difficult for them to be taken seriously, both when intervening and when reporting incidents of harm. One interviewee identified as a woman of color and expressed that she experienced additional negative stereotypes and marginalization while abroad due to her race.

Outside of individual identity factors, many students did not believe that they would be taken seriously simply because of their status as cultural outsiders and their youth. Nearly all participants expressed an ardent desire to be perceived as culturally respectful by residents of their host country. This desire made it difficult to step outside of established social norms, even in situations when someone might be harmed.

In addition to these language and cultural barriers, students discussed their lack of access to helping resources. Many students reported having limited access to phones and internet during their study abroad experiences. The majority seemed to agree that even if they had access to communication devices, they would not have been certain about which helping resources to contact. A handful of students reported that law enforcement was not a reliable helping option in their host country due to perceived corruption or students’ status as young outsiders. A very small number also talked about program constraints designed to help them gain language fluency such as signing pledges to only speak a second language or limiting contact with Americans during their experience to more fully immerse themselves in the host culture. Although such measures increase immersion and fluency, interviewees agreed that it also limited their ability to check-in on each other, to intervene to prevent incidents, or to report incidents after the fact.

Realistic Interventions

When asked about their perceptions of realistic interventions given the barriers they identified, participants expressed a strong preference for indirect intervention options that would not draw attention to themselves or affect the reputation of their study abroad program. Examples provided included:

- Asking a friend from the host culture to intervene.

- Asking program staff from the host country to intervene.
- Asking for directions to defuse tension.

The majority of participants also talked about setting group safety norms as the most realistic intervention, and one that they commonly used during their experiences abroad. Such norms included instituting a buddy system rule, identifying a designated “mother hen” to shepherd everyone home safely, or having male students accompany female students (sometimes pretending to be their partners or husbands). There was a strong consensus amongst participants that it would be helpful to consider, plan for, and practice interventions before traveling abroad.

Preferred Methods for Communicating Norms

When asked about the ways in which they communicate their beliefs and values about violence prevention and community safety, the majority of students acknowledged in-person conversations as their preferred mode of communication. Some students expressed a willingness to share opinions and related news stories online, but noted that they were reluctant to share anything that would scare their families. Many students noted that they use social media to update family and friends about their experiences abroad and to assure them of their well-being. Thus, they expressed reluctance to post about interpersonal violence for fear that it would cause their support network concern that they had been harmed. Therefore, in-person conversations and private social media groups for study abroad program participants were their preferred mode of norms communication.

Middlebury Adaptation Project

In the Spring of 2017, Alteristic partnered with Middlebury College to conduct surveys and focus groups with students and staff to inform the adaptation of a violence prevention curriculum for use within their study abroad program. Middlebury offers study abroad opportunities in 40 countries through more than 90 programs and universities. Each year, more than half of Middlebury juniors study abroad, making them ideal partners in research about violence prevention and study abroad.

Personnel Surveys

Surveys with study abroad personnel were conducted in May 2017. In total, 20 respondents completed all or a portion of the survey. Respondents (n=13) disclosed the following program locations: United Kingdom, China, Argentina, Cameroon, France, India, Japan, Jordan, Morocco, Russia, and Spain. Respondents (n=13) identified as Program Directors, Associate Directors, faculty, and administrators. As you can probably see from these profiles, data from the survey is somewhat incomplete,

with only about half of the respondents completing each question. The low sample size and incomplete responses make it impossible to generalize these data. Nevertheless, we have summarized the data below.

All respondents completed a panel of question about the importance of interpersonal violence and their belief that they have a role to play in preventing it. Most respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the following statements: Sexual violence is an important issue to address in my school/program (95%); Dating/partner violence is an important issue to address in my school/program (90%); Stalking is an important issue to address in my school/program (95%); It is possible to prevent sexual assault, dating violence, and stalking in my school/program (75%); and I have a role to play in preventing sexual assault, dating violence, and stalking in my school/program (100%). When asked to estimate the number of study abroad students who experienced each form of harm, the majority of respondents (n=17) stated that “a few” students had experienced sexual assault (65%), dating/partner violence (47%), or stalking (65%) while traveling abroad. Those who responded perceived that dating violence happened less frequently than sexual assault or stalking. Respondents (n=14) were more likely to identify members of the community outside of the study abroad program as those who perpetrated these harms.

When asked about concerning behaviors or warning signs that might indicate a student had experienced harm, respondents (n=10) identified requesting a confidential meeting with program staff, absenteeism, and social withdrawal. Respondents (n=13) identified the following barriers to intervening faced by students: personality traits, uncertainty, not wanting to be embarrassed, and fear for personal safety (listed in order of frequency). When asked to identify realistic interventions that students could use to prevent harm, respondents (n=13) were most likely to suggest delegating the problem to program staff or the police. A small number of respondents also expressed concerns about bystander intervention, suggesting that intervention would not be a safe option within the cultural context of their program. Other considerations identified include that host countries legally define interpersonal violence differently than the US, homosexuality is maligned and/or illegal in many host countries, racial discrimination is pervasive in many host countries, and the existence of morality laws that prohibit behaviors that are fully legal in the US.

Just over half of the respondents completed a panel of questions about interpersonal violence prevention programming, with the majority of respondents indicating that they received an online course, literature, and/or materials provided by the institution that runs their study abroad program. All respondents indicated that they covered content about interpersonal violence within their onsite orientation, with some referencing risk reduction programming, policy reviews, and bystander training. The findings suggest that among those who completed the survey, interpersonal violence prevention is valued within the study abroad context. However, given the small sample size, lack of complete data, and inclusion of personnel from just one college, it

is difficult to generalize beyond the small number of respondents who completed the full survey.

Student Surveys

Student surveys were also conducted in May 2017. In total, 200 students responded to the survey. The majority had completed study abroad experiences in their junior or senior year of college and identified as heterosexual, white, and female. The most common study abroad locations were France, Spain, United Kingdom, and Chile. The broader list of disclosed locations was as follows: Argentina, Australia, Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Cameroon, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechia, Denmark, Germany, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, Uruguay, and Vietnam. Unlike the personnel survey, the majority of student respondents completed each survey question. The completion of the data, combined with the large sample size and geographic dispersion of respondents make this an especially rich dataset.

Most student respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the following statements: Sexual violence is an important issue to address in my school/program (86%); Dating/partner violence is an important issue to address in my school/program (80%); Stalking is an important issue to address in my school/program (83%); It is possible to prevent sexual assault, dating violence, and stalking in my school/program (87%); I have a role to play in preventing sexual assault, dating violence, and stalking in my school/program (94%). When asked to estimate the number of students who experienced each form of harm, the majority of respondents stated that a few students had experienced sexual assault (51%), dating/partner violence (45%), or stalking (48%). Notably, 23% of respondents thought that many students had experienced sexual assault. Similar to personnel, most students identified members of the community outside of the program (63%) as the perpetrators of interpersonal violence.

When asked about warning signs, student respondents (n=130) were most likely to identify street harassment and sexual harassment targeted at women, both women in the program and women at large. They disclosed instances of men being aggressive to women in public, persistent sexual come-ons, women being followed during commutes, groping in crowded public spaces, and unwanted grinding in clubs. Incidents involving alcohol were mentioned often, both in the context of the harassing behaviors listed above as well as in the context of physical aggression and substance-facilitated sexual assault. Many students also disclosed witnessing abusive relationships between members of their host community.

Illustrative Quotes

I've seen men try to grab or lead away my friends (or myself) at clubs and bars, or even on the street late at night if we're in the city.

Many times, in public I saw cis-presenting men behaving in problematic, aggressive, intentionally physically and emotionally intimidating or harmful ways towards women. Once, when it was an English-speaking couple, I intervened to ask if she was alright. This seemed to disrupt and de-escalate the situation. Her companion was shouting and physically intimidating her. My roommate was sexually assaulted by a community member who came to our house. I was groped multiple times in public spaces and followed often by strangers (including the man who assaulted my roommate, who often loitered around our building).

Dating and partying culture can be very predatory in my study abroad location...The people in my program did a good job of looking out for each other, setting boundaries and expectations before going out together, and developing signals to stay safe in the moment. Many of the behaviors I witnessed were unwanted physical contact, aggressive physical/explicit contact (kissing, blocking the way, etc.), and unwanted persistence of these behaviors.

Seeing couples both unmarried university couples and married couples having fights in public spaces is very common in [my host country], and I have seen these altercations turn violent. I tend to get very worried during these instances but due to my lack of cultural awareness, I do not believe I have a right to intervene.

