Tackling Sexual Harassment: Short and Long-Run Experimental Evidence from India[*]

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Abstract

Sexual harassment imposes substantial economic costs on victims, yet there is limited evidence on how to effectively deter it. Using a randomized controlled trial, I find that class-based sexual harassment awareness training with men in New Delhi reduces women's reports of sexual harassment by classmates, even though men in the treatment group do not report improved attitudes. This finding is consistent with men avoiding harassing women to avoid peer disapproval. Additionally, the training leads to a long-lasting reduction in romantic relationships between men and women within the classroom. This finding is consistent with women being unable to judge men's quality from their behavior once social reprehension of harassment generates a pooling equilibrium. A similar female intervention does not lead to detectable effects on these outcomes.

JEL codes: D91, J16, J28, K42, O12.

Keywords: Gender, sexual harassment, deterrence, beliefs, relationships.

1 Introduction

Sexual harassment is a pervasive phenomenon experienced by many women,[1] with a significant impact on their psychological, economic, and social lives (Jayachandran, 2015; Borker, 2017; Talboys et al., 2017; Folke and Rickne, 2020; Azmat et al., 2020). For example, victims are more likely to quit their job or choose lower-quality educational institutions to avoid sexual harassment (Folke and Rickne, 2020; Borker, 2017). While sexual harassment awareness training is commonly used to address such incidents, previous research has documented the effects of these trainings on some possible mechanisms like change in self-reported attitudes or awareness, without causally tracing the effects on the incidence of actual sexual harassment.[2]

In this paper, I provide experimental evidence on the effect of sexual harassment awareness training on the incidence of sexual harassment among women in a university setting in India. In 2020–2021, more than 4.1 million students enrolled in higher education institutions in India, with women comprising more than 2 million of these students (AISHE Report, 2020–2021). Among them, more than 3 million students were enrolled in undergraduate courses. Given these substantial numbers, it is crucial to study the prevalence and prevention of sexual harassment in higher education institutions. Existing training programs at universities are often online and self-paced, but the treatment of social sanction may be important in deterring harassment. When individuals are aware that their peers consider their behavior reprehensible and have been instructed to support victims, then the perceived cost of engaging in that behavior becomes high, even if personal attitudes toward women remain unchanged after the training. This aspect may be particularly vital in educational settings like college campuses, where peer pressure is notoriously high.[3] For this reason, delivering the training to men in a group setting may be particularly important.

With this in mind, I collaborated with the NGO Safecity to provide sexual harassment awareness training to men in randomly selected classes from two colleges.[4] A total of 3086 students were a part of this RCT. Figure E.1 shows the distribution of the beliefs, collected

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[1]Sexual harassment is defined as any unwanted and unwelcome behavior of a sexual nature (Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace Act, 2013).

[2]Roehling and Huang (2018) provides a review.

[3]See Bursztyn and Jensen (2015) for the role of peer pressure, Zhu (2019) for the importance of peers and networks formed in college, and Beaman and Magruder (2012) and Sacerdote (2001) for the utility of such relationships in the labor market.

[4]A college can have between 2,000 and 5,000 enrolled students in a given academic year and has approximately 30 courses (degree programs or majors).

at baseline, of men and women over the entire range of hypothesized prevalence of sexual harassment for women in their class. Most men and women underestimate the prevalence of sexual harassment but men more so than women. The sexual harassment awareness training lasted for three to five hours and had two main components: awareness and empathy building. The first component provided men with information on sexual harassment, the laws against it, and simple ways to help a survivor of sexual harassment. The second component was added to minimize the chances of backlash from men that has been previously documented (Bingham and Scherer, 2001). This was mainly done through a discussion of anonymous narratives collected from women in men's colleges. These discussions took place during the training to help men understand women's perspective within a sexual harassment incident. Both these components of the training were simple and basic, making them replicable in other institutional settings as well.

To ensure that women's understanding of sexual harassment between the treatment and control classes was the same, I provided all women in all classes with information on sexual harassment at baseline. The effect of the male training is therefore estimated in a context where women have themselves been informed. To understand the role of providing this information to women alone, I conducted a female intervention in a separate college (henceforth the female intervention). The randomization was carried out at the class level, varying the proportion of women who received the intervention. The follow-up survey for both interventions was done three to four months after the treatment for the short-run results. Long-run follow-up was done two to three years after the intervention. Because of the sensitivity of the topic, and the associated risk of under-reporting, stigma, and differential attrition, great care was taken in designing the survey protocols and instruments.[5]

I find that the male intervention leads to a significant 0.06 standard deviation (sd) reduction in overall sexual harassment. Specifically, women enrolled in the same class as treated men report a complete eradication of extreme forms of sexual harassment by men from their own class, decreasing the incidence from 1% to 0%. This corresponds to 51 fewer women out of 1,200 experiencing extreme forms of sexual harassment over one academic year. Notably, extreme forms of sexual harassment include groping, pinching, and other extreme acts without consent of the victim. However, the treatment had no such effect on women's reporting of sexual harassment from men outside their class or men outside the

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[5]Reporting sexual harassment can lead to victim blaming, backlash from the perpetrator, and other forms of retaliation (Cullen, 2023; Dahl and Knepper, 2021).

college. This suggests that the observed decline in the treatment classes is unlikely to be due to differential reporting by women.

To test whether the treatment changed how men and women interact more generally, I examine various forms of relationships between both, including romantic and platonic relationships. Additionally, participants from the sample engaged in lab-in-the-field-type games, where they could decide to partner with either same- or opposite-sex participants. The findings indicate that the sexual harassment training results in a significant 0.13 sd decrease in an index of opposite-sex relationships. Specifically, the incidence of within-classroom romantic relationships declines by 1.3 pp, from a base of 2.3% in the control group. These effects become persist even two to three years after the intervention. In contrast, training women has no impact on any of these outcomes.

To explain how the male intervention leads to a reduction in sexual harassment and opposite-sex relationships, while training women alone does not, I use a signaling framework based on Bénabou and Tirole (2006) and Bursztyn et al. (2020b). In the treatment classes, all men received the training together with their male classmates, potentially involving two mechanisms. First, the training could have influenced the trained men's own attitudes and second, their beliefs regarding their peers' disapproval of sexual harassment. Social disapproval, imposed by mutual peers of potential perpetrators and victims (Folke and Rickne, 2020), could exert social image and reputation costs on perpetrators.[6] Such concerns have been extensively studied in the context of voting, conformity to social norms, donations, and preventive health behaviors.[7] I model interactions between men and women with these two possible mechanisms in mind. The results are consistent with the second mechanism, where men who intrinsically prefer to harass women opt for "good" behaviors to avoid peers' disapproval. Consequently, women become more cautious in forming relationships with them, even in response to good behavior. This leads to a decrease in sexual harassment (due to men's pooling) and a decrease in relationships (due to women's caution).

Several features of my data allow me to test for the two mechanisms. First, after the male intervention, I collected information on the student's romantic relationships with their own classmates, and find that women's relationships only decline with men in their own

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[6]Throughout the paper, I refer to men as potential perpetrators and women as potential victims. This corroborates with official reports showing that most perpetrators of sexual violence are men and most of the victims are women (UN Women, 2015).

[7]Some of these studies include Karing (2018), DellaVigna et al. (2016), Bénabou and Tirole (2006), Bernheim (1994), Macchiavello and Morjaria (2015), and Greif (1989).

class. However, they report more relationships with men from outside the class by 47%. This suggests that a change in men's behavior within the treated classes drives women's behavior rather than women reducing relationships with all men. Second, I collect direct survey questions from men and women regarding their perceptions about others. I find that the male intervention increases men's perceived social disapproval of sexual harassment by 0.056 sd and this continues in the long run. Men perception of their peers' attitudes within their class changes after the treatment in both short and long run. In contrast, post-intervention, men believe that their female classmates are more likely to report sexual harassment to their peers rather than to their college's legal complaints committee although this does not persist in the long run. However, women do not believe that men's attitudes change within their class after the treatment. These results are consistent with the second mechanism.

Third, I measure men's attitudes using a list experiment and a volunteering exercise, mitigating experimenter demand effect concerns with collecting self-reported attitudes on sexual harassment. I cannot reject a null effect of the intervention on intrinsic attitudes toward sexual harassment in both the short and the long run, leaving little room for the first mechanism. Fourth, evidence from the lab-in-the-field experiment suggests that training men leads to changes in how women in their classroom interact with men, consistent with women's increased caution. In particular, women in the treatment classes are 13 percentage points (p.p.) more likely to cooperate with other women compared to those in the control classes, while men's response remains unchanged. This result suggests that the decrease in romantic relationships occurs due to a change in women's behavior.[8] Further, the reduction in opposite-sex relationships is driven by women in their first year (freshman) of study, consistent with a lack of information about men's types driving women's behavior.

Other mechanisms seem unlikely. I find that men's perception of the legal implications of sexual harassment does not change. Additionally, the decline in opposite-sex relationships does not mediate the effects on extreme forms of sexual harassment, suggesting that the drop in sexual harassment is not due to a decline in romantic relationships but rather the opposite. The treatment also has no effect on men's choices in the lab-in-the-field experiment, ruling out the possibility that men became more cautious in interacting with the women. Moreover, there is a null effect on women's self-reported offers of relationship from men in their class.

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[8]I discuss in Section 5.5.2 the reasons why women's caution can manifest as them cooperating more with other women (without a change in their behavior with men) within the lab experiment.

Two to three years after the intervention, we surveyed the same students again. The results show that women report lower intermediate forms of harassment (stalking, online harassment). However, the results on overall sexual harassment are noisier and insignificant. Several factors could explain this fading out of effects. First, the intervention was relatively short, lasting upto five hours. Second, the disruption caused by the Covid pandemic affected long-run outcomes, resulting in the need to recall information about episodes of sexual harassment that occurred between January and March 2020 during the period between April 2021 and April 2022. This recall period might have led to under-reporting in the control group due to recall bias, making it difficult to identify treatment effects.

Consistent with this, treatment effects (amounting to 0.08 sd) for the pre-Covid period can be seen among respondents surveyed as soon as possible after Covid compared to those surveyed later. However, despite the fading effects on overall sexual harassment reporting, women continue to report lower romantic relationships by 47% with men in the treatment classes. This indicates that their beliefs about men likely do not change in the long run and that the effects on opposite-sex relationships are persistent.

Finally, one concern is the potential spillover of the training from men in the treatment to men in the control group, which might reduce the effect of the treatment.[9] Using data on networks at baseline for men, I find that the spillovers are insignificant in the short run and thus cannot explain the results. Spillovers from men in the treatment classes to women in the control classes are addressed by the fact that I asked women about sexual harassment from men in their class, which allows me to tightly link the training to the sexual harassment outcomes for women.

This paper contributes to the growing body of evidence showing that enlisting men for women's empowerment can be successful, especially in developing countries where they can leverage their greater relative freedom to act on their beliefs and preferences (Dhar et al., 2022; Bursztyn et al., 2020a; Haushofer et al., 2019; Ashraf et al., 2020b). While several studies have examined methods for empowering through skills training programs (Ashraf et al., 2020a; McKelway, 2020; Bandiera et al., 2020; Edmonds et al., 2021; Buchmann et al., 2021; Gulesci et al., 2021), and by improving community and family attitudes toward women (Abramsky et al., 2014; Dean and Jayachandran, 2019; Banerjee et al., 2019; Green

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[9]Since the treatment was randomized at the class level within colleges, these spillovers would have to be cross-classroom and could occur if men interact with college students from other classes through sports, common events/seminars, or in dormitories.

et al., 2020), I show another approach: engaging men by changing their perception of the social environment.[10]

This paper is closely related to the literature on violence against women, including sexual harassment. It delves into what factors help deter sexual harassment and measures their effects on opposite-sex relationships. Notably, it highlights the role of peers' disapproval in such settings for deterring such undesirable behaviors. While one strand has mostly previous focused on street harassment and its consequences for women in developing countries (Borker, 2017; Kondylis et al., 2019; Aguilar et al., 2020), the other strand has largely focused on intimate partner violence (IPV). Studies have examined various aspects related to IPV, including the effects of cash transfers, gender wage gaps, female labor force participation, women help desks, and men's motives behind it (Bloch and Rao, 2002; Aizer, 2010; Anderberg and Rainer, 2013; Erten and Keskin, 2018; Anderberg et al., 2021; Haushofer et al., 2019; Calvi and Keskar, 2021; Kotsadam and Villanger, 2020; Bhalotra et al., 2021). However, there has been relatively less attention on sexual harassment within workplaces or educational institutions. Few of the studies have explored the repercussions of workplace sexual harassment for pay inequality and labor market outcomes for victims (Basu, 2003; Antecol and Cobb-Clark, 2006; Hersch, 2011; Hersch, 2018; Folke and Rickne, 2020; Sukhtankar et al., 2022). In this context, Lindo et al. (2018) study the effect of college partying on sexual assaults on campuses, which is a setting similar to this paper. I however study the effects of an active intervention on overall sexual harassment while they study the role of partying on sexual assault.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, I discuss the context of the colleges under study. Section 3 outlines the theoretical framework, and Section 4 details the intervention. Section 5 discusses the experimental design, Section 6 presents the results, and Section 7 concludes.

2   Context

The United Nations Development Programme defines sexual harassment as "any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favour, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of

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[10]Some studies in social psychology examine the impact of sexual harassment training on attitudes (Roehling and Huang, 2018; Antecol and Cobb-Clark, 2003; Bingham and Scherer, 2001) but cannot causally track the effects on sexual harassment incidences or opposite-sex relationships. This paper fills this gap as well.

a sexual nature, or any other behavior of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation to another person." Laws against sexual harassment have become increasingly common,[11] and Indian law identifies it as "any unwanted or unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature" (Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace Act 2013).

For this study, I collaborated with three colleges within one of the universities in Delhi to conduct sexual harassment trainings. College students in the age group of 18 to 21 are particularly suited for the training due to their willingness to discuss the nuanced and sensitive topic of sexual harassment. Moreover, sexual violence on campuses is pervasive and a key focus of various NGOs and policymakers (such as the Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network, RAINN).[12]

To put the collaborating colleges into context, I categorize the rate of sexual harassment prevalence by intensity. I adapt the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) that is widely used to measure sexual harassment for colleges and workplaces in social psychology (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald, 1988). I asked women at baseline about their exposure to different types of sexual harassment incidents two months before the survey.[13] These incidents could be of low, intermediate, or extreme intensity. Mild events include sexual remarks, jokes, and being repeatedly asked out on a date; intermediate events include physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment. Extreme events are physical acts of fondling, groping, or sexual assault. This classification has been previously used by the US Merit System Protection Board (USMSPB, 1981, 1987).

Table 1 presents a summary of the prevalence of sexual harassment at baseline among women. Low- and intermediate-intensity events are highly common, accounting for 44% to 47% of incidents, respectively. The prevalence rate of extreme events is also high, with 16% of women reporting exposure to such events. Given that these data represent a recall for the preceding two months, the table indicates a high prevalence of sexual harassment.

Figure 1 shows who perpetrated these sexual harassment incidents. Over the period of two months, 12% of the incidents are of the low-intensity type, 8% of the medium-intensity type, and 3% of the extreme-intensity type are perpetrated by someone from within the college. Most of the perpetration comes from someone outside the college; however, incidence from within the university comes from someone the woman knows or

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[11]World Bank Database from 1970 to 2020

[12]https://www.rainn.org/statistics/campus-sexual-violence

[13]Elaborated in Appendix A.

would most likely come in contact with on a repeated basis. This has the potential to be more harmful and will be the focus of this paper.

Figure E.2 illustrates the college quality distribution for various colleges within the same university as the collaborating college. Notably, these colleges fall in the middle of the distribution, as measured by score cut-offs used to admit students. This characteristic improves the external validity of the experiment.

3 Theoretical framework

The training can affect men's behaviours via two main channels. One is by changing their own attitudes about sexual harassment, and the other is by changing their beliefs about their classmates attitudes towards sexual harassment. To better understand these mechanisms, I adapt a framework commonly used for studying social image incentives behind different decisions (Bénabou and Tirole, 2006; Bursztyn et al., 2020b).

3.1 Social environment

I set up a signaling framework, where men, M, are senders of signals and women, W, are receivers of those signals. M and W are paired randomly with each other. I assume that men can take two types of actions toward women, b and g. b are sexually harassing behaviors, and g are non-sexually harassing behaviors. M can be one of the two types: bad (B) or good (G).

W decide whether to accept M's actions or not. A relationship (romantic or platonic) is formed only when W accepts M's actions. However, M can still sexually harass W even if she does not accept his action. The key idea in the model is that women exercise some degree of control on which type of man they form a relationship with. They aim to avoid B-type men so as to prevent future abuse and harassment within a relationship. A proportion p of men are of B type.

The action space for M is $a_i \in \{b, g\}$ and for W it is $a_w \in \{Accept, Reject\}$. I assume a presence of observers (classmates) who can approve or disapprove of men's types on the

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basis of their actions, which are assumed to be observable.[14] They can also impose social disapproval costs, D, on those perceived to be B types.

Both types of M get 0 utility from undertaking b. But the G types receive a positive intrinsic utility k from doing g, while the B types suffer a psychic cost c_i if they undertake g, where $c_i \sim f(.)$ over $[0, \infty)$. Thus, a B-type man is characterized by (t_i, c_i), where t_i is the broader type B. In contrast, a G-type man only has a broad dimension. Women form the same beliefs, denoted as P(.), based on the social environment (classmates) conditional on the actions of men.

Men's utility is characterized by

$$U(t_i, a_i) = \underbrace{I(W \text{ accepts } a_i)}_{Pairing \text{ utility}} - \underbrace{c_i I(a_i = g, t_i = B)}_{Psychic \text{ costs for B types}} + \underbrace{k I(a_i = g, t_i = G)}_{Intrinsic \text{ utility for G types}}$$
$$- \underbrace{D P(t_i = B | a_i)}_{Social \text{ disapproval}}.$$

$I(.)$ is an indicator function that equals 1 if the event is true. The first term gives the utility from forming a relationship with a woman (normalized to 1), and the second term depicts the psychic cost incurred if a B-type man has to undertake g. The third term is the intrinsic utility that a G-type man gets from undertaking g, and the last term depicts the social disapproval that M suffers to the extent that he is perceived to be a B-type man.

If a woman accepts an action from a man, she receives u if $t_i = G$, $v(D)$ if $t_i = B$, and 0 if she rejects. I assume that $u > 0 > v(D)$. A woman's disutility from being matched with a B-type man is dependent on D. $v(.)$ is assumed to be a continuous and differentiable function of D. I assume this because an increase in disapproval against B-type men also decreases a woman's costs from being with a B-type man (e.g., being blamed for sexual harassment if she reports him, costs of reporting a B-type man once she realizes his type among other forms of support). Thus, I assume $v'(D) \geq 0$. A woman never accepts a man if he undertakes b because that is legally sexual harassment, and we assume she is aware of

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[14]Even if not observable, I assume that women who are receivers of those actions can tell their peers about actions taken by men toward them. I find empirically that women are more likely to report to their peers about a sexual harassment incident after treatment.

this.[15] Thus the only way a man can match with her is through g. Recall that the social environment also holds the same beliefs as the woman.

3.2 Timing

The timing of the game is as follows:

1. Nature chooses the type of M given the probability p with which M is of the B type.

2. M takes action a_i toward W: $a_i \in \{b, g\}$.

3. W observes M's actions and updates her beliefs about M's type: $Pr(t_i = B|a_i)$ and $Pr(t_i = G|a_i)$.

4. W decides whether she will accept or reject his actions: $a_w \in \{Accept, Reject\}$.

5. A relationship is formed if W accepts a_i and not otherwise. The game ends after this.

3.3 Equilibrium

Given a woman's utility, it is easy to see that she will follow a cut-off strategy. Conditional on any action a_i, she will accept iff $P(t_i = G|a_i) \geq \frac{-v(D)}{u - v(D)}$ and will reject otherwise. I focus on only a partial pooling equilibrium where women follow a mixed strategy, that is, where they are indifferent between accepting and rejecting.

Definition 1. *A partial pooling equilibrium of this game is characterized by the following:*

1. *The equilibrium strategy of the two types of men: G type ($a_G \in \{b, g\}$) and B type ($a_B \in c$, where $c \in [0, \infty)$).*

2. *Beliefs of the social environment and the woman, which are given by $P(c^*)$, where $P(c^*) = Pr(t_i = B|a_i)$ and $P(c^*) : \{b, g\} \to [0, 1]$.*

3. *The woman's strategy for each action of the man, $a_w : \{b, g\} \to \{Accept, Reject\}$.*

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[15]This assumption can be justified because all women in all classes were provided with information on sexual harassment in the baseline.

Note that both the social environment and the woman holds the same belief about the level of c^*, conditional on which they update their beliefs. Off-the-path beliefs satisfy the intuitive criterion (Cho and Kreps, 1987).[16]

The following characterizes a partial pooling equilibrium in which a fraction $c^* \in (0, 1)$ of B-type men pool with G-type men and undertake g. The rest separate and undertake b. G-type men always prefer to undertake g.

Result 1. *(Partial pooling equilibrium with mixed strategy for women) There exists a $c^* \in (0, 1)$, where all B-type men with $c \leq c^*$ undertake g and the rest of the B types undertake b. All G-type men undertake g. The social environment and women believe that a fraction c^* of the B-type men pool. In particular, $Pr(t_i = G | a_i = g) = \frac{-v(D)}{u - v(D)}$ and $Pr(t_i = G | a_i = b) = 0$. Thus, the beliefs follow Bayes' rule on the equilibrium path, and a fraction $F(c^*)$ of the B-type men undertake g and the rest undertake b. Sequential rationality then implies that women reject if $a_i = b$ and accept with a probability of q when $a_i = g$.*

Thus, the total prevalence of sexual harassment is given by $(1 - F(c^*))p$, and total relationships are given by $q[F(c^*)p + (1-p)]$. Note that by Bayes' rule, $\frac{pF(c^*)}{pF(c^*) + (1-p)} = \frac{u}{u - v(D)}$. This gives that $c^* = F^{-1}(\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)})$. Given the belief, $P(c^*)$, and a woman's mixed strategy, q, I can find the cut-off c^* for a B type who will be indifferent between doing b and g. The indifference condition is given by $-D = -c^* + q - DP(c^*)$ so that his costs and benefits of doing g are equalized. This can be rewritten to give $q = F^{-1}(\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)}) + \frac{v(D)D}{u - v(D)}$. Thus, a woman's acceptability of g is dependent on D and p.

Proposition 1. *The male intervention can have two possible effects in the model: increase D (social disapproval costs) or decrease p (percentage of men who are type B). Under certain parametric conditions, the implications of these two variables on sexual harassment and opposite-sex relationships are given below:*

1. *An increase in D increases c^*, thereby increasing the proportion of B-type men who pool with G-type men, which reduces sexual harassment. However, q decreases, lead-*

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ing to a decline in relationships between men and women due to a decline in women's acceptability of men's offers. Overall sexual harassment decreases, and opposite-sex relationships decrease.

2. *If p decreases, sexual harassment decreases due to a composition effect and also because the remaining B-type men increase pooling. Women's probability of accepting relationship offers when men approach them with g increases since there are more B-type men in their class. This leads to an increase in relationships. As a result, overall sexual harassment decreases and opposite-sex relationships increase.*

I provide the proofs for the predictions above in Appendix C.

The key intuition behind the mechanisms above is that a shift in D or p can affect B-type men's incentive to pool. An increase in D increases B-types' incentives to pool, but women will take that into account, which can reduce q (probability that a woman rejects g) because they suffer from matching with B types. However, q may increase, for instance, if D increases so much that the woman's disutility from matching with B types becomes very small (because $v'(D) > 0$). The overall effect on relationships is thus ambiguous for increased in D even though sexual harassment decreases.

However, Appendix C shows that under certain parametric conditions, a rise in D leads to a fall in relationships. A decrease in p also reduces sexual harassment because the benefit from pooling for the rest of the B-type men increases and because the ones who change their type (from B to G) always undertake g. The effect on relationships is positive since women take these composition effects into account. Thus, while both the mechanisms predict a reduction in sexual harassment, only an increase in D predicts a decrease in relationships.

The testable predictions from the model for the male intervention are the following:

Prediction 1. *An increase in perceived social disapproval costs (D) reduces sexual harassment and relationships. This occurs because women reduce their acceptance of men's offers. The corollary is that if there is a reduction in relationships, it implies an increase in men's perception of D.*

Prediction 2. *An increase in G-type men, that is, in (1-p), decreases sexual harassment and increases women's relationships. In particular, it increases women's acceptance of men's offers of relationships.*

4   Details of the intervention

The sexual harassment awareness training had two main components. The first component was informative and had the following main features:

- The legal definition of sexual harassment as per the Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace Act of 2013: this focused on the role of internal complaints committees (ICCs) of the colleges and the legal powers bestowed upon ICCs.

- Principles to detect sexual harassment: this was provided graphically to the students on tablets and by trainers through discussions and skits.

- Situation-based exercises: students were asked whether they thought the situations constituted sexual harassment or not. They were prompted with hints for the correct answer if they answered the questions incorrectly.

The hypothetical situations and principles to detect sexual harassment were developed in consultation with Safecity and other legal experts who have worked in the area of sexual harassment for more than a decade. The informative component of the training helped men understand what sexual harassment legally was, which helps identify whether there are awareness constraints that prevent potential perpetrators from understanding what sexual harassment is. Discussions then took place about different types of sexual harassment, for instance, in courtship behaviors or even friendships. I theorized that if men had any awareness constraints, then the informative component of the training would alleviate such constraints.

The second component of the intervention focused on behavioral change and was intended to be persuasive. I took Safecity's existing sexual harassment awareness training program and tailored it for college students with the help of the trainers from Safecity, who delivered the training for the intervention. The following were the main features of this component:

- Detailed in-depth discussion about sexual harassment and its impact, including prevalence rates, consent, and steps to intervene as a bystander.

- An empathy-building section that provided men with anonymous narratives from women in their class explaining how sexual harassment had impacted them in the past and discussing the prevalence rate of sexual harassment. This section allowed men to view the perspective of women who have been harassed.

- Skits and exercises showcasing commonly accepted scenarios of "courtship" that are legally sexual harassment and negatively affect the harassed.

The male intervention was provided in two sessions; the first session had a 90-minute workshop with men and women, and the second session was another follow-up session with men only. This was meant to help men think through any questions or thoughts from after the first session. Each session was facilitated by a male and a female trainer. Since the colleges worked under a tight schedule within an academic system controlled by a centralized university, the dosage remained low in terms of time, varying between three and five hours of intense discussions between trainers and students. However, this low dosage also makes the training easily scalable and replicable in similar settings.

The goal of the behavioral change component was to help men understand the impact of the pervasiveness of sexual harassment for victims and why it is an important topic. For instance, men were presented with real (anonymous) narratives from female victims of sexual harassment from either the same course within the same college or another one (see Appendix A for an example). A volunteer male student read the narrative, and then the trainers led a discussion with the men to understand the effects of seemingly innocuous behaviors. Since the training aimed at building empathy for victims, this also reduced the chances of any backlash to the training itself (Bingham and Scherer, 2001).

The male training between the NGO trainers and the men occurred in complete privacy and isolation, giving men a protected space to discuss their thoughts and views openly.[17] Many men continued the discussions well beyond the assigned time period, bringing forward incidents faced by their own female relatives and friends, or sometimes incidents that they were involved in. In addition, the training included small skits and role-playing to prompt discussion. There were discussions about consent, for instance, that "only yes means yes and everything else is a no" when it comes to consent for sexual activities with another

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[17]Feedback from trainers after the training revealed that men liked the candid nature of this training.

person. The session ended with ways in which men could become a part of the solution rather than the problem, with the trainers telling the men about ways in which they could intervene when they observed sexual harassment. They aimed to help men realize that a discussion on sexual harassment did not limit them as perpetrators but also included them as effective interveners.

The female awareness intervention included only the informative component of the male intervention without any discussion with the NGO trainers. Piloting and discussion with NGOs revealed that women understood the concepts quickly and empathy building was much less relevant for them. They were given the information to read and could ask the project team in the room about any doubts or issues related to it. Remember this information was provided to all women in male intervention colleges as well.

5   Experimental design

5.1   Recruitment into the awareness intervention

The surveys were undertaken by the survey team trained by Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab (J-PAL, South Asia) at the South Asia Center. The project team and I contacted faculty members to reserve a class slot for the survey. Crucially, the class slot was not public knowledge a priori, and hence the presence or absence of the students was not affected by the content of the survey nor the scheduling. We surveyed the students who were present on the day of the surveys. Both men and women were then told about this being a research collaboration between J-PAL and multiple colleges in the same university. They were also provided with the broad motivation of the project, after which they were asked for their informed consent to proceed with the survey.

5.2   Randomization

For the male intervention, the unit of randomization is a class, which is a combination of a course, year, and section.[18] Classes were stratified according to year of study, field of study, and sex ratio to provide the male training (the ratio of baseline enrollment of men

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[18]It also included a medium if the classes were divided by one. Course means the core subject (like economics and math), which could belong to different fields like science, the humanities, or commerce. Sections were usually created for courses with high demand, and a course had a maximum of three sections.

to women for each class available from the administrative data). The sample was divided into 25 strata, and the distribution of classes for each strata is available in Table E.1. All women in all the classes received the informative component of sexual harassment at this time as well.[19] This was done to remove any under-reporting due to gaps in women's understanding about what constitutes sexual harassment, as explained in Section 5.6.1.

The sexual harassment awareness intervention for men was conducted at the class level for several reasons. First, sexual harassment awareness training is usually delivered to groups rather than individuals, making classes a natural setting for training delivery. The project's main goal was to examine whether increasing men's awareness reduces women's exposure to sexual harassment. By collecting data from women in these classes, I could better detect any effects on sexual harassment.

Implementing the training at the class level allowed me to avoid the difficulty of asking women about men from their own class without revealing their identity, which would have been more challenging in individual-level randomization. Further, offering training to groups facilitated better discussions between the men and the NGO trainers, which pilot testing showed was imperative for a deeper understanding. This approach is favored in other settings too.

There were two levels of randomization for the women's intervention. Classes were first stratified on year of study, field of study, medium of study, and sex ratio at baseline. Then, 69 classes were divided into high- and low-intensity treatment classes. In the high-intensity treatment class, 75% of the women were individually randomized to receive information on sexual harassment, and in the low-intensity treatment classes, 25% were individually randomized to receive the female intervention. Figure 2 shows how classes were divided between treatment and control for both the interventions. The class-level randomization was done to understand whether the treatment effects on the treated were affected by a proportion of their treated peers. The timing of the female surveys was delayed by one-and-a-half months.[20]

Medium refers to the language of instruction, which could be Hindi or English. Year was the year of study, which could be the first, second, or third year.

[19]This was a subset of the intervention undertaken for men and provided women with information on how to detect sexual harassment.

[20]This is because the female intervention college came onboard for the project much later than the two colleges for the male intervention.

5.3 Surveys and intervention administration

After the project was introduced, the survey team took the female students to another private and secluded room. Male students were kept in the original classroom. Both men and women were asked to fill surveys on tablets, separately. The surveys were completely digitized and self-administered. Students were placed so that they could not see each other's screens or be influenced by others' answers and were monitored by surveyors. Figure 3 shows one training session with men from one treatment class. Students gave informed consent via tablets before filling the survey,[21] and less than 1% refused the surveys at this point.[22]

For the male intervention, men in the treatment classes were given information about the project and were told that Safecity wanted to discuss with them various aspects of sexual harassment and also get their views on it. For the female intervention, women read about the same information on their tablets. For individual-level randomization, they were first given a random card by the survey team that they picked and were seated on a seat with the same pre-defined number. They were then handed the tablet, after which a randomization code was used to decide whether those with even numbers or odd numbers received the treatment for each class.

5.4 Sample, timeline, and balance tests

The two colleges targeted for the male intervention had 93 classes, and 47 classes out of 93 were randomly assigned to receive the training for their male students. All classes were re-surveyed for the endline approximately three months after the training. The baseline and training intervention were done toward the beginning of the academic semester (from September to October 2019, first week). The first endline was done at the beginning of the subsequent semester (January to April 2020). The second endline was started in March 2021, and continued till April 2022. This was because the long run surveys were done by reaching out to students over the phone due to lockdowns or if they had graduated.

Since there was a sufficient gap between the intervention and the endline (relative to the length of the academic semester), it was unlikely that Hawthorne effects are a concern.

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[21]Provided in the appendix.

[22]For female surveys, I also provided a helpline number and Safecity's helpline in case any female respondent needed assistance from professionals after completing the surveys. This is in line with WHO guidelines on surveys on sensitive topics.

Students were not told that two rounds of the survey were scheduled over one academic year, and faculty members were not aware about it either. Women were asked to recall men's behavior in the period between the intervention and endline, and hence it was unlikely that men would have changed their behavior due to anticipating an endline in the subsequent semester.

A total of 3,086 men and women took part in the surveys, 1,248 women and 1,838 men. Table 2 presents the balance tests for the combined sample of men and women included in the baseline survey. The sample is balanced on all characteristics. The majority have highly educated parents and are more likely to be from historically disadvantaged castes (62%). Nearly 25% live in a hostel or a PG (paying guest accommodation) without any family. About 23% have a working mother, and the majority of the sample (61%) are from Delhi. The F-stat for joint significance is 1.07 (p-value of 0.38), so I can reject the hypothesis that all the variables can jointly explain the assignment to treatment.

Appendix Table E.2 presents the balance tests separately for men and women. In both groups, all the socioeconomic demographic variables are balanced except for women's caste. This discrepancy is statistically expected given the large number of baseline variables.

Both men and women were surveyed about three months after the intervention, between January and April 2020. The survey team reached 83% of the female baseline population and 80% of the male baseline population, for a total coverage of 82% of the baseline population for the male intervention. Tables E.4 and E.5 show there was no differential attrition by treatment status or by baseline controls. Women were less likely to drop out than men, but it is not differential by treatment status. The *p*-value for the joint significance test of all baseline variables is 0.89. The survey team could also reach students who were not in the baseline; these are included in the final analysis to help improve power.

The balance test for the female intervention at the individual female level is provided at the class level in Table E.6. There are some imbalances at the class level for 3 out of 16 variables, which is expected, and I control for all these variables in the regressions. The survey team was able to cover around 86% of the women from baseline with no differential attrition by treatment status of women. A total of 759 women and 1,560 men were covered in baseline for the female intervention, and I recover 86% women and 67% men in the endline for this intervention as well.

Appendix Tables E.7 and E.8 show there is no differential attrition by treatment and no differential attrition by baseline controls except for whether the respondent belonged

to a low caste and whether they were originally from Delhi or not. Again this is not unexpected given the number of variables shown the balance test for.

5.5 Representativeness and external validity

Although the students in this paper study at a university in Delhi, they come from all over the country, reflected in Figure 4. Around 40% of the students in the baseline come from outside of Delhi indicating a decent all-India representation in the sample. Figure E.2 presents a comparison of the colleges in my sample to the colleges in the entire university. Within the university, the colleges I collaborated with are quite representative and, importantly, not too elite. I use data from the All-India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE) from 2015 to 2016 to compare university and college characteristics at the country and city (Delhi) level with the colleges in my sample. Appendix Table E.3 provides a comparison.