As you can see in the illustrative quotes above, students expressed witnessing gender-based harassment and violence. However, in addition to these harms, students also commonly endorsed the efficacy of group safety norms such as looking out for each other and communicating about confusing, negative, or harmful experiences. In addition, students commonly expressed cultural barriers that made it difficult to discern whether something was harmful or that made it difficult for them to intervene. Common cultural barriers identified were: unreliable helping resources (e.g., law enforcement, women's helplines), cultural normalization of misogyny, approaching strangers is considered a cultural taboo, cultural outsiders are not respected/trusted, different cultural and legal definitions of consent relative to the US, tolerance of street harassment, and language barriers. Language barriers included lack of fluency, lack of knowledge of slang words in another language, and fear of violating language pledges (signed agreements to use only the language of the host country to increase cultural immersion and resulting language fluency). Students also endorsed fears about personal safety, uncertainty, and personality traits as significant barriers to intervention.

Illustrative Quotes

We tried calling both the police and the city's women's helpline when my roommate was being stalked and they were both thoroughly unhelpful. The police were widely, publicly recognized as inefficient and unreliable. They also didn't speak English, and we were not proficient in the local language. Our...program director was our only reliable link to safety. It was scary because I knew that if I was ever in serious trouble, she might be the only help I'd be able to access. She lived about an hour away from our program site. I started to carry [a] bottle of pepper spray at all times, which I thankfully never had to use. I also relied on local bystanders when I found myself being harassed (i.e., I was able to get the attention of two local taxi drivers when [a] man followed me up to my door once. They chased him away). My city was infamously unsafe for anyone who didn't identify as a cisgendered male. Given that this was public knowledge, witnesses were often quick to jump in and help whenever they saw anyone being harassed. I received help from strangers on more than one occasion. For example, an elderly man on the street once shouted at a group of men who were catcalling me. While relying on help from local bystanders tended to work well, I had to be aware that talking back to a harasser myself or showing authority could have serious consequences, angering the harasser or causing him to become violent

In [my host country], I'm not sure I would trust the police (because they are known to be corrupt and racist). I would probably call program staff or my homestay family over the police. Men might take an intervention better from another man. My degree of comfort intervening as a young woman would depend on the age of the man involved. If it was a student/someone my own age, I might feel comfortable enough to intervene myself, but if it was a man on the street or an older man I would not rule out violence in retaliation, and thus would probably not intervene out of fear.

Given this constellation of barriers and cultural considerations, students were most likely to endorse indirect interventions such as delegating to someone else (e.g., study abroad personnel, member of host culture, someone who knows the people involved) or causing a distraction (e.g., asking for directions). Many students stated that they would feel comfortable directly intervening as a group rather than as an individual. Given the amount of gender-based harassment and violence witnessed, students also commonly shared gendered intervention responses such as female program participants commuting with men, pretending they were in a committed relationship with a male program participant to reduce unwanted attention from strange men, or delegating to male program participants who might be taken more seriously by members of the host community.

Students commonly expressed concern about differences in local norms and laws between their host culture and the US. Several students mentioned host country laws that are intentionally discriminatory to homosexuals including bans on anal sexual intercourse and forbidding public displays of affection. Others shared that racial discrimination is pervasive and affects whether laws are enforced and protection/support offered to those who experience harm. Many students commented on specific differences in legal definitions of consent, rape, and domestic violence. Many others commented on differences in drinking age, noting that legal drinking age is often younger abroad and that they were often in environments with drinking and/or intoxication. A handful of students also discussed morality laws and expressed that such laws are more stringently applied to women than men. When asked about prevention programming needs, many students specifically requested information that reflects the cultural and legal considerations they identified.

When asked about prevention information received, student respondents (n=146) stated that they received risk reduction tips and information about consent, abstinence, food safety, physical health, alcohol use, and terrorism. The information received somewhat depended on the study abroad location and was delivered via in-person training, online training, and/or literature packets. Overall, students expressed a high level of confidence talking about these issues with friends and family members. They expressed greater willingness to discuss these issues via informal conversations than online.

Student Focus Groups

In addition to student surveys, Alteristic collaborated with Middlebury to conduct two focus groups with students who had studied abroad. Fourteen students participated in the focus groups. Their responses closely mirror survey findings. Therefore, we have only summarized additional insights below.

Participant perspectives differed based on the length of time they spent abroad, such that students who spent longer amounts of time abroad typically reported witnessing more interpersonal violence. Additionally, several focus group participants articulated perceived tensions between study abroad programs' goals of increasing student independence, cultural immersion, and language fluency while creating a sense of community safety. Several students referenced language pledges (addressed above), which made it difficult to communicate with peers and program personnel, especially about sensitive issues. Focus group participants commonly expressed their need for both cultural immersion *and* a reliable emotional safety net.

When asked about prevention training experiences and considerations for future programming, a few students talked about anti-oppression, cultural competency, and situational analysis training as being especially helpful to them. They cautioned against reliance on blanket or one-size-fits-all prevention approaches and emphasized

the importance of understanding the nuances of unique cultures abroad. Participants agreed that prevention education should either be tailored to specific cultural contexts or adaptable so that experts on the host culture can tailor the program to their unique cultural context.

Summary of Findings

Together, these data suggest that:

- There is widespread agreement among students and study abroad personnel that interpersonal violence is preventable and that they can play a role in preventing it from happening.
- There is also widespread agreement that students are experiencing dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking during their time abroad. Students were more likely to perceive sexual assault as a problem than were study abroad personnel.
- Respondents commonly identified members of the host community who are not affiliated with study abroad programs as the most likely perpetrators of these harms.
- Study abroad personnel are more likely to recognize warning signs after a student has already been hurt; such warning signs include requests for confidential meetings to discuss incidents, absenteeism, and social withdrawal.
- Respondents were more likely to recognize early warning signs of interpersonal violence than were study abroad personnel.
- Students commonly identified the following incidents: street harassment (including stalking), sexual harassment, alcohol-related incidents (including fights and substance-facilitated sexual assault), gender-based violence, and intimate partner violence among members of their host communities.
- Students experience a range of barriers to intervening, including cultural and general barriers.
- Cultural barriers identified include: differences in legal and common definitions of harm, unreliable helping resources, cultural normalization of misogyny, outsider status, negative stereotypes about Americans, negative sexualized stereotypes about American women, language barriers, adherence to language pledges, and lack of access to communication devices.

- General barriers identified include: fears about personal safety, personality traits, and uncertainty.
- Students and study abroad personnel are most likely to use indirect interventions, including delegating to someone else or causing a distraction to prevent harm.
- Students are more likely to intervene directly when they can do so in a group. Indeed, students commonly express the importance of group safety and their accountability for each other while abroad. Group safety norms are likely a powerful protective factor for students studying abroad.
- Students mostly receive risk reduction training and information about local laws and customs prior to traveling abroad; they have mixed perceptions of the effectiveness of these efforts.
- Students would like to receive more information about cultural sensitivity, situational analysis, and bias (including racism and homophobia) that they might experience abroad.
- Students indicate a preference for interactive programming that integrates discussion, real-life scenarios, and skills practice. They also desire programming that has either been tailored for the specific cultural context in which they are studying or that can be adapted.
- Students also appreciate opportunities to reflect on negative and confusing experiences when they return from their study abroad.

Implications

Several clear themes resonate from these data. First and foremost, both study abroad student participants and program personnel are concerned about interpersonal violence and believe that they have a role to play in preventing it. Colleges and universities *must* capitalize on this intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy when creating or improving primary prevention efforts targeted at this population. In doing so, colleges should utilize the insights shared by students and program personnel within this section.

Concerns about identity and its impact on the likelihood of experiencing harm, barriers to intervention, and realistic interventions were a clear theme among interviewees, survey respondents, and focus group participants. Nearly all students and personnel spoke about aspects of their identity, including gender, race, sexuality, and nationality, and the way that these dimensions affected their experiences of harm and how they responded. Their insights make it clear that opportunities to critically reflect on identity and study abroad are needed before, during, and after study abroad experiences.

Additionally, throughout these data students widely endorsed group safety norms, sharing the ways in which they looked out for each other to prevent interpersonal violence and other harm. Colleges and universities should encourage and reinforce these norms among study abroad student participants and program personnel. Doing so may necessitate revising practices and policies designed to increase cultural immersion and language fluency such as language pledges. The data presented within this section suggest students perceive language pledges as an implied restriction from communicating about concerning behaviors and reporting harms that they have experienced in ways that are comfortable to them. For this reason, we recommend that colleges and universities either a) proactively and clearly communicate exceptions to language pledges to reinforce group safety norms and eliminate barriers to prevention and response or, b) clarify that existing language pledges do not apply when students have safety concerns.

The data further suggest that another means of eliminating barriers is to ensure that there are clear and reliable helping resources to which student participants and program personnel can delegate intervention. This may necessitate establishing reliable resources such as 24-hour helplines where helping resources do not exist. It will almost certainly necessitate training study abroad program personnel on how to effectively respond when students reach out to them for support. Once reliable resources are established and staff are well-trained, these resources must be communicated clearly to students and reinforced with convenient reminders such as a wallet card with helping resource information. In locations where helping resources such as law enforcement are perceived to be unreliable, this should also be clearly communicated to students so that they can make informed choices about their safety abroad.

Lastly, the data indicate that student participants would like more options to discuss concerning behaviors, reflect on barriers to intervention, and practice intervention before they depart on their journeys abroad or once onsite at the start of their study abroad experiences. We recommend that interactive, skills-based pre-orientation programming be created or reinforced so that students may reflect, discuss, and practice skills, bolstering their ability to keep each other safe during their study abroad experiences.

We used these overarching themes to guide our literature review. As we searched for and perused articles, we sought to further investigate the findings presented here to substantiate student and personnel perceptions with rigorous evidence. From the evidence found, we also sought guidance that could inform best practices for preventing interpersonal violence among students studying abroad. Using this guidance, we then created tools to support colleges and universities in enacting these best practices. In the sections that follow, we have summarized findings, presented recommendations, and described the tools we created for the toolkit that accompanies this review.

LITERATURE REVIEW METHODS AND FINDINGS

To supplement data collected from key informant interviews, surveys, and focus groups, we conducted a literature review to explore best practices for preventing interpersonal violence among college students participating in study abroad programs. After testing search terms in Google Scholar, we searched PubMed, PsychInfo, and Web of Science using “study abroad” in combination with “sexual assault,” “violence prevention,” “dating violence,” “domestic violence,” “intimate partner violence,” “stalking,” “bystander intervention,” and “sexual health” as search terms. Across these databases and search terms, our search yielded 92 possible articles. We then conducted a cursory review of abstracts, excluding studies that were not peer-reviewed, irrelevant to the issue of study, unavailable in English, or unable to be located. We reviewed the remaining articles, opting to exclude undergraduate and graduate dissertations, based on the lack of rigorous methods used and the lack of peer-reviewed articles resulting from their work. In total, 46 articles were excluded based on these criteria and an additional twelve were excluded because they were dissertations, resulting in 34 articles that were relevant to our research topic.

After perusing the 34 articles, we identified two unique areas of inquiry and conducted a supplemental literature search to gather more information. The first area of inquiry was how aspects of identity such as gender, race, sexuality, and ability influence student choices to study abroad; we located an additional six articles for review based on this supplemental search. The second area of inquiry was how the US Peace Corps has devised sexual assault prevention and response efforts to address a past increase in sexual assault incidence; we located an additional six articles for review based on this supplemental search. Several of these supplemental articles were not from peer-reviewed journals; rather, they were culled from agency reports and national conference proceedings. With the addition of these sources, this literature review examines findings from 46 unique sources. Using information gleaned across sources, we then generated a list of findings for each area of inquiry, recommendations for interpersonal violence prevention best practices, and descriptions of tools that will aid colleges in utilizing the recommended best practices to prevent interpersonal violence among students participating in educational experiences abroad.

Student Experiences of Interpersonal Violence While Studying Abroad

The literature search uncovered only nine articles that focused on sexual assault. Of these, seven were peer-reviewed studies. All had small sample sizes and significant limitations that limit the generalizability of their findings. However, they represent the extent of the literature on this topic. Each of these studies, their methods, and results are summarized in the paragraphs and summary table below.

The most relevant and rigorous studies of this topic were conducted by Kimble et al. (2013) and Flack et al. (2015). Both researchers conducted surveys that assessed interpersonal violence among undergraduate students who had studied abroad. Although they each attained small sample sizes, the composition of the samples studied mimics the general profile of students studying abroad as presented in the background section (e.g. female, white, juniors).

Kimble et al. (2013) conducted an online survey with 218 undergraduate female students who had studied abroad in the two years prior to the survey. The majority of the sample identified as white (75.2%), heterosexual (87%), and studied abroad for a single semester (78%). The students surveyed studied in a range of locations, including English-speaking Europe or Australia/New Zealand (11%), non-English speaking Europe (40.8%), Asia (14.7%), Central and South America (20.6%), and Africa (8.7%). The survey assessed sexual experiences and language fluency. Overall, 38% of the sample reported some type of unwanted sexual experience while abroad. Of these, 25.5% reported at least one experience of unwanted touching, 6% reported an attempted sexual assault, and 4.6% reported a completed sexual assault. Semester risk is defined as the percentage of students that is likely to have an unwanted experience during a single semester. Semester risk for experiencing nonconsensual sexual contact while studying abroad was 24.5% (compared with 5.6% on US campuses). Semester risk for experiencing attempted sexual assault while studying abroad was 5.28% (compared with 1.67% on US campuses). Semester risk for experiencing completed sexual assault while studying abroad was 4.13% (compared with 0.83% on US campuses). Perpetration of nonconsensual sexual contact was mostly carried out by nonstudent local residents (86.8%). The remainder were perpetrated by fellow students in the study abroad program. Language fluency was not a significant factor. Based on these findings, the authors concluded that sexual assault risk is higher for female students studying abroad than for their counterparts in the US (Kimble, Flack, & Burbridge, 2013).

Flack et al. (2015) conducted an online survey with 208 female undergraduates from a small university in the northeastern US who had completed a semester or academic year abroad. The majority of the sample identified as white (87.5%), in their junior year of college (62.5%), and studied in Europe (71%) during their study abroad experience. The survey assessed sexual experiences, PTSD, use of alcohol, and use of other drugs. The prevalence of undergraduate women surveyed who experienced any kind of sexual assault victimization during study abroad was 18.8%. The prevalence of attempted or completed rape during study abroad was 8.7%. While these numbers are consistent with measures of sexual assault on US college campuses, the timeframe for prevalence measurement differs by context. Prevalence estimates within US colleges are typically based on past-year or lifetime experiences of sexual assault while prevalence estimates within study abroad are typically based on only one to two semesters, indicating that students participating in such programs may be at elevated risk for sexual assault relative to peers at their home institution. The most

commonly used perpetration tactics reported in study abroad settings were physical force (61.5%), incapacitation due to alcohol consumption (33%), and threats (28%). Most were victimized by other students, either attending the same university abroad (59%) or a different university (46%) (Flack et al., 2015). Although the external validity of these results is limited due to small sample size and sample composition, these findings further suggest that students studying abroad may be at increased risk of experiencing sexual assault.

Hummer et al. (2010) conducted a pre-/post-survey of 121 undergraduate students from a medium-sized public university on the west coast who completed a study abroad experience. Students were surveyed at six weeks prior to departure and again ten weeks into their study abroad experience. The survey assessed trip expectations, alcohol use, alcohol-related consequences (including unwanted sexual experiences), and cultural perceptions. Male respondents reported drinking 2.38 days per week prior and 2.29 days during study abroad. Women drank 1.81 days before and 2.76 days during study abroad. The number of drinks consumed per occasion was slightly higher abroad for both groups. Both male and female students reported having sexual encounters that they later regretted (32% and 23%, respectively), having sex when they did not really want to (8% and 4%, respectively), and experiencing pressured or forced sex when drunk (8% and 3%, respectively). Lastly, the authors reported that men and women who had negative sexual experiences drank more drinks per occasion than those who experienced no consequences, highlighting a possible link between alcohol use and sexual assault (Hummer, Pedersen, Mirza, & LaBrie, 2010). The fact that perpetrators of sexual assault often use substances to facilitate sexual assault makes these findings especially concerning.