I find that the colleges in my sample have a lower proportion of women than in the all-India or all-Delhi sample. In addition to having a slightly higher proportion of students from lower castes compared to other colleges in Delhi, they have similar proportions of Muslims and other minorities, as well students living in hostels, when compared to other colleges or universities in India and Delhi.

Regarding college-level features, the colleges in my sample have a slightly higher pupil-teacher ratio and a greater number of assistant professors in the teaching staff compared to both the all-India and all-Delhi samples. Additionally, they have a similar proportion of female teaching staff but a lower proportion of non-teaching female staff. Overall, there is no particular pattern to highlight selection in either direction. Thus, students in the sample are representative geographically and for the most part do not seem to be selected in one direction or the other (same holds for the colleges).

To generalize the results discussed later, I follow List (2020) and Holz et al. (2020) and report the SANS conditions in Appendix D.

5.6 Data

5.6.1 Measuring sexual harassment

Since reporting sexual harassment may be stigmatizing and sensitive, I undertake a number of precautions to collect data on it. These measures are also listed in the ethical protocol

that I gained approval for from the University of Warwick and the IFMR (Institute for Financial Management and Research). For these data, I rely on self-reported exposure to sexual harassment from women as perpetrated by men in their own class. A key constraint in studying the impact of such a training is connecting the training to sexual harassment incidences without relying on reports of the men who receive the training. The design helps me overcome this challenge since I asked women about sexual harassment from men in their own class. Moreover, women are more likely to recognize a man from their own class rather than someone from outside it, which reduces measurement error. These reports of women can then be directly linked to the treatment, which is at the class level. This measurement strategy thus helps me capture the treatment effects cleanly. Although a legal complaints committee exists in the colleges, students did not reach out to them for complaints, and hence I rely only on the survey reports of women.

I discuss below how the measurement strategy overcomes several challenges associated with collecting sexual harassment data.

Selection into the sample. This is reduced because, as mentioned in Section 5.1, students did not know which date or time slot their class was scheduled to be visited by the survey team. Hence, concerns about which women or men complete the survey or not is minimized.

Questionnaire. I adapted the SEQ developed by other researchers (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald, 1988). This questionnaire has 17 items that are grouped under the categories of gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. I grouped some of the questions together on the basis of how mild or extreme they are in terms of how harmful they are to victims (the final questions are provided in Appendix A.1). The grouping of questions reduced fatigue and cognitive load on the women who finished the surveys in the limited time allotted.[23]

Detecting sexual harassment. To ensure that the male awareness intervention did not create differences in women's awareness of sexual harassment between the treatment and

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[23]Furthermore, these questions make the answers less subjective and less prone to gaps in women's understanding of sexual harassment. In particular, the questions asked women whether a particular incident "XXX" happened to them rather than asking whether they were sexually harassed, which might be more subjective and prone to information constraints. This approach necessarily means that I may not be able to cover all kinds of sexual harassment, but it allowed me to include the maximum number of items in the SEQ.

control classes, I provided all women in all classes with information on definitions of sexual harassment. Moreover, the chances of differences in detection are minimized in the case of SEQ due to the objective nature of the questions asked.

Under-reporting. It is still possible that stigma in the treatment classes may cause women to under-report sexual harassment. Cullen (2020) shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the reporting of non-partner sexual violence when elicited through a list method and a more direct but tablet-based method, which is closer to the method used in this paper. I also run placebo exercises to show that stigma is not driving the results on sexual harassment reported in Section 6.1.1. Further, under-reporting due to the fear of backlash is reduced since I did not ask women about the identity of the perpetrator in any question.

Privacy of female respondents. Consistent with what discussions with NGOs revealed, women answer much more truthfully in isolation, particularly from men. The survey team ensured that all women were taken to a separate isolated room together where they could answer the questions on individual tablets in privacy from college authorities and other students. A team of trained female surveyors was always there in the room so that women could ask them any question they wanted to.[24]

While these are not comprehensive measures to ensure complete truth-telling, these measures are stricter, more comprehensive, and complementary to those seen in the literature on sexual harassment (Aguilar et al., 2020, Folke and Rickne, 2020, Kondylis et al., 2019).[25] They are also more comprehensive than those used by the Demographic and Health Surveys to collect data on IPV for women.

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[24]Female surveyors help in making women participants more comfortable when answering sensitive questions Aguilar et al., 2020.

[25]Having third-party observers in classes to audit sexual harassment reports was not possible since it would have changed students behaviors. In addition, all women were told that they had the right to withdraw their data if they wanted to, even after submission, and they had the first right over the data that they gave to us. I provided all the women with my contact number and that of a resource person at the University of Warwick in case they wanted to retract their data. This helped to further increase the students' trust in data privacy. Until now, I have not received any data retraction request from any student.

5.6.2 Data for opposite-sex relationships

Two types of measures were collected to understand the effects on relationships with the opposite sex. I use the first measure to gain more insight on the effect on equilibrium outcomes of romantic relationships and friendships. Men and women were surveyed about their romantic partnerships and were asked to list friends from their own class. I then create a variable measuring the proportion of opposite-sex friends that they report from their own class and a dummy variable for whether they are dating someone in their own class.[26] The other type of measure is collected through a lab-in-the-field experiment, which is used to understand the effect on men's and women's choices to perform a gender complementary task together. By looking at this separately for men and women, I can study whether the effects on the survey measures are due to a change in men's or women's choices.

The lab-in-the-field experiment was a between-subject experiment for which men and women in each class were randomly grouped into mixed or same-sex pairs for a class-wide competition.[27] They were then asked to read about a quiz-related task that they could either perform with their assigned partner (stick) or alone (switch). The quiz is a combination of 12 questions from stereotypically female or male domains, and it is an adapted version of tasks used in the literature on gender stereotypes (Bordalo et al., 2019; Coffman et al., 2019; Coffman, 2014). They were then asked simultaneously and privately (on the tablet) whether they wanted to stay with their partner or work alone. If they chose to switch, then they solved 6 randomly selected questions from the same quiz. Winners (in teams or individually) were given food vouchers worth 40 INR (40 UK cents). I then compare both men's and women's choice to stay or switch in a opposite- versus same-sex group in the treatment and control classes, allowing me to understand whether the treatment differentially changed incentives for men and women to stay with each other as compared to same-sex groups. This is a 2 (male versus female subject) × 2 (mixed gender versus same-sex pair) × 2 (treatment or control class) design.

A combination of male and female stereotypical questions makes the quiz gender complementary rather than substitutable. This means that the decision to stick or switch cannot be because either thinks that one sex will be better alone in doing the task. Second, the rewards were such that each member of the pair would receive a food coupon or online voucher if they won, ensuring that the decision to stick or switch could not be

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[26]I do not focus on same-sex relationships in this context.

[27]Having same-sex groups also helps with obfuscation (Haaland et al., 2020), reducing the threat of demand effects.

affected by beliefs that men have a bargaining advantage. In this sense, the experiment cleanly captures whether the treatment affect men's and women's choices of switching or staying with each other on this short-term task. Gender segregation can occur in two ways: women and men do not stick with each other in the experiment and work alone or they stick with partners of their own sex. I use both of these margins as an indicator of a reduced tendency to interact with the opposite gender.[28]

5.6.3 Data for other outcomes

There are several challenges in collecting data not only on sexual harassment incidence but also on attitudes toward sexual harassment, behavior toward the opposite gender, and awareness about sexual harassment due to the sensitive nature of the topic. For collecting data on awareness, I developed and piloted questions in the form of hypothetical sexual harassment scenarios that I asked men and women to recognize as sexual harassment. These scenarios were developed in consultation with NGOs and legal experts working on sexual harassment. I asked respondents three main types of questions to test awareness: a) hypothetical sexual harassment scenarios, b) awareness about legal redressal mechanisms, and c) identifying acceptable courtship behaviors to test whether they chose any sexual harassment behavior as acceptable or not. The objectivity of these questions helps to alleviate concerns about demand effects. The questions were a mix of sexual harassment or non-sexual harassment scenarios (see Appendix A.2 for the detailed questions).

Measuring attitudes or beliefs toward sexual harassment in this case is a challenge due to experimenter demand effects. To address this, I asked both direct and indirect questions. For direct questions, I gave respondents three hypothetical sexual harassment situations. The respondents were told that it was sexual harassment, and then I asked them five sets of questions related to each of the three hypothetical situations. The first set asked them whether they thought that the situation should be legally termed as sexual harassment. This is what I refer to as the direct attitude questions, which are provided in Appendix Section A.4. The rest of the questions elicited their second order beliefs about their classmates for the same situations. These were asked to students in only 80% of the classes.

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[28]Furthermore, if the women anticipated any form of retaliation or backlash from the man they were paired with, then I find that women are less likely to switch from their male partners. This is because if either partner knows their own decision (to stick or switch) from the survey, they can infer what decision their partner made. Consequently, a change in women's preferences may manifest as them staying with women rather than switching away from men.

For indirect attitude questions, I used two sets of data: a list experiment (Haaland et al., 2020) and Google form data. For the list experiment, I masked a sentence on victim-blaming attitude within a set of three statements that were contentious but related to sexual harassment and not stigmatized. The list experiments help to provide plausible deniability since they ask the participant only about the number of statements that they agree with.[29] Within each class, I randomly grouped participants into a list treatment and list control group using their endline survey instrument. The first group read the victim-blaming statement masked with three other statements related to sexual harassment. The second group only saw the three statements that were different from victim blaming. Comparing the mean number of statements agreed with between the two groups in the treatment and control classes gives the differential effect of the treatment on victim-blaming attitudes. The statements for the list are in Appendix A.3. A similar list experiment was also undertaken in the long run surveys.

The ICC of the colleges floated a Google form during this period, inviting students to volunteer or intern for NGO's that work to eradicate sexual harassment and violence against women. These volunteer opportunities were real, and the sign-ups were shared with the NGO's as well.[30] I used these data to construct a class-level variable: the share of students who sign up to volunteer for the NGOs. This is available at the class level only since the form was floated through a class WhatsApp group by the complaints committee rather than to individual students. However these measures may not still fully capture attitudes towards sexual harassment.

Finally, participants were asked both direct and indirect questions about the perception of their peers' support against sexual harassment (detailed in Appendix A.5). The direct questions asked men and women about their perceptions of their classmates' attitudes, and the indirect questions asked for nominations of other students for a class nodal student for taking advice on sexual harassment prevention or reporting. I combined these questions together to form indices to reduce chances of false discovery (Anderson, 2008).

All the measures above were collected in the same manner for the female and male interventions.

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[29]Most recently, this has been used in Bursztyn et al. (2020b) and Dhar et al. (2022) to measure stigmatized attitudes in Saudi Arabia and India, respectively.

[30]Since volunteering or interning with NGOs is considered to have considerable returns for future labor market prospects, the students had an incentive to sign up.

5.7 Econometric specification

The main econometric specification for understanding the effect of male sexual harassment awareness training on outcomes for both men and women is

$$(1) \qquad Y_{icg} = \beta_1 T_{cg} + \beta_2' X_{icg} + \beta_3' K_{cg} + \alpha_g + \gamma_s + \epsilon_{icg},$$

where i is the student surveyed in the endline survey, c is the class they are in, g is the college student i is in, T_{cg} is whether the class c in college g is assigned to receive the male intervention or not, X_{icg} are student characteristics, K_{cg} are class characteristics taken from administrative data, α_g are college-level fixed effects, and γ_s are strata (sex ratio×field of study×year of study) fixed effects following standard practice (Glennerster and Takavarasha, 2013). Y_{icg} is the outcome of interest. Standard errors are clustered at the class level, controlling for any correlation in outcomes of students within a class who may be subject to the same shocks. Controls are selected by the post-double selection LASSO method (Belloni et al., 2014). If the baseline controls are missing for some individuals, then I control for a dummy variable indicating whether the variable is missing for the respondent or not. β_1 captures the intent-to-treat effect of the training on student i's outcome.

The empirical specification for the lab-in-the-field experiment takes the following form:

$$(2) \qquad Y_{mcg} = \beta_1 T_{cg} + \beta_2 Mixed\_Gender_{mcg} + \beta_3 T_{cg} \times Mixed\_Gender_{mcg} + \beta_4' X_{mcg}$$

$$+ \beta_5' K_{cg} + \alpha_g + \gamma_s + \epsilon_{mcg}.$$

In this equation, I examine the binary decision of male student m in class c in college g to continuing doing the task with his randomly assigned partner ($Y_{mcg} = 1$) rather than opting to do it alone ($Y_{mcg} = 0$). $MixedGender_{mcg}$ is a dummy equal to 1 if m is assigned to a mixed gender group. The omitted category is the same-sex group in the control classes. X_{mcg} are student-level controls, and K_{cg} are class-level controls. Standard errors are clustered at the class level. I run a similar regression for women.

The following specification is used for the female intervention results. It exploits both levels of randomization for the intervention:

$$(3) \qquad Y_{ic} = \beta_1 Female\_treatment_{ic} + \beta_2 High\_Intensity_c +$$

$$\beta_3 High\_Intensity_c \times Female\_treatment_{ic} + \gamma_s + \beta_4 X_{ic} + \epsilon_{ic}.$$

Y_{ic} is the relevant dependent variable, $Female\_treatment\_ic$ is a dummy that equals 1 if the woman i is assigned to the treatment and equals 0 if she is not, and $High\_Intensity_c$ is a dummy that equals 1 if class c was assigned to the high-intensity treatment. β_3 is the difference in the outcome between someone who is treated in the high-intensity class versus someone who is not treated in the same class, β_2 is the effect of being an untreated woman in a high-intensity class as against someone who is untreated in a low-intensity class, and β_1 gives the effect of being treated in a low-intensity class as compared to someone who is untreated in a low-intensity class. γ_s are strata fixed effects. Standard errors are clustered at the class level, and controls are selected by the post-double selection LASSO method.

6   Results

In what follows, I first discuss the results of the male intervention for the primary and mechanism outcomes and then discuss the female intervention for comparison.

6.1   Results for the male intervention

6.1.1   Impact on sexual harassment

To obtain results for the male intervention, I use the question on sexual harassment that I asked women about regarding harassment perpetrated by men in their own class. This approach tightly links the results to the treatment and helps overcome issues related to identifying the harasser's identity. The questions I posed to women covered different types of sexual harassment: mild, intermediate, and extreme incidences, as described in Section 2.

I examine the effects of the training on these three different types of events separately. I also construct an overall index called the "same-class index," which combines all types of harassment together. Moreover, as mentioned previously, these results pertain to all women regardless of whether they were part of the baseline or not, to improve power.

Table 3 shows the results for short run in panel A and long run in panel B, and the results for just baseline women are in appendix table E.9 for the short run. The training reduces sexual harassment perpetrated by men from treatment classes by 0.06 sd, as reported by their female classmates about three to four months after the treatment. The training leads

to a reduction in incidence of extreme forms of sexual harassment perpetrated by men from the training classes, by 1.05 p.p. (or 0.125 sd) at 1% level of significance. Note that 1% of women in the control group report being harassed physically by men in their class over a period of three months preceding the survey.[31] Thus, the training is highly effective in eliminating the more harmful forms of sexual harassment from the treated men.

The results are robust to randomization inference, thereby allaying concerns about the low incidence of extreme forms of harassment in the control group. They are also robust to multiple hypothesis testing. In a placebo exercise, I show in Appendix Tables E.12 and E.13 that there are no such negative effects on women's reporting of sexual harassment from men in a different class or men from outside the college in the short run. I find a marginally significant increase in women's reporting of extreme forms of harassment from men outside the college. This is because women's relationships with men outside their college increases after the treatment discussed in next section. This shows that the effect on sexual harassment from men in same class is due to the treatment affecting these men's behavior rather than women's reporting behavior.

Estimates for extreme forms of sexual harassment translate into 51 fewer women facing extreme forms of sexual harassment over an entire academic year (which includes two semesters). This should be taken as a lower bound on the actual number of incidents of sexual harassment since the outcome captures only the proportion of women or the extensive margin. Overall, there is a strong effect of 0.06 sd after a training of three to five hours, comparable with the effects of community-based training programs on IPV.

Compared with other studies in the crime and development literature, Abramsky et al. (2014) report an effect of –0.31 s.d on physical violence, Haushofer et al. (2019) report –0.2 s.d on sexual violence and –0.16 s.d on physical violence, Heller et al. (2017) report –0.16 s.d on arrests, Blattman et al. (2017) report a null effect on IPV, and Abramsky et al. (2014) report 0.03 s.d on sexual violence. With the caveat that these studies focus only on IPV and other crimes, my results for overall sexual harassment are thus close to those of Green et al. (2020), who show negative effects of a movie screening program in Uganda on

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[31]In Appendix Table E.9, extreme forms of harassment decrease among women in baseline, consistent with the main results. In addition, intermediate forms of harassment show an increase. The overall effect is negative but insignificant.

domestic violence reported by women.[32][33] The results for the short run are also robust to alternative samples over which I created the index, shown in Appendix Table E.11.

For the long run, I find that the male treatment leads to a marginally significant decline in mostly intermediate forms of harassment like online stalking, staring, and stalking. However, the overall effects on sexual harassment are insignificant. The long-run data are noisier, especially because women were asked to recall incidences of sexual harassment before the pandemic. This might lead to noisier estimates even though the coefficient on the overall index is higher than before. Appendix Table E.14 shows that women who were surveyed closer to the recall period report significantly lower overall sexual harassment than women who were surveyed much later, confirming this effect of the recall period. These results are surprising since the training was for 3 to 5 hours long. Overall, the training reduces sexual harassment, especially the most extreme forms of sexual harassment.

This training is easy to incorporate into a standard curriculum and is hence also scalable. The results show that a training that combines both an informative (awareness component) and a persuasive component (empathy building) can help deter sexual harassment in a high prevalence context.