Wright et al. (2017) expanded on this research by exploring trauma exposure and experiences of institutional betrayal (defined as “an institution’s failure to prevent trauma or support survivors”) among students who had studied abroad. The authors conducted an online survey with 173 undergraduate students at a large public university in the Pacific Northwest. In total, 45% reported experiencing a traumatic event while studying abroad (27% personal experience, 26% witnessed, 45% both). The most frequent trauma experiences reported were natural disasters, sexual assault, and unwanted sexual experiences. The length of time a student spent abroad strongly predicted the number of traumatic events, with students spending greater amounts of time abroad experiencing a greater number of traumatic experiences. Students who experienced sexual assault or unwanted sexual experiences were most likely to identify members of the host country that the student did not know (38%) as those who harmed them. However, 59% of this subsample did not report a perpetrator. Of those who experienced a traumatic experience abroad, 35% also reported experiencing institutional betrayal. Most often, this was by creating an environment that increased the likelihood of the traumatic event (50%). Reported experiences of institutional betrayal correlated with PTSD, even when controlling for trauma history (Wright, Smith, & Freyd, 2017). Although the small sample size and broad definition

of study outcomes limit the generalizability of these findings, the results suggest that students studying abroad may be exposed to a variety of traumatic events and thus may be susceptible to experiencing institutional betrayal and/or resulting PTSD if their home campus is unable to prevent the traumatic experience or adequately support them.

Marcantonio et al. (2018) conducted online surveys with 129 undergraduate students at a midsize public university in the US who had completed a study abroad experience. Surveys assessed sex with casual partners, the sexualization of the environment (defined as “an environment that supports or encourages sexual activity”), alcohol use, verbal coercion (defined as “verbally convincing someone to have sex”), sexual victimization due to verbal coercion, and perpetration using verbal coercion. Overall, 38% of survey participants reported at least one experience of sexual victimization due to verbal coercion, and 19% reported perpetrating this behavior abroad. They further found that male students reported higher numbers of sexual partners while studying abroad than their female counterparts and those immersed in a sexualized environment were more likely to experience both victimization and perpetration (Marcantonio, Angelone, & Joppa, 2018). However, it is important to interpret these findings with extreme caution as study measures were not well defined. The published article does not offer readers a clear understanding of the ways in which verbal coercion, sexual victimization, and perpetration were defined and measured, making it difficult to discern the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, non-standard scales were used, making it extremely difficult to compare their results to incidence rates reported in the other studies summarized here.

Rather than measuring incidence and prevalence of sexual assault among students studying abroad, Hartjes et al. (2009) conducted a survey to explore the ways in which students prepared for their journeys abroad as well as their perceptions of the risks they might face. The authors conducted online surveys with 318 undergraduate students at a large public university in the Midwest US who were about to complete a study abroad experience. They found that the majority of students gathered information from travel guidebooks such as *Lonely Planet* (85%) consultations with primary care providers (60%), the US State Department website (57%), the Central Intelligence Agency World Factbook (33%), the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (24%), and the World Health Organization (21%). Their top five risk perceptions in order of greatest concern were: contaminated food/water, psychological distress, physical/sexual assault, excessive sun exposure, and motor vehicle accidents (Hartjes, Baumann, & Henriques, 2009). These results suggest that students traveling abroad are indeed concerned about experiencing physical and/or sexual assault during their journeys. Interestingly, the sources where they gather information typically offer little insight about the risks of experiencing assault and even less information about how to prevent it, suggesting an unmet need among this student population.

Additionally, prior to several of the quantitative surveys summarized above, Rawlins (2012) did formative research on this topic by conducting a series of eighteen qualitative interviews with female undergraduate students at a small liberal arts college in upstate New York. Half of the interviewees were white while half identified as students of color. All participants were asked about their experiences of public harassment while studying abroad. For all but one interviewee, their experience abroad represented the first time they had traveled alone. They reported receiving a great deal of risk reduction education at pre-departure. This education led them to be fearful and reserved about traveling during the beginning of their stay. However, as time went on and they acclimated to the host culture, they reported venturing out and traveling much more.

All of them encountered sexualized stereotypes of American women, experienced cat-calling, and received harassing comments about their appearance. About half experienced physical violations of personal boundaries such as unwanted touching or being photographed without permission. Students of color experienced additional race-based harassment. They responded mostly by ignoring the behavior or changing routes to avoid harassment. Many struggled to define their experiences as harassment due to cultural barriers, yet their experiences of harassment were universally perceived as a source of frustration as they sought independence and empowerment through their study abroad experiences (Rawlins, 2012).

Summary of Findings

Together, these studies suggest that:

- Female students studying abroad may face increased risk of experiencing sexual assault during their time abroad.
- Perpetrator profiles may differ across settings; while students attending colleges in the US are more likely to experience harm at the hands of a peer attending the same university, students studying abroad are more likely to experience harm at the hands of a local resident or peer outside of their program of study.
- Students studying abroad may consume more alcohol than they would at home and increased consumption may be linked to negative experiences including unwanted sexual encounters. This finding will be explored further in the next section of this literature review.
- Street harassment, including unwanted touching, is a common experience among female students studying abroad.
- Such behaviors may be intensified by pervasive negative sexual stereotypes about American women.

- Such behaviors may also be intensified by racial bias; students of color experience additional race-based harassment and discrimination while traveling abroad.
- Students are concerned about their health and safety when traveling abroad and actively seek information about physical and sexual assault.
- When universities do not actively try to prevent students traveling abroad from experiencing trauma or when they do not respond to incidents supportively, students may experience feelings of institutional betrayal and post-traumatic stress; such feelings may negatively impact the remainder of their college experiences.

Recommendations

Although each of the studies summarized within this section has methodological limitations, their findings suggest that students studying abroad are at increased risk of experiencing interpersonal violence. This risk is intensified for students of color, who report experiencing additional race-based harassment and discrimination when studying abroad. The evidence of increased risk necessitates that colleges plan comprehensive interpersonal violence prevention efforts to reduce the likelihood of harm. The evidence also necessitates that colleges bolster their primary prevention efforts with comprehensive intervention and response planning so that students are adequately supported during and after their educational experiences abroad.

In addition to evidence of increased interpersonal violence risk, this literature suggests that students are concerned about their health and safety abroad, including physical and sexual assault. This illustrates that students are intrinsically motivated to engage in primary prevention. We recommend that colleges harness this by presenting students with high quality pre-orientation programming to address their concerns and teach them bystander intervention skills to prevent harm and set group safety norms, which serve as protective factors against interpersonal violence. Given the experiences of students of color who have traveled abroad, we further recommend that colleges offer students opportunities to reflect on their identities in new cultural contexts—before, during, and after their experiences abroad. Lastly, we recommend that colleges collect interpersonal violence incidence data among students traveling abroad to assess the possibility of increased risk and tailor prevention and response efforts. To aid colleges in implementing these recommendations, we have provided a number of tools in the accompanying toolkit to this report.

First, we have included several scales to assess interpersonal violence incidence among students who have traveled abroad. We recommend that colleges use these scales to regularly assess interpersonal violence incidence among students who have traveled abroad. Having this knowledge will enable them to tailor prevention and response efforts and measure the effectiveness of these efforts over time. Once

collected, these data will also aid colleges in informing students and their parents about interpersonal violence. In addition, we have included tools to help institutions plan prevention and response efforts at every stage of the study abroad experience. These tools are described in the sections that follow.

Health Risk Behavior Among Students Studying Abroad

Much of the literature reviewed examined health risk behaviors among students studying abroad, including substance use and sexual behaviors. The results of these studies are summarized below.

Sexual Risk Behaviors

Marcantonio et al. (2016) conducted online surveys with 173 undergraduate students at a midsize public university in the US who had completed a study abroad experience. Overall, 7% of their sample reported having sex without a condom during their study abroad experience, 27% reported having sex with a casual partner, and 14% reported engaging in both behaviors. Characteristics most predictive of risky sexual behavior were situational conditions (including alcohol use), historical experiences with condom use, and intentions to engage in risky sexual activity. Students most immersed in their study abroad environment were more likely to engage in high risk sexual activity. The authors concluded that engaging in sexual risk behavior may place students studying abroad at greater risk for sexually transmitted infections and sexual assault (Marcantonio, Angelone, & Sledjeski, 2016).

Substance Use

A number of authors investigated student substance use while studying abroad and its associations with negative consequences. Aresi et al. (2016) found that students drank more and experienced more negative consequences, including sexual assault, while abroad compared to pre-departure levels. The authors then followed their survey by conducting a systematic review (Aresi, Moore, & Marta, 2016a), finding that students enrolled in short-term (i.e. one – two semester) study abroad programs were more likely to engage in risky substance abuse than students completing a full bachelor's or master's degree abroad. The authors found some evidence that social norms in host countries may impact student substance use, especially for those students who fully immerse themselves in the host culture.

Angelin et al. (2015) conducted a survey (n=335) and found that half of all participants reported increasing their alcohol consumption while abroad, 20% met a new sexual

partner while abroad, and increased alcohol consumption was associated with increased likelihood of meeting a new sexual partner (Angelin, Evengård, & Palmgren, 2015).

Pedersen and colleagues conducted a number of studies regarding substance use and sexual risk behavior while studying abroad. Pedersen et al. (2009) found that pre-abroad drinking intentions and perceptions of drinking in the host country were associated with actual drinking behavior once abroad.

They continued to examine these themes over time, conducting an online survey that found that students who planned to study abroad drank more and experienced greater alcohol-related consequences than students with no intention to study abroad, indicating that students who plan to study abroad may be a heavier drinking student subgroup who would benefit from preventative programming. They found that studying abroad in Europe and Oceania, being younger than age 21, intention to drink while abroad, and perceptions of alcohol use among students in their host country were all associated with increased alcohol consumption while abroad (Pedersen, Larimer, & Lee, 2010). Together, these findings suggest that students may engage in greater substance use while abroad. As a result, they are more vulnerable to being targeted by sexual predators and warrant preventative programming before departing.

Health Risk Behavior Among Travelers

In addition to the studies summarized above, which focus on health risk behavior among students, a small number of articles focused on health risk behavior among international travelers more generally. For example, in their survey of 6,502 British and German tourists ages 16 – 35, Calafat et al. (2013) discovered that the majority (52%) chose their intended destination for its night life, visited bars and clubs frequently during their stay (68%), experienced frequent intoxication (71%), and experienced increased negative consequences such as verbal and physical altercations (13% involved in an argument, 4% involved in a physical altercation) (Calafat et al., 2013). Bellis et al. (2004) conducted a similar study with travelers ages 16 – 35 from the United Kingdom who had traveled to Ibiza for vacation. They found that younger adults traveling abroad were more likely to take risks and engage in casual sexual encounters while abroad (Calafat et al., 2013). Although these studies are not specific to students studying abroad, they do reinforce the literature on risk behavior among students and are important to consider as they relate to preventative measures designed for travelers that may hold promise for students studying abroad.

Existing Prevention Interventions to Reduce Health Risk Behavior among International Travelers

Based in part on the literature presented here about health risk behaviors among students and travelers abroad, a number of authors designed and pilot-tested interventions to curb health risk behaviors among international travelers. These represent the extent of the literature uncovered about possible preventative interventions and thus may shed light on promising practices for interpersonal violence prevention programming.

Gehring et al. (1998) were among the first to conduct health risk interventions designed to prevent HIV transmission among travelers. After conducting a sexual health intervention in an airport in which they disseminated information and encouraged safe sex practices, they then approached departing and arriving passengers to survey them about their perceptions of the intervention and their behavior when traveling abroad. They found that most travelers appreciated the intervention and that those who received the intervention were better informed about HIV risks than those who did not. However, when compared to those who did not receive the intervention, no differences in sexual risk behavior were observed. Although almost all departing passengers reported that they intended to practice safe sex, only half actually did so while traveling. The authors concluded that while disseminating information increased knowledge, it did not actually change behavior (Gehring, Widmer, Kleiber, & Steffen, 1998).

Von Sadovsky et al. (2009) did formative research to assess their perceptions of a self-administered sexual risk prevention intervention with women enlisted in the US Army who had previously been deployed. They provided 20 participants with a self-administered sexual risk calculator, a reference guide to help them understand their risk and possible preventative measures, and free condoms. They found that participants positively received the intervention and made few suggestions to improve the information provided or design. Given that they did not assess actual behavioral outcomes, little can be inferred from this study to inform future prevention programming, save that this population was receptive to health risk information (Von Sadovszky et al., 2009). Traveler receptivity was also illustrated by Ryan and Twibell (2000) who found that students studying abroad are concerned about and interested in receiving information to help them with fitting in, succeeding academically, increasing language fluency, and staying safe while abroad (Ryan & Twibell, 2000). The finding that travelers are interested in and receptive to receiving health risk information prior to traveling abroad parallels the conclusions of Hartjes et al. (2009), presented earlier in this report.

Senn et al. (2011) conducted a three-arm randomized control trial to assess the effects of interventions to prevent sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among travel

clinic visitors. Nurses recruited 1,115 participants and assigned them to one of three conditions: a) standard pre-travel consultation; b) standard consultation plus free condoms; or c) standard consultation, condoms, and motivational, brief intervention. Despite the rigor of their methods, the authors found that neither motivational, brief intervention nor the provision of free condoms curbed risky sexual behavior of young travelers (Senn, de Valliere, Berdoz, & Genton, 2011). These findings suggest that a different intervention design may be needed to change risk behavior among travelers.

Hartjes and Baumann (2012) created an educational videogame designed to educate students about malaria risks and prevention behaviors. They randomly assigned students (n=418) to participate in one of three intervention options: a) the game automatically provided feedback about answers, b) the game provided feedback only if players sought it, c) the game offered no explanatory feedback about answers. They found that baseline malaria knowledge was low and that postgame knowledge and risk perception were higher than pregame levels for all intervention conditions. Those who automatically received explanatory feedback had higher mean knowledge scores after the intervention. However, the authors were unable to assess whether increases in knowledge resulted in behavior change, limiting the utility of these findings (Hartjes & Baumann, 2012). Despite this limitation, their results indicate that offering students an interactive intervention may result in greater knowledge gain.

Croughs and colleagues conducted a series of preventative intervention studies. Initially, they surveyed travelers who had visited a pre-travel clinic to assess their sexual behavioral intentions and actual behaviors (n=1907). They found that traveling with condoms and reading information about STIs and condom use were predictive of engaging in safe sex while abroad, suggesting that travelers are receptive to receiving information about health risks when traveling and that pre-travel clinics may be a potential venue for disseminating prevention information (Croughs, Van Gompel, De Boer, & Van Den Ende, 2008).

Following this, they led a team of investigators conducting a systematic review about the effect of pre-travel advice on sexual risk behavior abroad. Half of the studies reviewed examined the effects of interventions using motivational interviewing (MI) as compared to the standard of care (e.g., receiving literature about health risks and advice from doctor). They found that interventions using MI did not yield greater effects than the standard of care. They were unable to find a single clinical trial examining the effects of standard of care, but the studies reviewed indicated that although reviewing literature about health risks did not reduce the number of casual sexual encounters travelers had, it did increase consistent condom use (Croughs, Remmen, & Van den Ende, 2014). From this research basis, they then conducted a study to explore whether travel clinic visitors read the literature provided on sexual risks abroad. Surveys of 130 travel clinic visitors revealed that half of respondents reported reading the information. Those who read the information were more likely to be male and traveling with others. Those who did not were more likely to be high

risk travelers, defined as traveling without companions. None of the travelers reported visiting the web links provided to find additional information about sexual risks and preventative measures. The authors concluded that merely disseminating information is not sufficient to reduce sexual risk behavior among travelers (Croughs, de Gouw, Remmen, & Van den Ende, 2017).

Although none of these interventions specifically focused on interpersonal violence among students studying abroad, their findings do have implications for preventing interpersonal violence. First, they suggest that merely disseminating information about risks and preventative measures is not sufficient to change behavior among travelers. Second, they indicate that travelers may be more receptive to interactive interventions such as games with opportunities to receive feedback. Focus group and key informant interview findings support these implications; students struggled to remember pre-departure information received and expressed a desire to receive interactive, skills-based training rather than passively receiving risk reduction literature.

Summary of Findings

Together these studies suggest that:

- Students and travelers engage in risky health behavior when studying abroad, including casual and/or unprotected sex, increased consumption of alcohol, and use of other controlled substances.
- Engaging in such risk behaviors makes them vulnerable to negative experiences such as sexual assault, sexually transmitted infections, unwanted pregnancy, verbal aggression, physical assault, and theft.
- Factors associated with risk behavior include shorter duration of stay (i.e. one semester or less), perceptions of host culture norms, behavioral intentions at pre-departure, and students' degree of cultural immersion.
- Students who enroll in study abroad programs possess greater interest in risk-taking than peers who do not opt to study abroad.
- Although students and travelers are amenable to receiving information about health risks and behavior, simply distributing literature regarding risks and preventative measures is not sufficient to change their behavior.
- Skill-based components may help students to set positive behavioral intentions and practice behaviors that are in-line with them, such as recognizing risk, bystander intervention, group safety strategies, and group communication during emergencies.