6.1.2 Opposite-sex relationships

Next, I study the effects of the training on opposite-sex relationships in the treatment versus control classes. If the perceived social disapproval (D) becomes higher, then relationships could decline due to women reducing their acceptability of such relationships (theoretical prediction 1). On the contrary, if only the proportion of G types increases, then relationships could increase (theoretical prediction 2). The results on relationships will help to distinguish between the two mechanisms.

Table 4 reports regression results of the effects on the equilibrium outcomes in columns 2, 3, 4 and for choices in the lab-in-the-field experiment in columns 5 and 6. Columns 7 and 8 show the same survey measures for the long run. Panel A provides the effects on men and panel B on women. Column 2 shows that the training reduces opposite-sex romantic partnerships by 1.3 p.p. in the treatment classes, corresponding to a 64% reduction on

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[32]I first converted there estimates to reflect effects over a three-month period.

[33]Appendix Table E.10 indicates that including sexual harassment incidents from men in any environment (i.e., within class, outside the class, or outside the college) does not show significant effects on overall sexual harassment. However, this lack of significant effects is due to an increase in sexual harassment from outside the college.

average compared to the control mean of 2%. The coefficient is reassuringly similar for men, although the effect for them is insignificant. Moreover, romantic relationships between men and women in the same class continue to be lower in the long run, while women still report being in a relationship with men outside the class over the long run even after they have graduated from college. The effects if anything become stronger showing that women's beliefs about men didnot change over the long run.

Column 3 shows a negative but insignificant effect on friendships. This is consistent with the theoretical prediction 1, that is, an increase in D. Ex-ante, it is unclear whether these effects originate from women or men and which one will be more dominant. The theoretical framework shows that the effects on relationships are due to a change in women's choices. Lab-in-field results are used to study this.

Since the task that each pair in the lab-in-the-field experiment had to solve was gender complementary, there should be at least as high a tendency to stick to one's partner in a mixed gender pair as that in a same-sex pair in the control classes (the reasons are listed in Section 5.6.2). This is what I find in Appendix Figure E.3 for the control group, proving that respondents did take the stereotypical nature of the task into account. It also shows that the treatment increases men's tendency to stick with women in mixed gender pairs as compared to the control group, with no such effect for women (although this is statistically insignificant). However, women stay with each other much more than with men in the treatment versus control classes (74% versus 63%), indicating a breakdown of relationships on account of women's choices.

Column 5 shows that women's preference for cooperation within same-sex pairs increases by approximately 14 p.p. (37% increase over control) due to the male training. However, I cannot detect any effect on men's choices. I therefore combine the survey measures and lab experiment to create an opposite-sex relationship index using the method of Anderson (2008), and the results are in column 1.[34] I find an overall decrease in the opposite-sex relationship index by approximately 0.13 sd for women and an overall insignificant and small effect on the index reported by men. Thus, the sexual harassment awareness training has negative effects on such relationships suggestively on account of a change in women's choices.

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[34]Since the lab-in-the-field experiment was a between-subject experiment, I had to impute the missing values for those who were not assigned to a particular group, using the Kling-Liebman-Katz (KLK) method (Kling et al., 2007).

These results on romantic relationships persist even two to three years after the intervention, showing that women's beliefs about men in their class did not change. Women report around 47% lower romantic relationships with men in their class and continue to report around 40% increase in relationships outside class indicating almost perfect substitution. For men the coefficients continue to be negative, and there is no such evidence of substitution between female classmates and women outside the class. This means there is a potential for these training to have persistently long run effects on relationships and interactions.

The fact that there is no cautious effect on men's tendency to stick or switch away from women in their pairs, and that women most likely prefer to pair with women, at least in the lab-in-the-field experiment suggests that results on relationships are more likely due to women's lack of acceptance rather than men's lack of offer of such relationships. Next, I discuss various pieces of evidence that support this conclusion.

6.1.3 Mechanisms

To summarize the results above, I find that sexual harassment reported by women from men in their class decreases as a result of these men being treated. In addition, their reported romantic relationships decrease (also for men) in both the short and long run.

Did the treatment make men or women more cautious? An obvious explanation of the results could be that men might have reduced their romantic offers to women in their class as a result of the treatment (I call this men's caution), which reduces both romantic relationships and sexual harassment.

However, I find several pieces of evidence that indicate this cannot be the main mechanism. First, I do not find evidence that men shy away from performing a gender complementary task with women in the treatment versus control classes when they are randomly paired with a woman. If anything, I find that men's tendency to stick with female partners in mix-gender pairs is higher in treatment versus the control classes (see figure E.3). Second, women were asked at endline whether they were approached by someone in their class for forming a romantic relationship. I cannot reject the null effect of the male treatment on men approaching women in their classes; however, the coefficient is negative but less than 10% of the control mean (Tables E.16).

Third, a mediation analysis shows that romantic relationships cannot mediate the effects on extreme forms of harassment even though the effects on overall sexual harassment decreases and is now insignificant (Table E.17). Moreover, I find that single women too face extreme forms of harassment (Table E.19), which were impacted the most. Thus, dating a man alone cannot predict whether you are harassed by him or not. Last, I cannot reject the null effects of the treatment on non-extreme forms of harassment. If the awareness treatment makes men cautious, it should ideally have had stronger effects on non-extreme forms of harassment if it was the main mechanism. For instance, mild forms include being asked repeatedly out on a date, or being stalked on social media which are all forms of "traditional" courtship behaviours in this setting.

On the contrary, I find from the lab-in-the-field experiment that, if anything, women might have become more cautious in working or interacting with the men after the treatment. Moreover, women report an increase in romantic relationships with men outside the college and a decrease in relationships with men within their class both in the long and short run (Table 4), indicating that the treatment changes how women perceive men in their class instead of all men.

Also if women are becoming cautious because of asymmetric information about mens types, then the results for same class romantic relationships are bound to be stronger for first year students than seniors. Indeed Table E.18 confirms this result. Thus the evidence above shows that it is most likely that women were becoming cautious rather than the men as a result of the training.

Did women become less likely to report harassment from men in their class without a change in men's behavior? While it is possible that women became wary of reporting sexual harassment against men after the trainings due to perceived pressure, I find evidence against this scenario. If this were the case, we would expect to find similar negative effects on all types of sexual harassment rather than just extreme forms. Additionally, women's reporting of extreme forms of harassment from men outside the college or outside their class do not change, suggesting that they are not becoming more sensitive to reporting extreme forms of harassment.

Although it is impossible to rule out the possibility that men in their class dissuaded women from reporting extreme forms of harassment in a very particular way, it seems unlikely. Moreover, men's concerns about getting caught should have been minimal since

women were never asked about the exact identity of the perpetrator (see the discussion in Section 5.6).

Awareness, beliefs and attitudes of men and women   In this section, I study the main mechanisms highlighted in Section 1 to understand the effects I find on sexual harassment and opposite-sex relationships through the lens of the theoretical framework.

Is awareness the main mechanism?   Table 5, column 1 presents results for the effect of the training on men's awareness about sexual harassment. These results help shed light on whether there is any lack of awareness about sexual harassment among men regarding what behaviors constitute sexual harassment and whether the training helps to alleviate it. I find that men in the treatment classes are 0.09 sd (column 1) more aware approximately three months after the training than men in the control classes (with no such effects for women in their classes). These effects persist approximately two to three years after the training. This is a strong effect after a training of 3 to 5 hours.

Figure 5 shows that awareness about legal mechanisms increases by 107% and awareness about ambiguous sexual harassment situation increases by 12% in the short run. Within the theoretical framework, an increase in awareness can have two effects: it can induce some unaware G types to change their behavior (directly reducing sexual harassment) or induce some B types to change their attitudes (decrease in p).

This begs the question if increased awareness was not the only driver of results. An increase in awareness would lead to an increase in relationships within the theoretical framework if this were the main mechanism. However, results on dating show opposite effects. Moreover, Figure 5 shows that awareness increases significantly for intermediate and mild forms of sexual harassment, but sexual harassment of extreme events decreases significantly atleast in the short run. This suggests that awareness cannot be the main mechanism through which this training works.

Does men's perception of their peers change?   : Role of peers or informal institutions has been considered to have a deterrent effect on crime (Nagin et al., 2013). Within colleges, these informal institutions can be particularly strong given strong peer groups. Peers can impose sanctions or intervene, call out sexual harassment, or provide informal support if someone is a target of sexual harassment. Within the theoretical framework, this is represented by social disapproval of B-type men by peers (D).

I collected men's beliefs or perceptions about their peers' attitudes towards sexual harassment in both short and long run. The results are show in clumns 2 and 3 of Table 5.that the perception of social costs of sexual harassment increased strongly for men (significant at 5% level). Column 4 shows a very weak effect on the perception of the legal costs of sexual harassment for men. These effects persist strongly in the long run for men despite the fact that these men had graduated. In column 4 of the same table I show that there is no change in men's perception of legal costs to harassment. The did not think women will report to ICC neither did they trust that the ICC will do much about it.

Additionally, I asked men in 80% of the classes to report their perceived probability that a woman in their class will report three hypothetical sexual harassment scenarios to their own classmates or acquaintances and to the ICC, as well as their beliefs about other men's and women's acceptability of the three situations as sexual harassment legally. Appendix Tables E.20, E.22 show the results. For each situation, men report a higher probability of women reporting to their classmates rather than to the ICC as in table E.20. Their perception about other men's and women's acceptance of the law increases significantly, while it does not change for women as in table E.22. This shows that deterrence against sexual harassment likely comes from increases in perceived social disapproval rather than perceived legal costs. Infact, these results persist even two to three years after the intervention and for all types of sexual harassment. This is shown in tables E.23 and E.24. There is an increase in empathy reported by men in treated classes (but this could be affected by demand effects) which nontheless does not translate into any change in actual attitudes as shown earlier.

As explained in Section 5.6, I use a list experiment, a Google form exercise to measure men's attitudes and a donation experiment, which helps me understand if any attitudes toward sexual harassment have changed. I assume here that if men do not empathize with the issue of sexual harassment or blame the victims for sexual harassment, then it indicates that their intrinsic attitude toward sexual harassment perpetration did not change.

Table 5 shows the results for both of these variables in columns 5 and 6. There is no effect on either men's victim-blaming attitudes (0.001) or the Google form sign-ups (−0.002) and this holds true for both the short and long run. The coefficients are also very small relative to the mean. This is in contrast to Dhar et al. (2022), who find that a gender sensitization program improved students' gender attitudes in India by 0.179 sd. This could be because sexual harassment attitudes may be particular difficult to change and because I focus on older students, for whom such attitudes may be less malleable.

Overall, these results indicate that the training persistently increases men's perceptions of social disapproval of sexual harassment without there being a detectable change in their intrinsic attitudes. This is similar to the insight of Bursztyn and Yang (2022) and Bursztyn et al. (2020b) that individual perceptions might not correctly reflect beliefs or actual attitudes of those around but can affect one's own actions nonetheless.

I also show results for the mechanism outcomes for women, and they align with the short-run results. Specifically, women's awareness and perceived informal or formal support toward sexual harassment do not change in the long run. Interestingly, their attitudes also do not change in the long run, which I test for using a donation experiment and using a similar list experiment as in the short run to measure victim-blaming attitudes of women. These results can be found in Appendix Table E.25.

6.1.4 Spillovers on men

There are two main types of spillovers I focus on: spillovers from men in the treatment classes to women in the control classes and spillovers from men in the treatment classes to men in the control classes. I circumvent the former completely because I asked women specific questions about incidents of sexual harassment from men in their own class. This allows me to cleanly measure the effect that the treatment has on women's experiences of sexual harassment from trained men.

For the second type of spillovers, I use information on friendships that I collected at baseline for men in the treatment and control classes. I augment the previous specification by controlling for the number of male friends that a male student has from outside his own class and for the number of male friends he has from the treated classes. This allows me to study whether the effects of the treatment of one's own class is affected by these spillovers. Appendix Table E.26 shows the results. The direct effect of the treatment stays strong and intact, while the coefficients of potential spillovers from male friends in the treatment classes are relatively small and insignificant. Thus, there is no evidence of spillovers from men in the treatment to men in other control classes. The lack of spillovers despite the within-college randomization of the male treatment is not surprising since the endline was done approximately three months after the intervention. The spillovers therefore do not seem to be a main concern in the short run.

6.2 Comparison with intervention on female sexual harassment awareness

Interpreting female intervention results needs caution. This is because providing women with information on sexual harassment can potentially lead to changes in their reporting due to increased awareness or knowledge. Moreover, it may also induce changes in women's behavior, affecting their actual exposure to sexual harassment. Disentangling these effects can be challenging.

To overcome this challenge, I compare treated women in high- and low-intensity classes. Hence I report the F-test of equality of coefficients for these women to understand the effect of the class-level treatment to compare with the male treatment conditional on the women being aware of sexual harassment.

6.2.1 Impact on sexual harassment and opposite-sex relationships

Table 6, presents the results obtained from estimating the regression in equation 3 for short and long run. The short run effect of awareness treatment of women is positive on their reporting of sexual harassment but insignificant (β_3) and the effect fades overtime. Being an unaware woman in a high intensity treatment class shows no detectable effects in short run and long run although β_2 becomes negative in long run. Finally, the additional effect of being treated in the high intensity class is large negative in short run and negligible in the long run. To investigate further, I test whether $\beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_1 = 0$, but I do not detect any statistically significant differences between the two. I can rule out an effect of the size of 0.1 or above with the class-level female intervention.

Next, Table 6, column 3 and 4 show the results from a similar specification as above for the opposite-sex relationships index. Being a treated woman in low intensity class, leads to a significantly negative impact by 0.15 sd on relationships with men, but this effect is entirely positive for treated women in high intensity classes albeit insignificant. This means that having more treated women around oneself or in ones network arrests some of the breakdown in relationships. This gives also more confidence for male intervention results since all women in that case were provided with this same information intervention. So breakdown of relationships is necessarily coming from the male intervention. In the short run though there were no such differences. Hence the female intervention does not

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change women's experiences of sexual harassment but may lead to some break down of relationships only if very few women are treated.

Appendix Figure E.4 shows a slightly positive effect on the perceived social costs of sexual harassment (significant at the 10% level), but it is not strong enough for high intensity treatment classes for men. The female treatment has a precisely estimated null effect on awareness of men. Thus an important difference here is that even if we believe that the perception of peer support increases against sexual harassment due to the class-level treatment of women, it may have limited effects on sexual harassment if men do not know what "non-sexually harassing" behaviors are.

7   Conclusion

This paper presents experimental evidence on the impact of sexual harassment awareness training for college students, examining its effects on sexual harassment outcomes for women and on relationships between men and women. The findings clearly show that the training for men significantly reduces sexual harassment incidents experienced by women. Crucially, the effectiveness of this training is closely tied to its group-based approach, often conducted with peers. In particular, this group-based training can influence men's perception of their peers' attitudes, leading perceived social disapproval and inducing them to change their behavior. However, in a framework where women use men's behavior to screen between "good" and "bad" types of men, women may face challenges in effectively screening between these two types after the training. Notably, I do not detect significant effects on men's intrinsic attitudes toward sexual harassment using measures that alleviate experimenter demand effects, which may be particularly important given the potential biases in self-reported data on attitudes. This holds even after two to three years after the training.

I also find that the training successfully increases men's awareness about sexual harassment and legal procedures for dealing with it by 0.09 sd. The training completely removes most extreme forms of sexual harassment in the short run. Men and women are also less likely to form romantic relationships with each other largely due to a shift in women's preferences. Long-run surveys undertaken two to three years after the intervention show that the results on overall sexual harassment remains weakly lower for women who were

surveyed close to the recall period and that effects on romantic relationships persist in the long run.

Sexual harassment awareness training for men in the study lasted three to five hours, making it a relatively short intervention compared to other attitude change interventions in existing research. The observed reduction in sexual harassment also instills confidence about the intervention's scalability. According to journalists, sexual harassment and abuse on campus can cost universities millions of dollars, not only through lawsuits but also through reduced alumni donations and future admissions.[35] Given the interpersonal setting of universities, this study's relevance extends to workplaces as well.

In conclusion, this study's findings highlight the effectiveness of sexual harassment awareness training for men in reducing incidents of sexual harassment experienced by women. The group-based approach proves to be crucial in inducing behavior change among men. However, additional research is needed to explore the broader implications of this intervention, particularly in workplace settings. This can have effects on workplace perceived safety, retention and employment outcomes of women and men.

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[35]Campus Sexual Assault Can Cost Universities Millions, Forbes, January 2015.