Recommendations

The studies summarized in this section indicate that students engage in a greater degree of risk-taking when traveling abroad. Increased risk-taking is associated with both behavioral intention and perceived host country norms. Simply stated, these data suggest that students embark on their educational experiences planning to take risks and have an adventure. Moreover, their perceptions about host country norms, whether accurate or inaccurate, influences their behavior abroad. This is particularly true for drinking behavior; when students perceive that their host country peers drink excessively, they increase their consumption. These findings were also reflected in the key informant interviews, surveys, and focus groups we conducted.

In addition, the subset of intervention studies strongly suggests that providing students with passive information, such as brochures or other literature is not sufficient to change their health risk behavior. Both because of this and because behavioral intention is an important predictor of behavior, we recommend that colleges provide interactive, skills-based pre-departure training that prepares students to recognize warning signs of harm and activates group safety norms that support intervening to keep each other safe. Students need ample opportunity to practice these skills before they embark on their journeys abroad so that they are prepared to recognize harm and intervene to prevent it at the earliest possible sign of concern.

For this reason, we have included a number of tools to aid study abroad personnel in creating and tailoring interpersonal violence prevention training content. The accompanying toolkit contains lists of warning signs, barriers to intervention, intervention options, and prompts for communicating group safety norms. It also contains a set of scenarios to aid students in practicing interventions. To aid colleges in tailoring these to the unique contexts in which their students study, we have also included a content adaptation tool. Lastly, we have included a list of practice activities where students can apply bystander intervention skills.

Additionally, because perceived drinking norms are a predictor of drinking behavior and because student perceptions are not always correct, colleges may want to include information about actual drinking behavior on host campuses. This is an established practice within other existing alcohol and other drugs (AOD) interventions targeted at this population. Beyond resetting perceptions, colleges may need to plan for AOD interventions once students return. The evidence presented here suggests that students may continue to drink at elevated levels once they return to the US, thus necessitating possible intervention at re-entry. Tools to support the creation of such interventions is beyond the purview of this report, which focuses on interpersonal violence prevention. However, we recommend that study abroad personnel partner with established AOD experts on their respective campuses to implement evidence-based interventions to prevent alcohol abuse among students.

Identity and Study Abroad Participation

Despite a trend of increased participation, few students of racial or ethnic minority status travel abroad. Indeed, of the 10% of US-based college students that opt to study abroad, only 25% identify as racial or ethnic minorities (Engel, 2017). The key informant interviews, surveys, and focus groups summarized earlier indicate that those who do travel abroad face additional race-based discrimination and harassment. They appear to be targeted more frequently and aggressively, and perceive helping institutions to be especially unreliable due to racial bias. Students of color who we interviewed expressed an overwhelming desire for increased representation of both students and program staff of color. They also requested additional information about the unique situations they face abroad and space to process their experiences in a critically reflexive way. In addition, a majority of students and program personnel who we surveyed or interviewed identified pervasive homophobia as an important cultural consideration within their programs of study. To ensure that underrepresented students' needs are met, we conducted a targeted literature review to gain additional insight about minority student experiences and implications for inclusive interpersonal violence prevention.

Most of the existing literature about underrepresented students points to the barriers they face to participating in study abroad programs such as cost, financial aid restrictions that prohibit international study, family and community influences, fear of racism and discrimination, historical patterns and expectations, lack of awareness of study abroad options, concerns about graduating on time, institutional factors, and lack of relevant study abroad options (Brux & Fry, 2010; Engel, 2017). Colleges and universities have made efforts to address these barriers by offering targeted scholarships for Pell Grant recipients who wish to study abroad, allowing students to apply federal loans to such programs, and offering special faculty-led programs that aim to recruit low income and first-generation students of color. While the efficacy of these efforts remains to be evaluated, preliminary research suggests that students of lower socioeconomic status are less likely to study abroad even when they are offered scholarships, indicating that scholarships may not be sufficient to reduce barriers for these students (Engel, 2017). Part of the reason that scholarships may not be sufficient to reduce barriers for underrepresented students is that finances are not the sole barrier that these students face to participating. Thus, a more thorough exploration of these barriers is warranted.

Bryant and Soria (2015) conducted an analysis and found that students of color and students with disabilities face substantial barriers to accessing study abroad programs. They also found that students who identify as bisexual, gay, or lesbian were more likely to study abroad than their heterosexual peers (Bryant & Soria, 2015). This is especially important given the large number of students and program staff who identified widespread homophobia as an important cultural consideration for IPV prevention among students studying abroad.

Family concerns and attitudes are an important issue for underrepresented students when considering whether or not to study abroad. Many such students have family or work commitments that cannot be fulfilled if they are away from home for an extended period. While some immigrant families embrace their child's desire to reconnect with their heritage, others are reluctant to send their children abroad after working so hard to emigrate to the US. Families of underrepresented students worry about safety and health due to lack of accessibility and/or the impacts of racism and homophobia. These concerns are also articulated by underrepresented students themselves. Students of color have expressed that while they know and understand the dynamics of American racism, they are reluctant to navigate its foreign variations (Brux & Fry, 2010). Their concerns are warranted, as students of color who study abroad often experience additional harassment (including sexual harassment) and aggression relative to their white counterparts abroad.

To illustrate this point, Tasha Willis (2016) conducted interviews with nineteen women of color to explore their experiences of microaggression while studying abroad through community colleges. All of the women interviewed reported experiencing microaggressions from both peers and people in their host countries including racially biased comments, social isolation, surveillance and rudeness within retail settings, sexualized racial comments, sexual harassment, and negative assumptions about language acquisition and fluency. The author further found that US peers abroad played a meaningful role in shaping interviewees' experiences and that they found it helpful when at least one other peer in their program was also a student of color, illustrating the importance of representation to student safety abroad (Willis, 2016).

Underrepresented students often do not feel that study abroad is "for them" based on the profile of who usually participates (i.e. heterosexual, white, affluent students). Often, students of color perceive study abroad as elitist and unavailable to them. This feeling is magnified by a lack of representation among study abroad staff and former program participants, which creates a lack of mentors and peer role model relationships that might increase their confidence to study abroad (Brux & Fry, 2010; Sweeney, 2013; Willis, 2016). It is also magnified by a lack of relevant study abroad options. Underrepresented students, particularly those from immigrant families and racial/ethnic minority families are often most interested in non-traditional study abroad options, including locations outside of Europe, heritage-seeking programs, programs with a focus on race and culture, and shorter-term immersion experiences (Brux & Fry, 2010).

Institutions have a major role to play in reducing the harm students of color face while studying abroad. Researchers recommend a number of possible practices that may reduce harm such as: prioritize increasing participation among underrepresented students, hire diverse program staff, partner with other colleges who serve underrepresented students (e.g., HBCUs, community colleges, tribal colleges) include

critically reflexive content in study abroad orientation and staff training, and broaden the narrative to include the experiences of underrepresented students who study abroad (Brux & Fry, 2010; Engel, 2017; Sweeney, 2013; Willis, 2016).

Summary of Findings

Together, findings from this literature suggest:

- Underrepresented students face myriad barriers to studying abroad including cost, financial aid restrictions that prohibit international study, family and community influences, fear of racism and discrimination, historical patterns and expectations, lack of awareness of study abroad options, concerns about graduating on time, institutional factors, and lack of relevant study abroad options.
- Although most interventions to mitigate these barriers have focused on financial accessibility, research indicates that finances are neither the sole nor driving barrier that keeps them from studying abroad.
- Students of color experience additional race-based harassment and microaggressions when traveling abroad.
- Limited literature suggests that LGBTQ students experience additional homophobic and transphobic discrimination and that students with disabilities experience inaccessibility and discrimination when traveling abroad.
- Students of color traveling abroad may benefit from greater representation of students and program staff of color during their study abroad experience as well as opportunities to critically reflect before, during, and after experiences abroad.
- Educational institutions have a meaningful role to play in ensuring student safety abroad, including hiring diverse program staff, partnering with other colleges who serve underrepresented students, offering critically reflexive content in study abroad orientation and staff training, and broadening narratives to include the experiences of underrepresented students who study abroad.

Recommendations

Based on the literature, we recommend a few strategies to increase safety among underrepresented students studying abroad:

- Apply the concept of inclusive excellence to examine the participation of students of color in study abroad and establish efforts to resolve underrepresentation and increase student safety.

- Based on findings, take measures to achieve inclusive excellence, such as but not limited to including critically reflexive content in study abroad orientation, staff training, and debriefing sessions.
- Expand narratives about study abroad experiences to include experiences of underrepresented students in study abroad.