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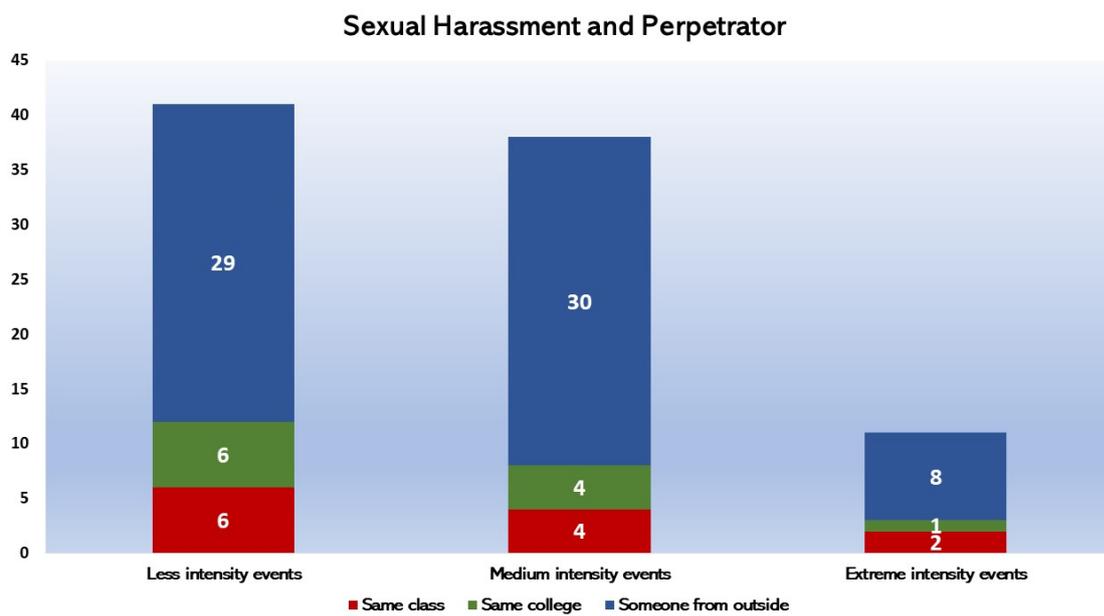
Figure 1: Perpetrators of sexual harassment as reported by women

The figure shows the percentage of women who faced sexual harassment from men in different categories. The men are categorized into three groups: a) someone from outside the college, b) someone in college but not in the same class as the female respondent, and c) someone from the same class as the female respondent.
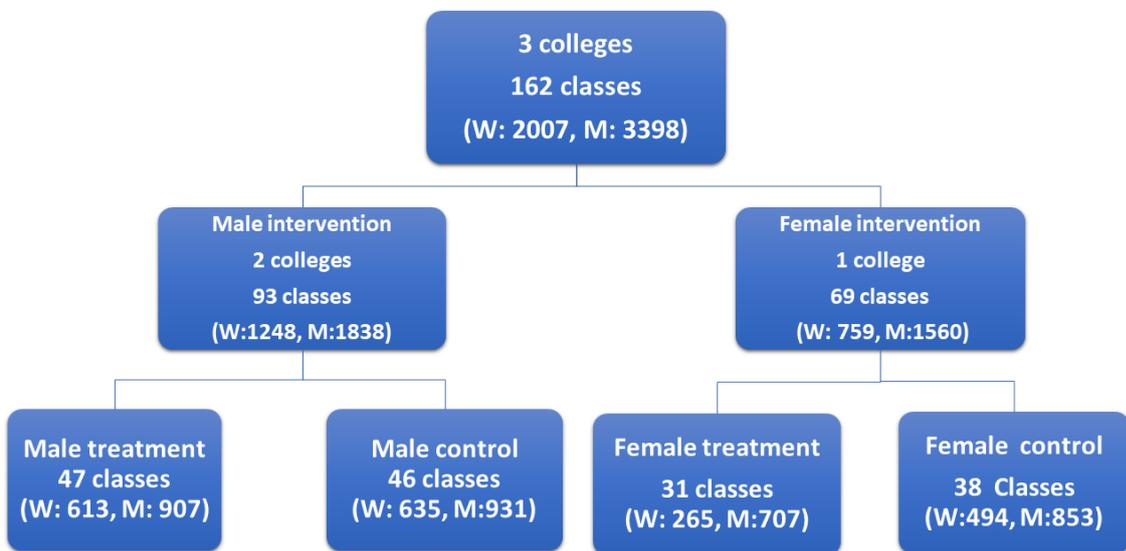
Figure 2: Overall design

Figure 3: Male training

Men were taken to rooms with projectors for the training, where two trainers from Safecity delivered the training in a treatment class.
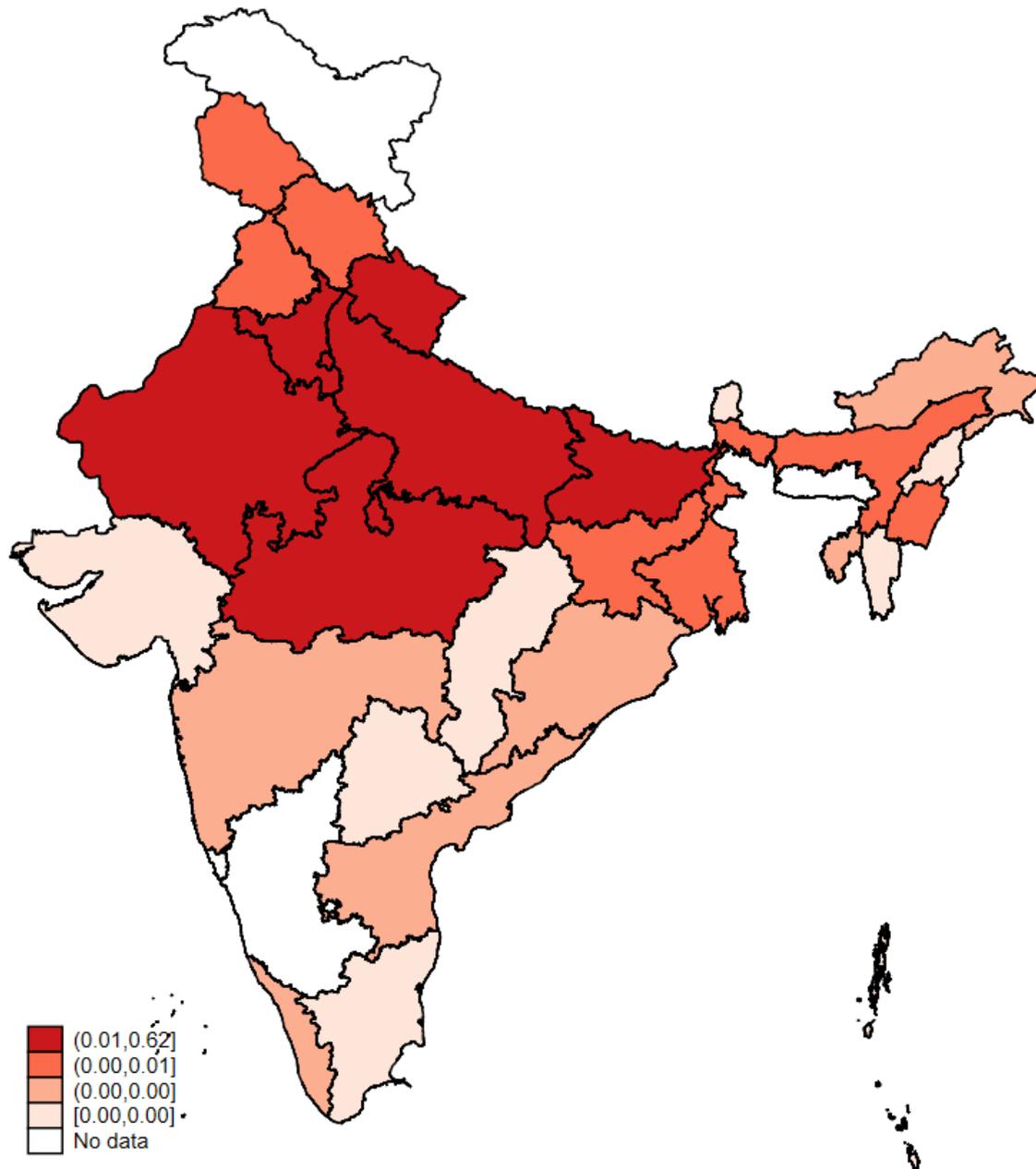
Figure 4: Geographic representation of the student sample
The figure highlights the proportion of the student sample that comes from each state in India.
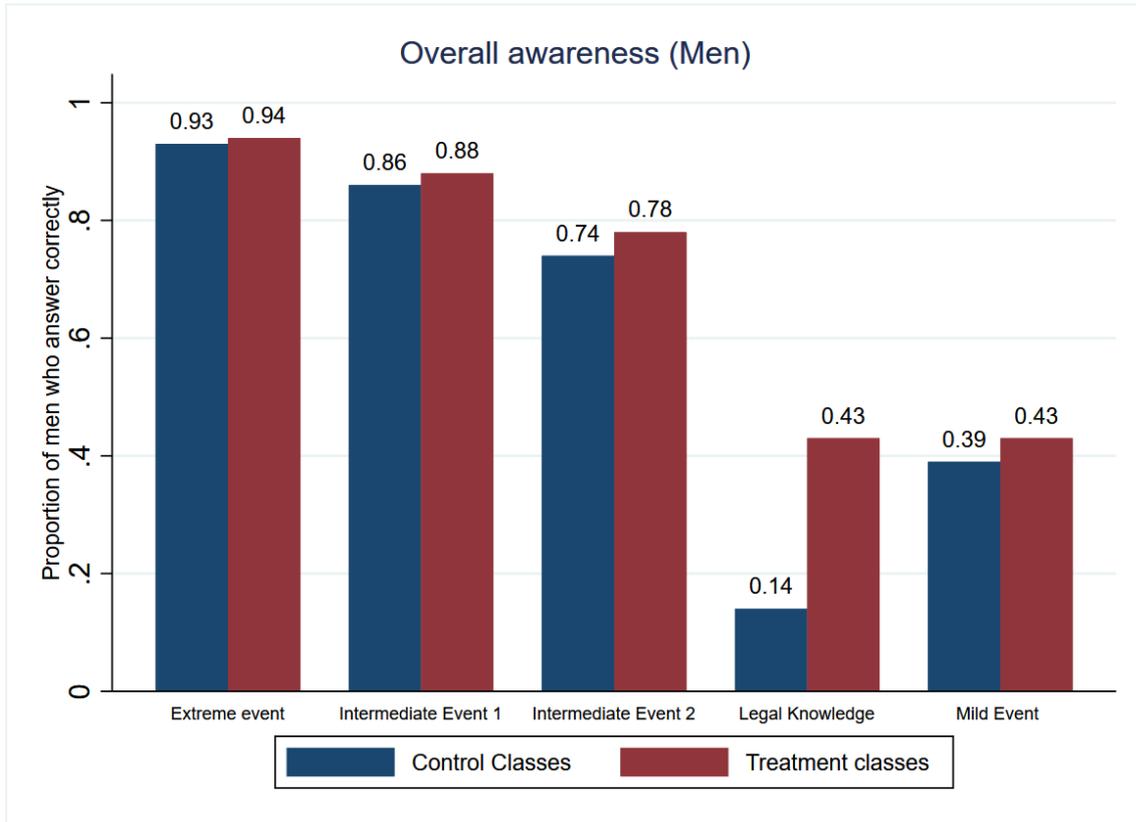
Figure 5: Treatment effects on men's awareness

The x-axis lists the different types of events on which I tested men's awareness. The y-axis reports the percentage of men who answered the question correctly. Red bars represent the treatment classes, and blue bars represent the control classes.

Table 1: Prevalence of sexual harassment at baseline

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev	Min	Max	N
Low-intensity events	0.44	0.49	0	1	1,201
Intermediate-intensity events	0.47	0.49	0	1	1,202
Extreme-intensity events	0.16	0.36	0	1	1,189

Note: The table reports the prevalence rate of sexual harassment at different intensities at baseline. Female students are asked about their exposure to different sexual harassment events in the two months before the survey. Mild events include sexual remarks, jokes, and being asked repeatedly out on a date; intermediate events include physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment; and extreme events include sexual assault and physical contact without permission such as groping, pinching, and fondling.

Table 2: Balance tests for women and men at baseline

Control Variable	Treatment Mean	Control Mean	N	p-value
Father education primary	0.05	0.07	2,454	0.16
Father education secondary	0.26	0.28	2,454	0.28
Father education higher	0.68	0.64	2,454	0.16
Mother education primary	0.13	0.14	2,413	0.41
Mother education secondary	0.27	0.31	2,413	0.16
Mother education higher	0.58	0.54	2,413	0.18
Proportion general caste	0.64	0.62	2,675	0.30
Proportion SC/ST/OBC*	0.36	0.37	2,675	0.30
Proportion other groups	0.01	0.01	2,675	0.52
Living in PG/hostel/flat	0.26	0.25	2,675	0.89
Living with family	0.74	0.75	2,675	0.89
Working mother	0.22	0.23	2,902	0.75
Homemaker mother	0.44	0.44	2,902	0.93
From Delhi	0.62	0.61	3,086	0.64
Number of classes	47	46		
Number of students	1,520	1,566		
F-stat	1.07			

Note: The table reports the mean of baseline characteristics for both men and women in the treatment and control classes. It also provides p-values from regressing the characteristics on the class-level treatment variable. Strata and college fixed effects are included, and standard errors are clustered at the class level. *SC/ST/OBC represent castes in India. The p-value for the joint test of significance is 0.38.

Table 3: Women's self-reported exposure to sexual harassment perpetrated by men in their class

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index	Mild Events	Intermediate Events	Extreme Events
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
A: Short Run				
Male Treatment	-0.062**	-0.014	0.011	-0.011***
	(0.029)	(0.016)	(0.008)	(0.003)
RI p-values	[0.061]	[0.482]	[0.263]	[0.007]
N	1165	1195	1165	1165
Control mean	0.00	0.07	0.03	0.01
B: Medium Run				
Male Treatment	-0.083	-0.020	-0.023*	-0.008
	(0.057)	(0.020)	(0.014)	(0.009)
RI p-values	[0.412]	[0.482]	[0.146]	[0.468]
N	730	682	696	697
Control Mean	0.00	0.05	0.04	0.01

Note: The table reports results from regressing the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method. This index combines questions on different types of sexual harassment perpetrated by men in the same class, as reported by women in columns 2–4. The questions asked female respondents in column 2 if they faced a mild event like sexual remarks, jokes, and being asked repeatedly out on a date; in column 3 if they faced intermediate events like physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment; and in column 4 if they faced extreme events like sexual assault and physical contact without permission such as groping, pinching, and fondling. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. Panel A gives results for endline surveys undertaken between 3 to 5 months after intervention, and Panel B gives gives results for endline surveys undertaken between 2 to 3 years after intervention. The results are medium term since women were asked to recall about sexual harassment from before covid while surveys were done after covid had started. Randomization inference p-values are reported in square brackets using 1,000 repetitions. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table 4: Short and Long run effects of the male intervention on opposite sex relationships for men and women

| | Short run Survey measures | | | | Lab-in-the-Field | | Long run Survey Measures | |
| | Opposite-Sex* Relationship index | Dating Same Class | Dating Outside class | Opposite-Sex Friends | Switches (Same Sex) | Stays (Opposite Sex) | Dating Same Class | Dating Outside class |
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: All Men								
Male treatment	0.042	-0.010	0.012	-0.006	0.022	0.018	-0.009	-0.021
	(0.028)	(0.007)	(0.015)	(0.016)	(0.048)	(0.048)	(0.010)	(0.018)
N	1,895	1,539	1,546	1,810	838	531	1,162	1,162
Control mean	0.00	0.02	0.10	0.11	0.40	0.61	0.035	0.125
Panel A: All Women								
Male treatment	-0.134	-0.012*	0.06***	-0.012	-0.141***	0.000	-0.022**	0.075**
	(0.033)	(0.006)	(0.023)	(0.208)	(0.028)	(0.022)	(0.010)	(0.031)
N	1,381	1,144	1,146	1,354	555	525	632	632
Control mean	-	0.02	0.18	0.15	0.37	0.68	0.035	0.191

Note: The table reports results from a regression of dependent variable for men in panel A and women in panel B on the class-level intervention for men. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index using the method of Anderson (2008) created from a combination of dependent variables in columns 2–6 excluding column 3. In column 2 the dependent variable is a dummy variable that asks men and women whether they are dating anyone in their own class. In column 3 it asks them about their romantic relationships outside their class. In column 4 it is the proportion of opposite-sex friends from same class. In column 5, it indicates whether the student switches from the same-sex partner from their own class or not and in column 6 it indicates whether the student stays with the opposite-sex partner from their own class or not. Note that the number of observations for columns 5 and 6 are less because the lab in field is a between-subject design. Values are thus imputed using the KLK method for those who were not in a particular group. Columns 7 and 8 show results for dating for the long run after the students have graduated from college. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

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Table 5: Short and Long run effects of the male intervention on mechanism outcomes for men

Mechanisms	Awareness index (1)	Victim reports informally (2)	Peers will support victim (3)	Perceived legal costs (4)	Victim Blaming attitudes (5)	Social Support Exercise (6)
Short Run						
Male treatment	0.093***	0.020**	0.029*	0.018	0.001	-0.002
	(0.025)	(0.010)	(0.016)	(0.033)	(0.086)	(0.014)
N	1,904	1,880	1,904	1,887	1,851	93
Control mean	N(0,1)	0.56	0.73	N(0,1)	0.02	0.02
Long Run						
Male treatment	0.069***	0.009	0.037**	0.026	-0.044	0.025
	(0.025)	(0.010)	(0.016)	(0.041)	(0.084)	(0.057)
N	1,371	1,349	1,355	1,347	1,340	1,333
Control Mean	N(0,1)	0.38	0.61	N(0,1)	2.43	0.56

Note: The table reports results from a fixed effects regression of the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable using short and long-run surveys with the same sample of students. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created by combining questions used to test awareness of sexual harassment. In column 2 the dependent variable asks 'What proportion of your female classmates will report to other classmates in case of an SH incident' and in column 3 asks 'What proportion of your classmates will support a sexual harassment victim', in column 4 it is an index created using questions on the perception of legal support for victims. In column 5 the dependent variable is the coefficient on the interaction between the treatment and list treatment; this coefficient provides the differential effect of the male treatment on the number of statements that men agree with in short (panel A) and long run (panel B). In column 6, the dependent variable measures the proportion of students who signed up for volunteering for anti-sexual harassment organizations for short run, and measures whether men in treatment class differentially are more likely to donate to anti-sexual assault organization for long run. This variable is created by using Google forms floated in all classes and not to each student personally, giving 93 classes as the sample size in panel A. The PDS LASSO method is used to select controls, and strata and college fixed effects are included in the regressions. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table 6: Short and Long run effects of the female information intervention on sexual harassment and opposite sex interactions

	Sexual Harassment		Opposite-Sex	
	Short run	Long run	Short run	Long run
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: All women				
Female treatment β_1	0.07	0.03	-0.09	-0.15**
	(0.10)	(0.13)	(0.10)	(0.06)
High intensity β_2	0.03	-0.08	0.06	-0.00
	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)
High intensity $\times$ Female treatment β_3	-0.18	0.02	-0.15	0.12
	(0.12)	(0.16)	(0.12)	(0.11)
N	563	350	595	349
$\beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_1 = 0$	0.24	0.71	0.99	0.03
Control mean	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Note: The table shows regression results of estimating equations for the dependent variables on the individual-level treatment for women, the class-level treatment, and the interaction. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all columns. The PDSLASSO method is used for selecting controls. The results for both the long and short run are shown. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.001.