Each of these practices is explained in further detail below.

Given that underrepresented students often face more frequent and intense harassment and discrimination abroad than their majority peers, we believe that using a version of the Inclusive Excellence Scorecard may be a critical first step in understanding underrepresented students' perceptions and lived experiences. In so doing, it may also illuminate pathways and practices not only for increasing their representation in study abroad, but also for ensuring their safety when they do opt to participate in such programs. For this reason, we have provided a version of the Inclusive Excellence Scorecard in the accompanying toolkit to this literature review.

Inclusive excellence is an approach designed to shift diversity efforts from a focus on increasing numbers of diverse students to a focus on comprehensively examining university systems and the ways in which they recognize, enhance, and facilitate the contributions of the entire community (Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005; Sweeney, 2013; Williams, Berger, & McClendon, 2005). The Association of American Colleges and Universities has embraced this approach as a way of enhancing student development, purposefully using resources to enhance learning, attending to cultural differences that enhance learning, and fostering safe and welcoming communities (Milem et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2005). A group of researchers developed a scorecard to assess inclusive excellence that includes four areas of inquiry: 1) Access and equity, 2) Campus climate, 3) Diversity in the formal and informal curriculum, and 4) Learning and development. Sweeney (2013) adapted this tool for use within the study abroad context. The resulting scorecard tool assesses the number and success levels of students of color in study abroad, the development of a supportive climate for all students on both campuses at home and abroad, the inclusion of diversity content in study abroad program materials (e.g., advising materials, information sessions, orientation classes, debriefing sessions), and the acquisition of content knowledge about diverse groups and cultures. Although intended to examine study abroad participation among students of color, the authors note that the tool, "can be adapted for other underrepresented groups within study abroad" (Sweeney, 2013).

Based on the findings gleaned from the scorecard, we recommend that colleges take measures to achieve inclusive excellence within their study abroad programming. One such measure is to consider the identity composition of study abroad programs and their personnel to facilitate group cohesion and to ensure that diverse students are represented and supported while abroad. Another measure is for pre-departure orientations to address identity with openness, creating space for students to

understand the unique experiences of underrepresented students such as students of color, LGBTQ students, and students with disabilities while studying abroad. In addition to understanding these unique experiences, space should be created to explicitly discuss how they can support each other and foster group safety norms within their program cohorts. Willis (2016) supports this notion, stating that, "Orientations should include awareness-raising activities that directly broach personal identity, modeling openness, and building trust on these issues that are often otherwise taboo in daily discussions." To aid colleges in creating opportunities for reflection and skills practice, we have included several scenarios with identity-based harassment, so that students and study abroad personnel may be better able to recognize these harms and respond when they occur.

While students are abroad, measures to achieve inclusive excellence may necessitate that program personnel conduct routine check-ins to ensure physical safety as well as to explore how students are experiencing their identities within the host culture. Willis (2016) suggests that such check-ins may "[foster] a climate in which microaggressions and other sensitive issues are safer for students to address directly themselves or with support." She notes that in some cases, skillful intervention may be required to help affected students process emotions, to facilitate learning among those who have intentionally or unintentionally caused harm, and to enhance group cohesion. Once students return home, inclusive excellence measures should be folded into re-entry programs such as debriefing sessions, offering students a space to honestly and critically reflect on their experiences abroad. Willis (2016) suggests that offering course credits for attending may incentivize student and faculty participation in critical reflection. To help colleges implement this recommendation, we have included critical reflection questions and guidance that colleges can use to foster needed dialogue before, during, and after study abroad experiences.

It is also important to note that achieving inclusive excellence in study abroad will likely be an iterative, ongoing process requiring collaboration and compassion. As schools use the score card in the accompanying toolkit and begin taking measures to achieve inclusive excellence and to ensure the safety of underrepresented students abroad, we anticipate that they will gather much formal and informal data. As this happens, it is critical that colleges use these insights to broaden the narrative about student study abroad experiences, including who participates, their experiences, and their perceptions of what they learned. One such tool for expanding the narrative and allowing students to debrief in a critically reflexive way is counter-storytelling, a qualitative method of telling the stories of people whose experiences are not often told (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

Trujillo and Bayman (2018) explored this method in a presentation at the 2018 NAFSA: Association of International Educators, Northern District Conference. The authors note that when stories and experiences are only relayed from the perspective of the majority, they have the potential to distort and to silence the experiences of

marginalized groups. Given the demographic composition of most study abroad programs, most of the existing narratives about study abroad represent the experiences of female, white, straight, middle class students at traditional four-year colleges. As such, there is room for counter-stories about student study abroad to expand our understanding of the study abroad experience, its challenges, and assets (Trujillo & Bayman, 2018). Counter-storytelling prompts and links are included within the accompanying toolkit to this literature review. Once uncovered, counter-stories should be used to inform marketing, advising, pre-departure orientation, support during immersion, and re-immersion home after study abroad.

RISK MITIGATION, INTERVENTION, AND RESPONSE

Several of the articles reviewed discussed strategies that universities can use to mitigate risk while students are abroad. Of these, only one focused specifically on Title IX and its application to US-based students who are sexually assaulted while studying abroad. Bull (2017) asserts that Title IX protections do not apply extraterritorially to students who are raped or sexually assaulted while studying abroad. Given this, the author suggests that universities should increase awareness of the risk of sexual assault abroad and incorporate related content into mandatory orientation programs prior to students' departure. The author further notes that US universities should consider increasing transparency about the safety of individual programs and the amount of sexual violence experienced by program alums. On a broader level, this may mean expanding Clery Act provisions to include disclosure of such acts. If colleges are sending students abroad through outside programs, the author suggests that they should demand safety statistics from such programs so that students and their parents can make an informed choice about their study abroad experiences (Bull, 2017).

Hoye and Rhodes (2000) conducted a literature review about reducing risk in international programs of study. They found that institutional liability differs depending on the type of study abroad program. University owned/operated programs, which represent the majority of programs in which students enroll, have greater liability. The liability of programs operated by outside institutions is governed by contract. The authors suggest that colleges should be aware of the types of study abroad programs offered to their students and take appropriate measures to minimize potential legal liability. Implications identified include sharing safety statistics for host countries and transparently marketing the programs offered. Furthermore, the authors recommend that university-owned programs should conduct regular safety inspections, have safety plans in place, collect crime statistical data, retain legal counsel, warn students of dangers, and train onsite staff to respond to sexual or discriminatory harassment (Hoye & Rhodes, 2000).

The recommendations articulated in these studies were shared by countless other peer-reviewed publications and unpublished dissertations, with a few additions. Scharman (2002) referenced past emergencies experienced by students studying

abroad and emphasized the importance of emergency preparedness plans and hiring competent and well-trained staff (Scharman, 2002). Ritchie (2003) identified lessons learned from wilderness immersion programs that may also apply to international educational experiences. The author identified three domains of skills training for students, faculty, and staff of study abroad programs: 1) Expedition behaviors, such as courtesy and caring in a group; 2) Leadership competence, including cultural competency, sensitivity, and communication; and 3) Judgment and decision-making, including tolerance for adversity, self-awareness, vision, and action (Ritchie, 2003). Lastly, Rader (2014) identified university Deans as the group with greatest responsibility for enacting recommendations to mitigate risk (Rader, 2014).

In addition to peer-reviewed articles, we conducted a supplemental search and reviewed a number of reports from the US Peace Corps. Our reason for conducting this supplemental search was twofold: 1) The profile of Peace Corps participation looks very similar to that of study abroad programs (i.e., 66% female, 75% white), and 2) The Peace Corps has made considerable efforts to improve violence prevention and response efforts to address a 2010 spike in the incidence of sexual assault among its female volunteers (US Peace Corps, 2012a). Given the similarities of the populations and contexts, as well as the spotlight on sexual assault prevention and response, we suspected that their research findings and activities might have particular relevance to this literature review and its accompanying toolkit. Both an increase in sexual assault incidence and expression of concern among female Peace Corps volunteers from 2010 – 2011 served as the impetus for the organization's efforts to improve violence prevention and response (US Peace Corps, 2012a). A 2012 report states that during testimony before Congress, "Victims voiced concerns that the agency's response was inadequate, uncompassionate, victim-blaming, and ineffective and cited a lack of staff accountability to or oversight of the response effort" (US Peace Corps, 2012b). They ultimately implored the Peace Corps to evaluate and improve its standards of care.