A Appendix A

A.1 Sexual harassment outcomes collected from the SEQ

The following questions were asked:

1. Did anyone comment flirtatiously, make direct or indirect remarks/jokes of sexually suggestive or sexist in nature that made you feel uncomfortable?

2. Did anyone try to make unwanted attempts to establish a dating (repeatedly asking you out despite you showing no interest or saying no), romantic, or sexual relationship with you despite you trying to discourage it?

3. Did anyone try to get too close to you/try to invade your physical space/brush against you/corner you physically in an intimidating and uncomfortable manner?

4. Did anyone try to watch you, follow you from a distance, or stare at you repeatedly, making you uncomfortable?

5. Did anyone try to use or display sexual/inappropriate/suggestive material or post vulgar/pornographic/ offensive pictures on messages/email/WhatsApp or made some sexual remark or rumours about you?

6. Did anyone try to or attempt to create unwelcome physical contact like pinching, touching, groping, or fondling you (Touching you in areas like thighs, arms, private parts, waist, back, breasts, or your hips) without your permission or consent?

7. Was anyone able to or attempt to fondle, kiss, or rub against private areas of your body, tried to remove your clothes, or put/insert something into your private body parts without your consent?

Items in 1) to 5) represent gender harassment components of the SEQ, and items in 2), 3), 4), 6), and 7) are part of unwanted sexual harassment. If a student reports that any of this was done by an administrative authority in college, then I refer to it as sexual coercion. For the purposes of this paper, I group 1) and 2) as mild; 3), 4), and 5) as intermediate; and 6) and 7) as extreme forms of harassment. For each of the questions above, I also asked students about the broad category of the perpetrator (someone in their class, someone in same college but not in same class, stranger, administrative member of college, someone near home, other, or I prefer not to answer this question).

For the recall period, the period length differed according to when the intervention was done for one college. For most colleges, I asked for the preceding two months (colleges B, C, and D) at baseline. For endline outcomes, I asked for the preceding three months.

A.2 Hypothetical sexual harassment scenarios for measuring awareness

Men and women were asked whether they think that the three situations below were sexual harassment. They could answer yes, no, and I do not prefer to answer.

1. Harish asked Yashika out on a date. She said yes and went out on a date with him. He asked her to go out with him again, but she said no without giving him a reason. Harish got upset about it and asked her why she refused. Yashika told him that she did not think it was fun. Harish agreed and did not ask Yashika out again. Do you think Harish sexually harassed Yashika by calling her to inquire again?

2. Naina and Rahul went out for drinks on a date. Rahul asked Naina if she would like to go dance with him. Naina did join him for the dance. He started touching her physically during the dance, but she thought it was because there was not enough space in the dance floor. So she started to dance a bit further from him, but he would still end up coming close to her. Do you think Rahul was sexually harassing Naina?

3. Ramit, Arun, and Ankur were sitting in the class, making some sexual jokes among each other. The jokes were not pointed at anyone though. Rita and Smriti were sitting in the same room having their lunch but could clearly hear what the guys were talking about. Both of them, however, felt embarrassed and uncomfortable with their conversation but did not say anything. Were Ramit, Arun, and Ankur sexually harassing Rita and Smriti?

There were two more questions I asked students to test their awareness about the legal complaints committee and their awareness about sexual harassment during courtship.

1. Suppose a young man likes another young woman. They do not have many common friends. Which of the following behaviors according to you are acceptable ways for him to approach her or get to know her? (Please select as many as you find acceptable)

   (a) Get her WhatsApp number from common groups and write to her at least 2 or 3 times until she replies

   (b) Can stand outside her classes (alone or with friends) to hint that he likes her through indirect comments

   (c) Can send one of his friends to go and talk to her

   (d) Find out her profile on social media (FB, Instagram, Twitter, etc.) and drop her messages there until she replies

(e) Find out where she hangs out (clubs or college societies) to understand her schedule on a usual college day

(f) Find out about her by talking to her friends or classmates so that they can tell her that he is interested.

(g) Directly go and talk to her

2. Which of the following is the internal complaints committee of your college? Options: disciplinary committee, department teacher in charge, the women development cell, internal complaints committee, student union, principal, administrative office, gender sensitization committee, other members of faculty, other.

For the courtship question, I coded the answer as correct if the student did not select options a, b, d, and e. For 2), the correct answer is the internal complaints committee.

A.3   Statements for the list experiment

Students were asked the following: Out of the 3 statements below, can you please tell us how many you agree with? You do not have to state which ones you agree with but rather how many of them do you agree with? Your answer can only be 1, 2, or 3 **(and 4 for the list treatment group)**.

1. Sexual harassment of women by men is a manifestation of the fact that men and women are taught to stay away from each other in our society.

2. Restrictions on the mobility of women by parents is valid in the face of increased sexual violence against them.

3. Both men sexually harassing women and women sexually harassing men or sexual violence, in that order, should be punishable by law.

4. **Women who face sexual harassment are usually calling for it.**

List control students received only the first three statements, and list treatment students received all 4. The difference in the number of statements agreed to by the two groups reflects the victim-blaming attitude at the class level.

A.4   Hypothetical sexual harassment situations for measuring attitudes

Men and women were first shown the following three sexual harassment situations:

1. Situation A: Seema was in a college freshers party when one of her male seniors touched her back discretely. No one else saw (it was dark), but she knew. This will be termed as sexual harassment by Indian law.

2. Situation B: Arun asked Neha out directly for a date first, and she agreed. But she did not find it enjoyable, while he liked it. The second time, however, when he asked her again, she said no. Arun did not know why she said no. So he called her again, but she did not pick up, and he kept calling her multiple times to get an answer. This will be termed as sexual harassment by the Indian law.

3. Situation C: Reema was in the bus frequented by other college students as well. She was sitting with one of her male colleagues. He started looking at personal pictures on his phone that where sexual in nature. He kept the phone at a distance, but Reema was able to see what he was watching. This will be termed as sexual harassment by the Indian law.

The respondents were then asked the following five sets of questions for each of the situations separately:

1. Please tell us for each of the above situations whether they should be termed as sexual harassment legally.

2. Below please tell us for each situation above what percentage of men who are present in your class right now you think will agree that these was sexual harassment.

3. Below please tell us for each situation above what percentage of women who are present in your class right now you think will agree that these was sexual harassment.

4. Below please tell us for each situation above what percentage of women who are present in your class right now you think will report this incident to the college's ICC if it happened with them?

5. Below please tell us for each situation what percentage of women who are present in your class right now you think will report the situations above to other students/teachers/classmates if this happened to them?

A.5 Measuring perceptions of social and legal costs of sexual harassment

For measuring perceived social costs to sexual harassment, I asked students the following questions:

1. What percentage of your classmates you think will be supportive of you in case you hypothetically wanted to make a sexual harassment complaint against someone?

2. What percentage of women who are in your class do you think will report or share with other students/teachers/classmates if they were sexually harassed by someone?

3. Who are the three students you would nominate as someone that students in your class can go to for support or advise for going to the ICC for a sexual harassment incident?

I used the proportion of male students from the class, as reported by women, to determine whether it influenced their perception of male support within the class.

To collect data on the perception of the formal costs of sexual harassment, I asked the following:

1. What percentage of women who are in your class do you think Will report to the college's ICC if they were sexually harassed by someone?

2. How much do you trust your college's ICC to solve a student's sexual harassment complaint if approached? The options are highly trust them, trust them, trust them a little, and do not trust them at all.

I constructed an index for the perceived legal and social costs separately, which I report the results on.

B   Anonymized narrative

"This happened when we were all on the dance-floor, everyone was very close to each other, when I felt a hand on my buttock. At first I brushed it off thinking it must have been a mistake; but then it happened again. This time I was sure I was not imagining it. I looked behind, and I am not sure, till date, who this person exactly was. He was definitely a college senior though, because there was a group of 3-4 seniors dancing right behind us. What scares me till date is the fact that I have no idea who this person was. I am still in touch with most of these seniors, and there is a chance that I am still in touch with my own harasser. It happens on a daily basis, sexual harassment, we have normalized it. But a senior from one's own college doing it is something that disgusts me, and frightens me at the same time. I wish I could have said something that day, screamed, anything; but I was so unsure about what I felt myself, I could not have possibly done anything about it."

C   Comparative statics for theoretical framework

Here, I highlight the proofs for proposition 1. Recall that $c^* = F^{-1}(\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)})$ and $q = \frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)} - \frac{v(D)D}{u-v(D)}$.

1. Comparative statics on D:

   - $\frac{dc^*}{dD} = F^{-1'}[\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)}][(\frac{-(1-p)u}{p})(-\frac{v'(D)}{(v(D))^2})] \geq 0$.

   - $\frac{dq}{dD} = \frac{dc^*}{dD} + \frac{uv(D)+uDv'(D)-(v(D))^2}{(u-v(D))^2)}$.

   - Thus if

   $$F^{-1'}[\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)}][(\frac{-(1-p)u}{p})(-\frac{v'(D)}{(v(D))^2})] + \frac{uv(D)+uDv'(D)-(v(D))^2}{(u-v(D))^2)} \leq 0,$$

   then $\frac{dq}{dD} \leq 0$

   Overall, sexual harassment is given by $p(1 - F(c^*))$.

   Therefore, $\frac{dS}{dc^*} = -pF'(c^*)\frac{dc^*}{dD}$, and since I established $\frac{dc^*}{dD} \geq 0$, $\frac{dS}{dc^*} \leq 0$.

   Relationships are given by $R = q[pF(c^*) + (1 - p)]$.

   $\frac{dR}{dD} = \frac{dq}{dD}[pF(c^*) + (1 - p)] + qpF'(c^*)\frac{dc^*}{dD}$.

   Relationships fall if

   $F^{-1'}[\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)}][(\frac{-(1-p)u}{p})(-\frac{1}{(v'(D))^2})] \leq -[\frac{u(v(D)+uDv'(D)-(v(D))^2}{(u-v(D))^2}][\frac{pF(c^*)+1-p}{pF(c^*)+(1-p)+qpF'(c^*)}]$.

2. Comparative statics on p:

   - $\frac{dc^*}{dp} = F^{-1'}[\frac{-(1-p)u}{pv(D)}](\frac{u}{v(D)p^2}) \leq 0$ because $v(D) < 0$.

   - $\frac{dq}{dp} = \frac{dc^*}{dp}$, and hence $\frac{dq}{dp} < 0$.

   $\frac{dS}{dp} = 1 - F(c^*) - pf(c^*)\frac{dc^*}{dp} > 0$.

   $\frac{dR}{dp} = \frac{dq}{dp}[pF(c^*) + (1 - p)] + q[F(c^*) + pf(c^*)\frac{dc^*}{dp} - 1]$.

   This can be rewritten as $\frac{dR}{dp} = \frac{dq}{dp}[pF(c^*) + (1 - p)] - q\frac{dS}{dp} < 0$. This proves the result.

D   Generalizability

Regarding selection, I collaborated with three colleges, covering all classes, which consisted of 93 classes for the male intervention and 69 classes for the female intervention (discussed in Section 6.2). For the sample used in the paper, students who were present on the day of the survey (which was unannounced) formed the baseline sample. Students were free to leave the trainings or surveys if they wanted, but less than 5% did so. The surveys took place during regular college hours, which helped me gain access to the student population that would normally be in attendance. When scaling to a bigger population, one must consider that students in these colleges might have been positively selected on household characteristics, ambition, and other factors relevant for admissions in an urban area. I discuss this in Section 5.5.

For attrition, I followed up with 80% of the sample at endline (82% of the women and 77% of men), and there was no differential attrition by treatment status. Most of the students who were not reached (and were supposed to be traced during college hours) could not be easily reached after college closures due to the lockdown.

Regarding naturalness of the choice task and setting, it is important to note that sexual harassment trainings are mandated by law in the educational institutions that I collaborated with on the project. Thus, the setting closely resembles the environment of such educational institutes. Additionally, the setting can be generalized to workplaces due to shared characteristics. Both settings involve repeated interactions between potential perpetrators and victims outside the home, making them suitable for studying the subjects under investigation.

The endline consisted of three types of measures: survey measures, a lab-in-the-field experiment, and a list experiment and Google form data. The survey asked students about their exposure to sexual harassment (due to lack of any naturally occurring data on incidences).[36] The lab-in-the-field experiment results were used to understand the patterns in survey measures of inter-personal relationships. List experiments and Google form data were designed in a way that the purpose of the questions or the exercise was not clear to address demand effects. While the list experiment was embedded within the survey, the Google form was floated via the legal complaints committee.

In terms of scaling, certain non-negotiable features include conducting the training for men exclusively and separately, ensuring a consistent timeline for measuring effects, maintaining participants' trust in the safety of their data, and having at least one male trainer present during men's training. Additionally, conducting further replications is important to determine whether providing training to both men and women together yields different effects.

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[36]It was not feasible to have third-party observers since that would change students' behavior even more.

E Attrition and Lee bounds, female information, and difference-in-difference estimates
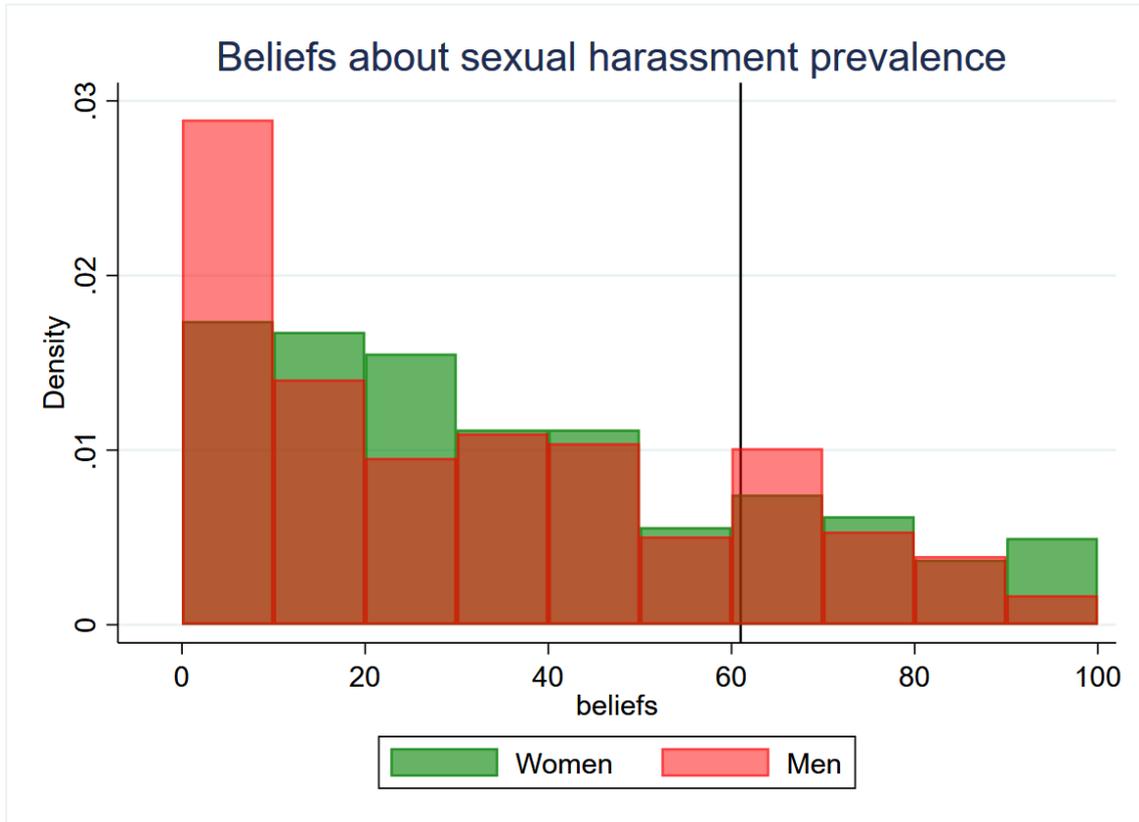
Figure E.1: Distribution of beliefs about the prevalence of sexual harassment in college
The figure shows the distribution of beliefs about the prevalence of women being sexually harassed in their class for men and women in one of the collaborating colleges. The x-axis shows the hypothesized prevalence of sexual harassment in one's own classroom. Red bars provide the distribution for men's beliefs and green bars for women's beliefs. The actual average prevalence is depicted by the vertical black line.