In response, the Kate Puzey Peace Corps Volunteer Protection Act of 2011 was adopted. Its implementation called for the creation of a Sexual Assault Advisory Council to review the Peace Corps' training policies, to ensure they conform to best practices in sexual assault prevention and response, as well as to develop and implement comprehensive sexual assault risk reduction and response training tailored to each country of service (Peace Corps Volunteer Sexual Assault Advisory Council, 2012). To achieve these mandates, the Peace Corps issued a written *Commitment to Sexual Assault Victims*, which created a framework for responding to sexual assault survivors that centers compassion, safety, open communication, and respect for privacy. They also hired a victim advocate to work with victims and staff to enhance survivor support. Lastly, the agency adopted new guidelines for responding to rape and sexual assault. The response guidelines led each Peace Corps post to establish standardized procedures for responding to sexual assault and mandated training about the protocol for all staff. The Office of the Inspector General then evaluated their implementation and made twelve recommendations for improving it. These include

providing response refresher trainings to staff on an ongoing basis, that the agency more clearly define staff roles and responsibilities, and that the agency implement a centralized sexual assault case management system (US Peace Corps, 2012b).

Following the activities outlined above, the Advisory Council conducted a thorough review of the training mandated in the Kate Puzey Peace Corps Volunteer Protection Act. The legislation specifies that training should include cultural context about gender relations, risk-reduction strategies, response options, emergency evacuation, and reporting guidelines. The resulting training is a three-part, pre-service training to be conducted with volunteers prior to departing for their posts abroad. The three parts are: 1) Sexual assault awareness; 2) Sexual assault impact, reporting, and response; and 3) Bystander intervention. They supplemented the training with additional risk-reduction information. Preliminary data suggest that the training package has been well received by volunteers and successful at increasing awareness. More conclusive outcome data were not presented (Peace Corps Volunteer Sexual Assault Advisory Council, 2012). Subsequent reports from the Advisory Council indicate that they implemented the training and response plan as intended.

Notably, a 2014 report identified, “the need to adopt a more strategic approach to prevention,” as one of six themes for its annual report. Its authors go on to note:

“The Kate Puzey Act captures prevention under the umbrella of risk reduction training. However, since the Act’s implementation in 2011, insights and expertise on sexual assault prevention programs have greatly expanded. While risk reduction is certainly key, numerous additional factors have been shown to positively influence sexual assault prevention efforts” (Peace Corps Volunteer Sexual Assault Advisory Council, 2014).

This finding conforms with established best practices for sexual assault prevention, which suggest that risk reduction approaches are not sufficient in and of themselves to prevent harm from occurring. Moreover, these approaches are often developmentally inappropriate for the target audience and result in the perpetuation of harmful rape myths that thwart effective prevention and response. In continuation of this theme, the agency found that their prevention efforts lacked coordination and called for the creation of a comprehensive sexual assault prevention strategy to address risk and protective factors for sexual assault (Peace Corps Volunteer Sexual Assault Advisory Council, 2015). A 2016 report reiterates this goal and alludes to an 8.6% reduction in sexual assault incidence from 2014, suggesting that their efforts to improve prevention and response are working (Peace Corps Volunteer Sexual Assault Advisory Council, 2016). We attempted to examine volunteer safety reports over time to assess outcomes. However, inconsistencies in how the data were reported made it difficult to determine how sexual assault incidence and prevalence may have shifted over time.

Summary of Findings

In combination, these articles suggest that:

- US colleges and universities have limited jurisdiction over incidents that occur when students study abroad, both because of limitations to existing legal protections and contractual agreements with outside program providers.
- Regardless of these limitations, a number of possibilities exist for training study abroad program personnel and providing prevention education to students.
- Such training and education should emphasize fostering group cohesion within study abroad cohorts, increasing cultural sensitivity and competence, and helping student bystanders to identify risk and act to prevent it.
- The US Peace Corps' efforts to improve sexual assault prevention and response serve as an interesting case study that offers insight about how best to protect Americans traveling abroad and practices that may be useful to the college study abroad context. Such practices include creating a comprehensive prevention strategy that is informed by research about risk and protective factors for sexual assault.

Recommendations

Although the majority of the peer-reviewed and supplemental sources summarized within this section focus on intervention and response rather than primary prevention, their findings are still relevant to this report. For while prevention and response require distinct approaches and recommend unique best practices, both are essential facets of effectively addressing interpersonal violence. Elsewhere in this report, we have highlighted students' preference for indirect bystander intervention options, such as delegating intervention to someone with more skills, language fluency, or authority. However, their ability to delegate depends on the existence of well-trained helping resources, student knowledge of such resources, and their ability to readily access them. In locations where such resources are not in place or when program personnel are not well trained to intervene and/or to respond, students have fewer options for delegation, making it less likely that they will intervene at the earliest possible sign of concern to prevent harm. Thus, we recommend that colleges and universities ensure that established reporting and response options are in place and that study abroad participants and personal are well-informed about them.

The US Peace Corps offers an excellent case study, both of the tragedies that occur when comprehensive prevention and response strategies are not in place as well as the efficacy of prevention when organizations carefully create, implement, and enforce

such strategies. In particular, the Peace Corps case study illustrates that primary prevention deserves a distinct, evidence-based, comprehensive plan. Moreover, the case study illustrates the need to shift from a sole focus on risk reduction to bystander intervention and social norms change. Study abroad students, faculty, and staff need to know that interpersonal violence targeted at them will not be tolerated despite differences in cultural context and that they will be supported by the program throughout their educational experiences abroad.

At the same time, comprehensive intervention and response plans are equally important. This is especially true given the lack of consensus about Title IX and Clery jurisdiction that colleges have when their students are studying abroad. Students, their parents, and study abroad personnel deserve transparency about the incidence and profile of interpersonal violence during study abroad programs so that they can assess their enrollment and safety plan, depending on risk. With parents, students, and staff collectively engage, they can create a group safety net that is sure despite uncertainties in jurisdiction.

To support colleges in enacting these recommendations, we have included separate prevention and response tools to aid in creating, implementing, and assessing comprehensive plans. Our hope is that with comprehensive plans in place, students will embark on their study abroad journeys well-informed, equipped with practical skills, and confident that they will be supported should anything unexpected occur during their time abroad.

TOOLKIT

Throughout this literature review, we have presented recommendations and alluded to tools that have been compiled in a toolkit that accompanies this review. For clarity and ease of use, these tools have been organized by departure stage. We identified four such stages: 1) Institutional Planning, 2) Pre-Departure, 3) Post-Departure/Immersion, 4) Return/ Reintegration. The table below defines each of these stages and lists the tools we have created to support colleges in their interpersonal violence prevention efforts.

Stage	Accompanying Tool
<p>Institutional Planning</p> <p><i>The tools in this section will aid colleges in planning distinct and comprehensive prevention and response strategies that should be implemented and monitored on an ongoing basis.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Needs Assessment and Best Practices Checklist • Inclusive Excellence Scorecard for Study Abroad
<p>Pre-Departure</p> <p><i>The tools in this section will help colleges to integrate primary prevention of interpersonal violence into existing pre-departure orientation efforts for both students and personnel.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bystander Training Sample Activities for Students entering Study Abroad Programs • Bystander Training Sample Activities for Study Abroad Personnel • Discussion Guide for Reinforcing Training Content and Skills • Training Content Tailoring Guide • Key Elements of an Effective Presentation • Writing a Personal Introduction • Pre-Departure Critical Reflection Questions
<p>Post-Departure/Immersion</p> <p><i>The tools in this section will help colleges to integrate primary prevention of interpersonal violence during students' immersion in a host culture.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Post-Departure/Immersion Critical Reflection • Mini Boosters • Conversation Starters

<p>Return/Reintegration</p> <p><i>The tools in this section will help colleges to integrate primary prevention of interpersonal violence into existing reintegration and de-briefing efforts that help students to smoothly transition back to their home campus culture.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies and Measurement Scales • Return/Reintegration Critical Reflection Questions • Collecting Counter-Stories
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This literature review underscores the need for comprehensive interpersonal violence prevention, intrinsic motivation among students and staff to engage in prevention, and the importance of supportive intervention and response during the study abroad experience. Likely, each reader will be at a different stage in their prevention planning and implementation efforts. Some colleges may already have well-established interpersonal violence assessment and prevention programming in place, while others may just be considering how to chart their course for prevention. It is our earnest hope that no matter your prevention planning stage, you now have research-based knowledge and tools to enhance your prevention efforts and to ensure that students reap all of the benefits of educational experiences without ever having to deal with harms such as interpersonal violence.

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