Cut off for political sciences for 2015-2016

Colleges which offer political science courses
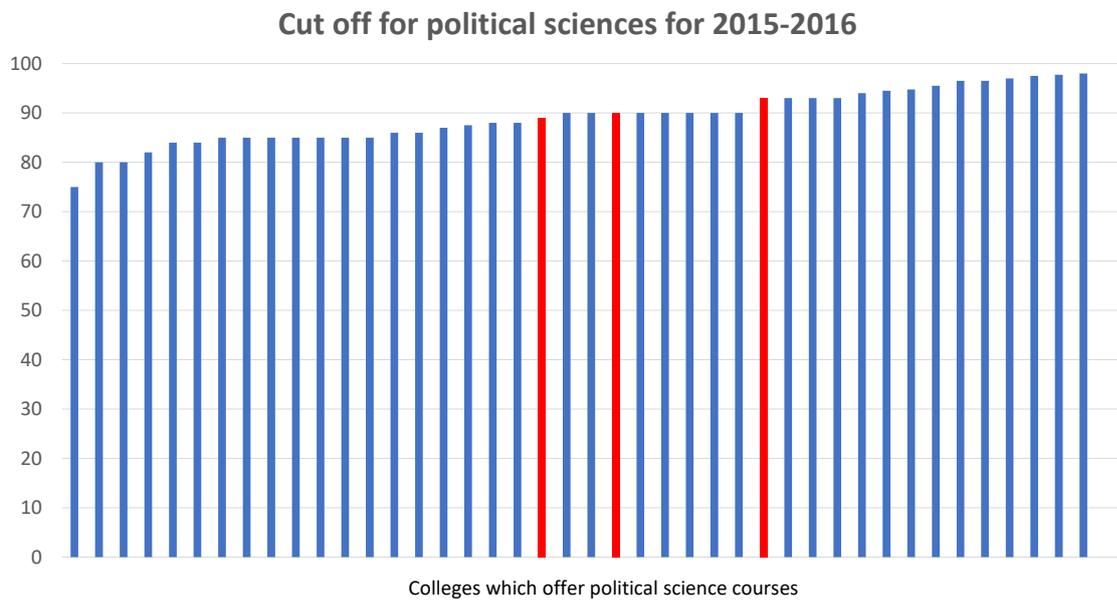
Figure E.2: Perpetrators of sexual harassment as reported by women
The figure shows the college quality distribution for different colleges in the same university as the collaborating college. The colleges studied in this paper are depicted in red. College quality is depicted using score cut-offs for the 2015–2016 academic year for political sciences courses that were available for most colleges.
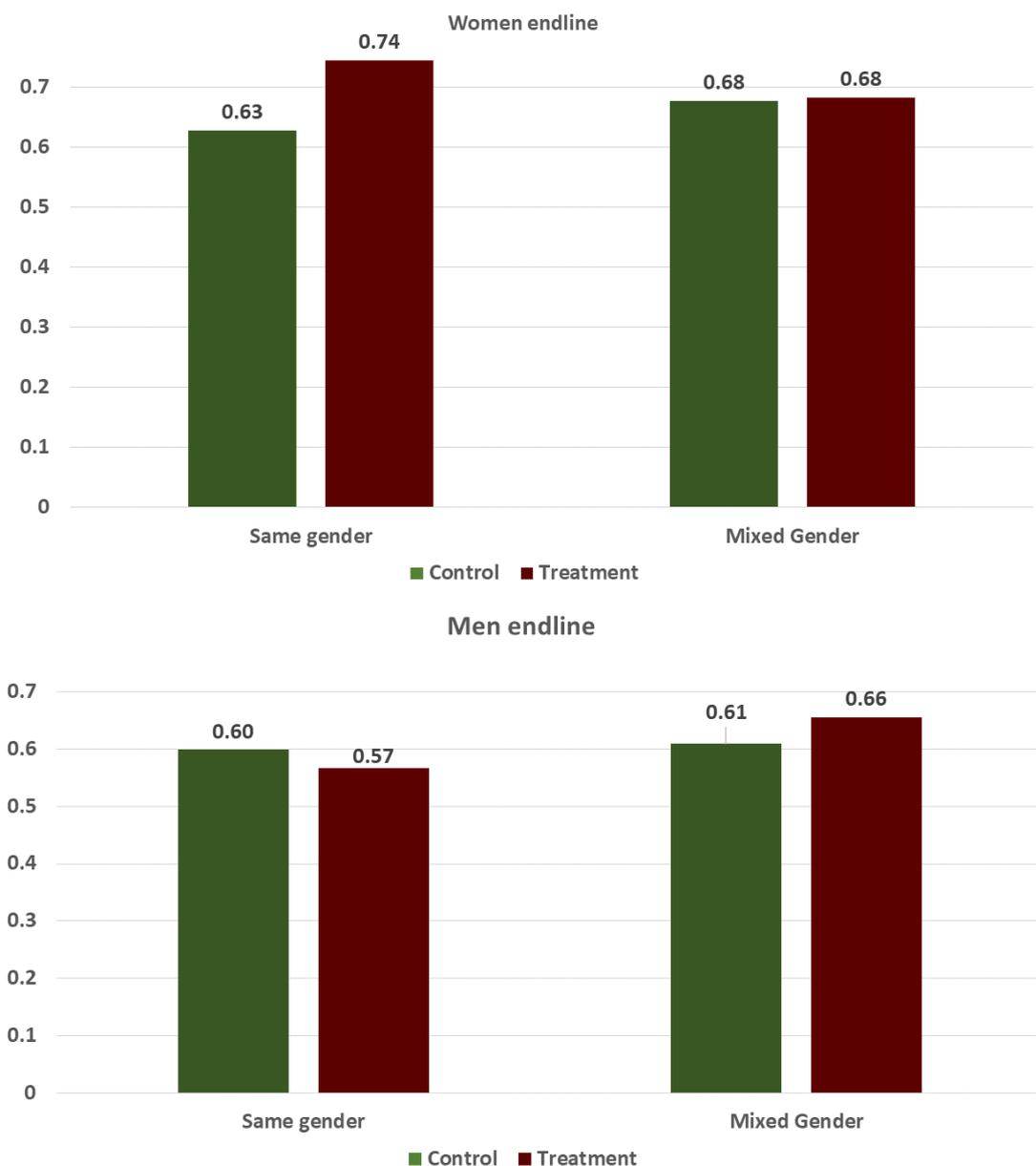
Figure E.3: Take-up of the stay option by gender, treatment, and partner's gender
The y-axis shows the percentage who take up the stay option when paired with a classmate
in the lab-in-the-field experiment. Red bars represent treatment groups, and green bars
represent the control group. Panel A provides the results for women at endline and panel
B for men at endline according to their class treatment status for the male intervention.
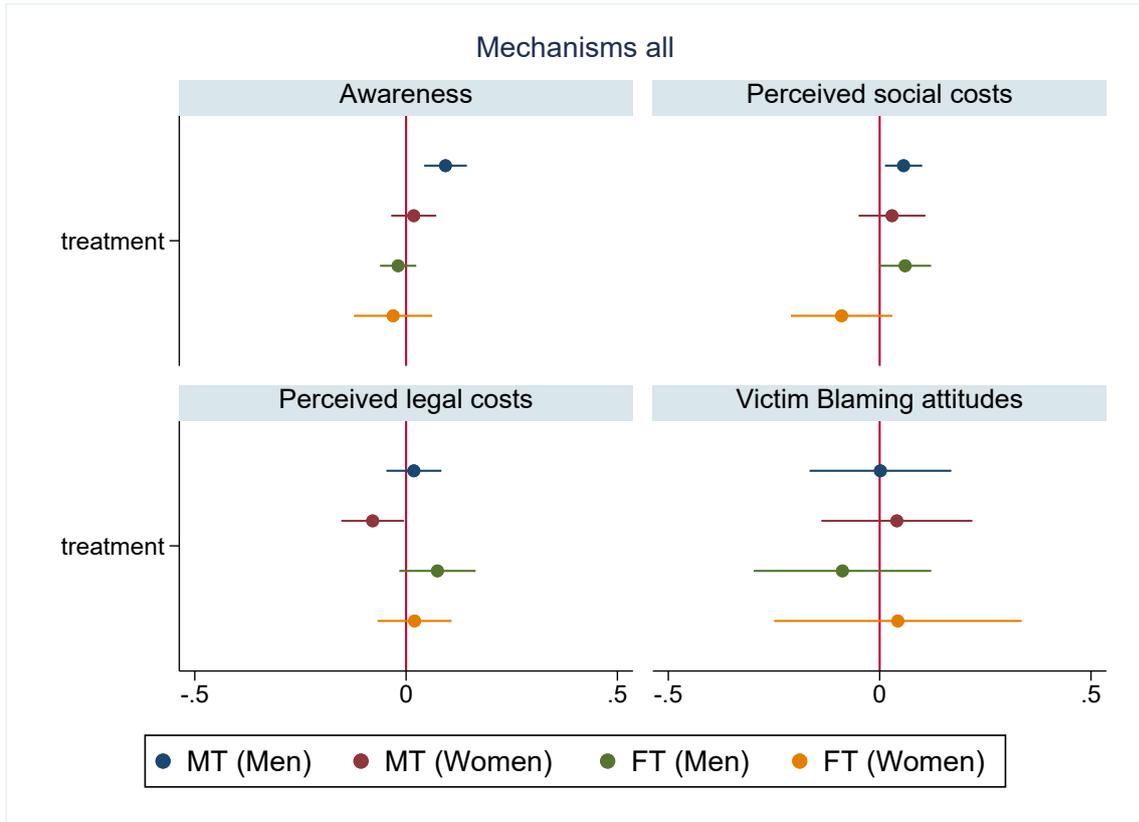
Figure E.4: Coefficient plots for the effect of female and male interventions on mechanism outcomes for men and women. MT stands for male intervention, and FT stands for female intervention. The coefficients are created separately for men and women in the male and female intervention classes.

Table E.1: Number of classes in each strata

	Number of Classes
Strata 1	5
Strata 2	2
Strata 3	2
Strata 4	4
Strata 5	7
Strata 6	3
Strata 7	3
Strata 8	5
Strata 9	2
Strata 10	4
Strata 11	2
Strata 12	3
Strata 13	6
Strata 14	6
Strata 15	5
Strata 16	5
Strata 17	6
Strata 18	5
Strata 19	5
Strata 20	2
Strata 21	4
Strata 22	2
Strata 23	2
Strata 24	2
Strata 25	1

Note: The table shows the number of classes in each strata for the male intervention colleges.

Table E.2: Balance tests for baseline men and women, separately

Control Variable	Men Baseline			Women Baseline		
	β_{Treat}	Control Mean	N	β_{Treat}	Control Mean	N
Father education primary	-0.02	0.32	1,712	-0.03	0.26	1,242
Father education higher	0.04	0.49	1,712	0.05	0.59	1,242
Mother education primary	0.02	0.39	1,702	-0.08	0.34	1,246
Mother education higher	0.02	0.39	1,702	0.09	0.51	1,246
Proportion SC/ST/OBC*	0.01	0.39	1,747	-0.06*	0.26	1,248
Proportion general caste	-0.05	0.49	1,747	0.07*	0.64	1,248
Proportion non-Hindu	-0.01	0.10	1,599	-0.02	0.09	1,197
Living in PG/hostel/flat	0.01	0.29	1,517	0.01	0.17	1,244
Living with family	-0.01	0.70	1,517	0.02	0.74	1,244
Working mother	-0.01	0.11	1,747	0.02	0.17	1,248
Homemaker mother	0.00	0.51	1,747	-0.00	0.52	1,248
From Delhi	0.02	0.54	1,827	0.01	0.70	1,248
In Delhi for < 3 yrs	-0.01	0.59	1,827	0.00	0.73	1,248

Note: The table reports coefficients from separate regressions of baseline characteristic on the treatment status of men both for men and women in the baseline sample. It also reports the control means. Strata and college fixed effects are included. *SC/ST/OBC represent castes in India. Standard errors are clustered at the class level.

Table E.3: Comparison of student sample with AISHE 2015–2016 data

Variable	Men and Women		
	Mean AISHE India	Mean AISHE Delhi	Mean Sample Baseline
Panel A: Student-Level Variables			
% Female students	0.48	0.46	0.40
% SC/ST/OBC*	0.53	0.26	0.37
% General caste	0.47	0.74	0.62
% Muslims & other minorities	0.09	0.10	0.10
% Living in hostel	0.16	0.15	0.12
Panel A: College-Level Variables			
Pupil-Teacher Ratio	21	19	25
% Assist. professors	0.66	0.46	0.94
% Associate professors	0.11	0.23	0.05
% Professor	0.09	0.15	0.005
% Female teaching staff	0.39	0.52	0.47
% Female non-teaching staff	0.39	0.29	0.13

Note: Panel A provides a comparison of student-level characteristics between students in all universities and colleges in Delhi, India, and the baseline sample. Panel B provides the same comparison but for college-level characteristics. *SC/ST/OBC represent castes in India.

Table E.4: Survey attrition at endline and treatment

Control Variable	Covered in Endline	Covered in Endline
Male intervention	-0.008	-0.010
	(0.016)	(0.021)
Female		0.060
		(0.021)
Male intervention × Female		0.006
		(0.032)
N	3,075	3,075

Note: The dependent variable is a dummy of whether the student was covered in endline or not. Column 1 reports coefficients from the regression on endline coverage on the treatment for men, while column 2 reports coefficients from the regression of attrition on treatment, gender, and an interaction of the two. Strata and college fixed effects are included, and standard errors are clustered at the college class level. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.5: Survey attrition at endline, treatment, and baseline controls

Control Variable	Covered in Endline	p-value
Father education primary	0.109	0.101
Father education secondary	-0.021	0.580
Father education higher	-0.011	0.744
Mother education primary	0.052	0.241
Mother education secondary	0.001	0.988
Mother education higher	-0.028	0.404
Proportion SC/ST/OBC*	-0.028	0.404
Proportion general caste	0.014	0.667
Proportion other groups	0.095	0.787
Living in PG/hostel/flat	-0.033	0.425
Living with family	0.033	0.425
Working mother	0.007	0.815
Homemaker mother	-0.002	0.929
From Delhi	-0.129	0.670
p-value for test of joint significance	-	0.89

Note: The table reports coefficients from the interaction term between the male intervention and the baseline control in a regression of endline coverage on treatment, baseline control, and an interaction of the two. Strata and college fixed effects are included, and standard errors are clustered at the college class level. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.6: Balance tests for women for female intervention (class level)

Control Variable	Treatment Mean	Control Mean	N	p-value
Father education primary	0.015	0.10	2,187	0.19
Father education secondary	-0.007	0.29	2,187	0.69
Father education higher	0.001	0.49	2,187	0.98
Mother education primary	0.018	0.21	2,189	0.20
Mother education secondary	-0.040	0.30	2,189	0.01
Mother education higher	0.025	0.33	2,189	0.22
Proportion SC/ST/OBC*	0.012	0.39	2,262	0.03
Working mother	0.009	0.18	1,584	0.65
From Delhi	-0.046	0.54	2254	0.15
Living in PG/hostel/flat	0.030	0.25	2,639	0.06
Aims to study after college	0.022	0.72	1,976	0.20
Aims to work after college	-0.024	0.24	1,974	0.78
Has undertaken job/internship before	-0.004	0.11	2,167	0.42
Will sit for job interviews in the future	-0.021	0.46	1,975	0.95
Sat for job interviews in the past	-0.004	0.06	2,149	0.68
Undertook job through the p-cell of the college	-0.004	0.04	2,088	0.61
Number of classes	31	38		
Number of students	972	1,347		

Note: The table displays regression coefficients obtained from a regression of the variables mentioned above on the treatment status of the student's class. *SC/ST/OBC represent castes in India. Strata fixed effects are included, and standard errors are clustered at the class level. The table includes both men and women in the sample.

Table E.7: Survey attrition at endline and treatment for female intervention

Control Variable	Covered in Endline	Covered in Endline
Female intervention	-0.006	0.020
	(0.025)	(0.026)
Female		0.176
		(0.024)
Female intervention × Female		-0.043
		(0.036)
N	2,262	2,262

Note: The dependent variable is a dummy of whether the student was covered in the endline or not. Female is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a woman and 0 if they are a man. Column 1 reports coefficients from the regression on endline coverage on treatment for women, and column 2 reports coefficients from the regression of attrition on treatment, gender, and the interaction of the two. Strata and college fixed effects are included. Standard errors are clustered at the college class level. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.8: Survey attrition at endline, treatment, and baseline controls for female intervention

Control Variable	Covered in Endline	p-value
Father education primary	-0.032	0.567
Father education secondary	0.038	0.321
Father education higher	-0.047	0.196
Mother education primary	-0.045	0.314
Mother education secondary	-0.059	0.148
Mother education higher	0.015	0.718
Proportion SC/ST/OBC*	-0.082	0.053
From Delhi	-0.073	0.045
Living in PG/hostel/flat	0.045	0.374
Aims to study after college	0.000	0.998
Aims to work after college	-0.025	0.608
Has undertaken job/internship before	-0.035	0.538
Will sit for job interviews in the future	0.011	0.791
Sat for job interviews in the past	-0.061	0.475
Undertook job through the p-cell of the college	-0.012	0.917

Note: The table reports coefficients from the interaction term between the male intervention and the baseline control in a regression of endline coverage on the treatment, the baseline control, and an interaction of the two. Strata and college fixed effects are included, and standard errors are clustered at the college class level. Asterisks denote significance: *$p<0.1$, **$p<0.05$, and ***$p<0.01$.

Table E.9: Women's self-reported exposure to sexual harassment perpetrated by men in their class (baseline women)

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index (1)	Mild Events (2)	Intermediate Events (3)	Extreme Events (4)
Panel A: No Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.059	-0.014	0.011	-0.011
	(0.029)	(0.017)	(0.009)	(0.004)
Panel B: With Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.026	-0.008	0.018	-0.0059
	(0.031)	(0.015)	(0.009)	(0.003)
RI p-values	[0.061]	[0.482]	[0.263]	[0.007]
N	968	905	890	956
Control mean (non-standardized)	-	0.07	0.03	0.01

Note: The table reports results from regressing the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable. For details of each column, refer to the table notes in Table 3 in the main text.

Table E.10: Effects of male training on womens reporting of overall sexual harassment

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index (1)	Mild Events (2)	Intermediate Events (3)	Extreme Events (4)
Panel A: With Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.0243	-0.0114	-0.0092	-0.0135
	(0.0388)	(0.0253)	(0.0247)	(0.0194)
N	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385
Control mean (non-standardized)	-	0.457	0.458	0.152

Note: The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method. This index combines questions on different types of sexual harassment perpetrated by men in the same class, as reported by women in columns 2–4. The questions asked female respondents in column 2 if they faced a mild event like sexual remarks, jokes, and being asked repeatedly out on a date; in column 3 if they faced intermediate events like physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment; and in column 4 if they faced extreme events like sexual assault and physical contact without permission such as groping, pinching, and fondling. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

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Table E.11: Alternative samples for constructing sexual harassment index

Sexual Harassment	SH from Same-Class Index (Only Extreme Events Sample)	SH from Same-Class Index (All-Reported Sample)	SH from Same-Class Index (Simple Addition)
Panel A: No Controls			
Male treatment	-0.0624	-0.0650	-0.0665
	(0.0290)	(0.0304)	(0.0311)
Panel B: With Controls			
Male treatment	-0.0624	-0.0650	-0.0665
	(0.0287)	(0.0300)	(0.0308)
RI p-values	[0.061]	[0.063]	[0.060]
N	1,165	1,105	1,105
Control mean	0.00	0.00	0.00

Note: The table reports results from regressing the dependent variable (sexual harassment reported by women) on the class-level male intervention dummy variable, estimated only on the sample of women. Column 1 reports results for only the women who reported extreme events, and column 2 reports results for those who reported all events and uses weights from this sample. Column 3 reports results for those who reported all events, but weighting is done using that from the entire sample of women used in the main table. The dependent variable in each column is constructed using the Anderson (2008) method, as in the main table, but the samples differ across different columns. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method for only those women who reported extreme events. In column 2, the dependent variable is only those women who reported all events, and in column 3, it takes the simple addition of components of the index. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. Randomization inference p-values are reported in square brackets using 1,000 repetitions. The B-H procedure provides p-values correcting for multiple hypothesis testing. *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.12: Sexual harassment from men from a different class

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index (1)	Mild events (2)	Intermediate events (3)	Extreme events (4)
Panel A: With Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.0177	-0.0019	-0.0110	0.0018
	(0.0371)	(0.0120)	(0.0140)	(0.0045)
N	1,288	1,195	1,165	1,267
Control mean (non-standardized)	-	0.066	0.046	0.006

Note: The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method. This index combines questions on different types of sexual harassment perpetrated by men in the same class, as reported by women in columns 2–4. The questions asked female respondents in column 2 if they faced a mild event like sexual remarks, jokes, and being asked repeatedly out on a date; in column 3 if they faced intermediate events like physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment; and in column 4 if they faced extreme events like sexual assault and physical contact without permission such as groping, pinching, and fondling. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.13: Sexual harassment from men outside the college

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index (1)	Mild Events (2)	Intermediate Events (3)	Extreme Events (4)
Panel A: With Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	0.0486	0.0313	0.0055	0.0221*
	(0.0396)	(0.0256)	(0.0249)	(0.0134)
N	1,288	1,195	1,165	1,267
Control mean	-	0.27	0.29	0.05

Note: The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method. This index combines questions on different types of sexual harassment perpetrated by men in the same class, as reported by women in columns 2–4. The questions asked female respondents in column 2 if they faced a mild event like sexual remarks, jokes, and being asked repeatedly out on a date; in column 3 if they faced intermediate events like physical intimidation, stalking, staring, and online sexual harassment; and in column 4 if they faced extreme events like sexual assault and physical contact without permission such as groping, pinching, and fondling. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.14: Long-run effects of male intervention on self-reported sexual harassment by recall period

Sexual Harassment	Same-Class Index (1)	Mild Events (2)	Intermediate Events (3)	Extreme Events (4)
Panel A: No Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.088*	-0.023	-0.016	-0.012
	(0.052)	(0.021)	(0.014)	(0.009)
Above median recall	0.114*	0.023	0.027	0.012
	(0.059)	(0.021)	(0.020)	(0.011)
Male treatment×	0.021	0.012	-0.014	0.011
Above median recall	(0.092)	(0.036)	(0.021)	(0.015)
N	730	682	696	697
Control mean	0.00	0.052	0.040	0.013

Note: Definitions for all the variables are the same as that shown before sexual harassment. *p<0.1,**p<0.05,***p<0.01.

Table E.15: Difference-in-difference estimates from lab-in-the-field experiment for stay-switch decisions

Decision to Stay	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Male treatment	-0.020	-0.025	0.127	0.123
	(0.049)	(0.048)	(0.052)	(0.051)
Mixed gender	0.026	0.027	0.082	0.076
	(0.037)	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.040)
Mixed gender × Male treatment	0.060	0.057	-0.137	-0.131
	(0.062)	(0.061)	(0.058)	(0.056)
N	1,369	1,369	1,080	1,080
Control mean	0.60	0.60	0.63	0.63
Controls	-	Yes	-	Yes

Note: The dependent variable is a dummy variable equal to 1 if the respondent chose to stay with their partner to play the stereotypical task and 0 if they decided to do it alone. Columns 1 and 2 show results for the men's sample, and columns 3 and 4 show results for the women's sample. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls in columns 2 and 4. Asterisks denote significance: *$p<0.1$, **$p<0.05$, and ***$p<0.01$.

Table E.16: Treatment effect on men's approach behavior toward women

Variable	Approached by Man in Same Class
	(1)
Panel A: All Women	
Male treatment	-0.0224
	(0.036)
N	589
Control mean	0.23

The dependent variable is a dummy equal to 1 if the woman was approached by a man in her own class and 0 otherwise. Strata fixed effects are included, and clustered standard errors are reported. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.17: Mediation analysis for short run

Sexual Harassment	Sexual Harassment from Same-Class Index	Mild Events	Intermediate Events	Extreme Events
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: No Controls, All Women				
Male treatment	-0.0443	-0.0055	0.0130	-0.0099**
	(0.0277)	(0.0179)	(0.0092)	(0.0040)
Dating in same class	0.3754	0.0913	0.0182	0.0497
	(0.2666)	(0.0891)	(0.0528)	(0.0478)

Note: The table reports results from a regression of the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable and on an indicator for whether a female student reports dating a male student from the same class or not. Sexual harassment variables are the same as before. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using the Anderson (2008) method. This index combines questions on different types of sexual harassment perpetrated by men in the same class, as reported by women in columns 2–4. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

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Table E.18: Heterogeneity by year of study for opposite-sex relationships index

	Opposite-Sex Index (1)	Dating (Same Class) (2)	Opposite-Sex Friends (3)	Switches (Same Sex) (4)	Stays (Opp. Sex) (5)
Panel A: All Women					
Male treatment (β_1)	-0.134***	-0.017**	-3.718	-0.126	-0.049
	(0.042)	(0.007)	(2.99)	(0.079)	(0.074)
Older cohort (β_2)	0.190*	0.007	6.510	0.012	0.197*
	(0.105)	(0.007)	(6.704)	(0.086)	(0.115)
Male treatment ×	-0.011	0.008	3.646	-0.026	0.064
Older cohort (β_3)	(0.060)	(0.013)	(4.174)	(0.104)	(0.096)
$\beta_3 + \beta_2 = \beta_1$	0.005	0.059	0.130	0.481	0.063
N	1,381	1,144	1,354	555	525
Control mean	-	0.02	0.15	0.37	0.68

The table shows results from a regression of dependent variable for women on the class-level intervention for men. Older cohort is a dummy equal to 1 if the female respondent belonged to years two and three of the study and 0 otherwise. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index using Anderson (2008) created from a combination of dependent variables in columns 2–5. In column 2 the dependent variable is a dummy variable that asked men and women whether they were dating anyone in their own class or not, and in column 3 it is the proportion of opposite-sex friends from the same class reported by men and women. In columns 4 the dependent variable is whether the student switches from their same-sex partner from their own class or not, and in column 5 it is whether they stay with the opposite-sex partner from their own class or not. Note that there are a fewer number of observations for columns 4 and 5 because the lab in field was a between-subject design. Values are thus imputed using the KLK method for those who were not in a particular group. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. Randomization inference p-values are reported in square brackets. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. P-values adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing are reported as BH-adjusted p-values (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.19: Sexual harassment for single women in the control group

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Mild events	494	0.07	0.25	0	1
Intermediate events	488	0.03	0.17	0	1
Extreme events	488	0.01	0.09	0	1

Note: The table shows the prevalence of sexual harassment among women in the control group who report being single in the endline survey.

Table E.20: Men's beliefs on probability of women reporting to classmates and the ICC

What Would a Woman from Your Class Do in Hypothetical Sexual Harassment Situations?	Situation 1 (1)	Situation 2 (2)	Situation 3 (3)
Panel A: She Will Report Formally			
Male treatment	0.01	0.01	-0.01
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
N	1,310	1,310	1,310
Control mean	0.40	0.28	0.30
Panel B: She Will Report Informally			
Male treatment	0.05**	0.04**	0.03*
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
N	1,310	1,310	1,310
Control mean	0.45	0.36	0.36

Note: The table shows regression results of estimating equations for the dependent variables on the class-level intervention for men. Columns 2, 3, and 4 show results for the entire endline sample of men. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls in panel C. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. Asterisks denote significance: *$p<0.1$, **$p<0.05$, and ***$p<0.01$.

Dependent Variable	Perception of Legal Costs Index (1)	Perceived Probability of Formal Reporting (2)	Trust ICC (3)
Panel A: All Men			
Male treatment	0.018	-0.014	0.042
	(0.033)	(0.020)	(0.028)
	1,887	1,881	1,432
Panel B: All Women			
Male treatment	-0.079**	-0.026	-0.072**
	(0.038)	(0.026)	(0.033)
N	1,379	1,377	1,067
Control mean	0.00	0.38	0.51

Note: The table shows regression results for men in panel A and for women in panel B on the class-level intervention for men. The dependent variable in column 2 is the perceived probability of formal reporting to ICC by women if they were sexually harassed and in column 3 is the answer to the question, "How much do you trust ICC to look into complaints in your college?" (elicited using a Likert scale). Both variables are standardized and then combined into a weighted index for column 1 using the method of Anderson (2008). Strata fixed effects are included, and clustered standard errors are in parentheses. PDSLASSO is used for selecting controls. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.22: Men's and women's second order beliefs about their classmates

	Beliefs about male classmates			Beliefs about female classmates		
	Situation 1 (1)	Situation 2 (2)	Situation 3 (3)	Situation 1 (4)	Situation 2 (5)	Situation 3 (6)
Panel A: Men's Beliefs						
Male treatment	0.07***	0.06***	0.04**	0.07***	0.09***	0.06***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)***	(0.02)	(0.02)
N	1,310	1,310	1,310	1,310	1,310	1,310
Control mean	0.52	0.35	0.38	0.56	0.38	0.43
Panel B: Women's beliefs						
Male treatment	0.022	0.012	0.024	0.028	0.014	0.028
	(0.024)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.026)	(0.025)	(0.024)
N	1,022	1,022	1,022	1022	1,022	1,022
Control mean	0.59	0.33	0.36	0.64	0.43	0.45

Note: The table shows regression results of estimating equations for the dependent variables on the class-level intervention for men. The dependent variable is the percentage of other classmates who the men think will agree with the law that the corresponding situation should be legally punishable in panel A and in panel B is the same for women. In columns 1–3 it shows second order beliefs for other men, and 4–6 shows second order beliefs for other women. Clustered standard errors are in parentheses, and strata fixed effects are included in all specifications. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

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Table E.23: Long-run effects of male intervention on perception of peers attitudes for men

	Perceived Social Support			Perceived defense			Perceived support		Perceived costs		
	Mild	Inter	Ext	Mild	Inter	Ext	Men	Women	via peers	via ICC	to networks
Panel A: All Men											
Male treatment β_1	0.07*	0.04*	0.05**	0.03	0.01	-0.01	2.81*	3.51**	0.03*	0.03*	0.02
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(1.61)	(1.63)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
N	867	956	1048	879	765	468	1356	1352	1104	1079	1476
Control mean	0.66	0.80	0.85	0.87	0.74	0.64	69.8	66.3			

Note: The table reports results from a regression of the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable using the long-run survey. Perceived social support is answer to the question on how likely the respondent thinks their classmates will punish someone who is found to be engaging in sexual harassment, perceived defense is how likely the respondent things that their classmates will actively stop someone from harassing a female classmate, and perceived support from men and women is what fraction of their male or female classmates they think will support a sexual harassment victim. Finally perceived costs beliefs about damage from being reported informally (column 6) versus formally (column 7), and costs to social networks for someone who has a sexual harassment report against them in the college. The PDSLASSO method is used to select controls, and strata and college fixed effects are included in the regressions.Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.24: Long-run effects of male intervention on self reported attitudes

	First order beliefs				Self reported attitudes	
	Mild	Inter	Ext	Empathy	Approach women	support victim
Panel A: All Men						
Male treatment	0.02	0.01	0.02*	0.19**	-0.55	0.03*
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.07)	(0.51)	(0.02)
N	923	979	1048	1096	1476	1147
Control mean	0.90	0.92	0.94	3.47	9.41	0.87

Note: The table reports results from a regression of the dependent variable on the class-level male intervention dummy variable using the long-run survey. First order beliefs asks the respondent whether they would punish someone who sexually harasses a female classmate, self reported attitudes highlight empathy in column 4 and proclivity to sexually harass someone in column 5. The PDSLASSO method is used to select controls, and strata and college fixed effects are included in the regressions.Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

	Awareness Index (1)	Perceived Social Disapproval Index (2)	Perceived Legal Costs index (3)	Victim-Blaming Attitudes (4)	Donation for Sign-Up for NGO (5)
Panel A: All Women					
Male Treatment	0.0217 (0.0377)	-0.0546 (0.0640)	-0.0182 (0.0513)	0.080 (0.118)	0.006 (0.073)
N	808	806	806	794	794
Control Mean	N(0,1)	N(0,1)	N(0,1)	2.36	0.51

Note: The table shows regression results of estimating equations for class-level intervention for men. The dependent variable in 1 is an index created using questions related to awareness of women; in 2 is an index created using questions on the perception of social disapproval from other classmates, and in 3 it is an index created using questions on the perception of legal support for victims. In 4 the dependent variable is the coefficient on the interaction between the treatment and the list, which indicates the differential effect of the male treatment on the number of statements that respondents agree with. In 5, the dependent variable measures the proportion of students who decide to donate to an NGO campaign against rape in the treatment versus the control classes. PDSLASSO is used to select controls. Strata and college fixed effects are included in the regressions. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.26: Spillovers on men in control classes

Dependent Variable	Overall Knowledge (1)	Intrinsic Attitudes Victim-Blaming Attitudes (2)	Perceived costs Perceived Legal Costs (3)	Perceived costs Perceived Social Costs (4)
Panel A: All Men				
Male treatment	0.082 (0.026)	0.007 (0.084)	0.025 (0.033)	0.062 (0.024)
N male friends from outside own class	-0.043 (0.011)	0.026 (0.036)	-0.002 (0.016)	0.002 (0.013)
N male friends from treatment classes outside own class	0.016 (0.016)	0.057 (0.062)	-0.003 (0.023)	-0.012 (0.016)
N	1,904	1,851	1,887	1,904
Control Mean	0.00	2.15	0.00	0.00

Note: The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created using objective questions that test individuals' knowledge about sexual harassment. Column 2 is the differential proportion of students in treatment classes who have victim-blaming attitudes as compared to control classes. Column 3 is an index created from combining questions that ask about the perceived probability of formal reporting to the ICC by women if sexually harassed (standardized) and trust in ICC ("How much do you trust ICC to look into complaints in your college?"). Column 4 is an index created from combining questions that ask about the perceived probability of reporting to friends/classmates/teachers by women if sexually harassed and the probability that a woman will receive peer support if she reports to them. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.

Table E.27: Short and Long run effects of the Female intervention on mechanism outcomes for Women

	Awareness		Perc Social Costs		Perc legal Costs		Intrinsic Attitudes*	
	Short run	Long run	Short run	Long run	Short run	Long run	Short run	Long run
Panel A: All women								
Female treatment β_1	-0.01	-0.07	0.02	-0.07	0.08	-0.02	0.03	0.13
	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.11)	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.07)	(0.29)
High intensity β_2	-0.02	0.13**	-0.06	-0.11	0.10	-0.16	0.03	0.35
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.12)	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.23)	(0.23)
High intensity × Female treatment β_3	0.03	-0.18	-0.05	0.06	-0.18	0.02	-0.18	-0.82**
	(0.07)	(0.12)	(0.10)	(0.18)	(0.12)	(0.17)	(0.31)	(0.41)
N	637	359	637	368	637	368	629	368
$\beta_2 + \beta_3 - \beta_1 = 0$	0.93	0.57	0.28	0.86	0.62	0.62	-	-
Control mean	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Note: The table reports results from a fixed effects regression of the dependent variable on the treatment intensity dummy, individual female treatment and the interaction of the two using short and long-run surveys with the same sample of students. The dependent variable in column 1 is an index created by combining questions used to test awareness of sexual harassment. In column 2 the dependent variable is an index created using questions on the perception of social disapproval from other classmates, and in column 3 it is an index created using questions on the perception of legal support for victims. In column 4 the dependent variable is the coefficient on the interaction between the treatment and list treatment; In column 5, the dependent variable measures donations to an NGO that works against sexual harassment. The PDSLASSO method is used to select controls, and strata fixed effects are included in the regressions. Asterisks denote significance: *p<0.1, **p<0.05, and ***p<0.01.