

**RESPONSES OF ACADEMIC STAFF TO SEXUAL VIOLENCE DISCLOSURE:
FACTORS LEADING TO REVICTIMIZATION**

by

BROOKE AURIEL DOUGLAS

(Under the Direction of Pamela Orpinas)

ABSTRACT

How an academic staff person responds to a student disclosure of sexual abuse can play a significant role in a survivor's healing and recovery process.

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influenced the academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence. In Phase 1, semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven academic educators with expertise in campus sexual violence to collect qualitative feedback on the appropriateness of the vignette and survey questions developed for the second Phase. Phase 2 consisted of a cross-sectional survey of 166 academic professionals (80% white and female). Participants were randomly assigned to 2 (alcohol vs. non-alcohol use) x 2 (resistance strategy: freeze vs. fight back) sexual assault vignette survey. Based on the Integrated Behavioral Model, the survey measures four predictor variables: personal agency (self-efficacy), attitudes (rape myth acceptance), knowledge of available campus policies and resources, and organizational constraints. They were used to assess whether academic staff's identification of the encounter as sexual assault and intentions to respond appropriately to a student disclosure varied depending on the vignette. This study also explored academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence, as well as the

changes they would like to implement at their college or university to improve the response to campus sexual violence. A Chi-square test, ANOVA, and multiple regression analysis were used for the quantitative analyses; thematic analysis was used to analyze qualitative data.

The proportion of participants that identified the encounter as sexual assault did not differ by vignette conditions, and neither did academic staff's intentions. Results for the multiple regression analysis were inconclusive. Academic staff reported high self-efficacy, lower levels of rape myth acceptance, strong intentions to respond appropriately, and knowledge of available campus resources and policies. Academic staff also reported a lack of support within their workplace related to campus sexual violence; qualitative results support this finding and emphasize the need for training and campus resources for student survivors. Findings from this study will be valuable to inform training for academic staff on responding to student disclosures of sexual violence.

INDEX WORDS: Sexual violence, student disclosures, mixed methods, vignettes

**RESPONSES OF ACADEMIC STAFF TO SEXUAL VIOLENCE DISCLOSURE:
FACTORS LEADING TO REVICTIMIZATION**

by

BROOKE AURIEL DOUGLAS

B.A., Spelman College, 2014

MPH, University of Georgia, 2016

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2020

© 2020

Brooke Auriel Douglas

All Rights Reserved

**RESPONSES OF ACADEMIC STAFF TO SEXUAL VIOLENCE DISCLOSURE:
FACTORS LEADING TO REVICTIMIZATION**

by

BROOKE AURIEL DOUGLAS

Major Professor: Pamela Orpinas

Committee: Jessica Muilenburg
Kathryn Roulston
Amanda Ferster

Electronic Version Approved:

Ron Walcott
Interim Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2020

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to survivors and their supporters, and all those who work tirelessly to end campus sexual violence. We believe you. It is not your fault. You are not alone.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to thank several people who have guided and supported me along this journey. My deepest appreciation to Dr. Pamela Orpinas. Your mentorship and guidance are immeasurable. For six years, you have supported and encouraged me. This dissertation would not have been possible without your commitment and dedication to my success in this Ph.D. program. Thank you for always being willing to listen, eager to discuss, question, and challenge me. I am a better writer, teacher, and researcher because of you. Thank you for believing in me and providing me with endless opportunities for professional growth and development. Thank you for your warmth, care, and concern for my wellbeing during this process. For all this, and more, thank you.

I am also grateful to my committee members: Dr. Muilenburg, Dr. Ferster, and Dr. Roulston. Thank you for your constructive and valuable suggestions, for your responsiveness, and attentiveness. Thank you for supporting and believing in my research. I couldn't have selected a better dissertation committee.

Finally, I want to thank my family and friends who supported me as well. Mommy, I am grateful for your steadfast encouragement and for being a source of joy and happiness. I cannot thank you enough for supporting me and praying over me. To my lavender sol sister, Dr. Haille Rae, I couldn't have done this without you. It has been an honor to start and complete this journey with you. We've made our ancestors proud!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF BOXES.....	x
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Present Study	3
Public Health Implication.....	5
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1 Overview of Sexual Violence	6
2.2 Theoretical Background.....	14
2.3 Responses to Sexual Victimization	20
Chapter Summary.....	26
CHAPTER 3 METHODS.....	27
3.1 Phase 1 – Development of Vignettes.....	27
3.2. Phase 2 – Examination of the Theoretical Model	34

Chapter Summary.....	47
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS	48
4.1 Development of Vignette (Phase 1)	48
4.2 Examination of the Theoretical Model (Phase 2)	50
Chapter Summary.....	69
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION	71
Limitations	76
Conclusion	77
REFERENCES	80
APPENDIX A: PHASE 1 INTERVIEW GUIDE	98
APPENDIX B: PHASE 1 INTERVIEW CONSENT.....	99
APPENDIX C: RECRUITMENT MATERIALS.....	100
APPENDIX D: PHASE 2 SURVEY CONSENT FORM.....	101
APPENDIX E: MEASUREMENT MANUAL	102

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Demographic and Academic Information.....	37
Table 3.2 Summary of Measures for each Theoretical Constructs.....	41
Table 4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants (n=166).....	51
Table 4.2. Academic Staff Characteristics (n=166).....	52
Table 4.3 Description of Scales: Response rate, range, mean and standard deviation (SD).....	53
Table 4.4 Organizational Constraints Scale Frequency	55
Table 4.5 Intention (Positive Responses Subscale) Frequency	56
Table 4.6 Intention (Negative Responses Subscale) Frequency.....	57
Table 4.7 Frequency of Response of the Dichotomized Positive Subscale (n=141)	58
Table 4.8 Prevalence of Identification of Encounter as SA by Vignette Condition	58
Table 4.10 Means and Standard Deviation (SD) for Scales by Vignette Conditions	60
Table 4.11 Correlation Matrix	61
Table 4.13 Topics and Themes About Changes in the Workplace.....	63

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model	15
-----------------------------------	----

LIST OF BOXES

Box 3.1 Vignette28

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Sexual violence is pervasive within institutions of higher learning across the United States. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention defines sexual violence as “a sexual act that is committed, or attempted, by a person without freely given consent of the victim or against someone unable to consent or refuse” (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, & Mahendra, 2015, p. 11). Empirical evidence derived from national studies indicates disturbingly high prevalence rates of sexual violence on college and university campuses, particularly among undergraduate women ages 18-25 years (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). One of the most frequently cited national studies in the context of campus sexual assault is the Campus Sexual Assault Study conducted by the National Institute of Justice. According to this study, approximately 1 in 5 women (20%) and 1 in 16 men (6%) experience sexual assault while in college (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007).

Although sexual assault can occur at any stage during a woman’s tenure in college, first-year college women are at an increased risk of sexual victimization (Carey, Durney, Shepardson, & Carey, 2015; Flack et al., 2008; Kimble, Neacsiu, Flack, & Horner, 2008). The Campus Sexual Assault study found that more than half of college sexual assaults occur during the first months of college life (Krebs et al., 2007). This period of vulnerability for first-year college students is referred to as the “red zone” (Kimble et al., 2008). First-year women are at the highest risk for sexual assault during this period primarily because they are unfamiliar with college social life, which often involves parties, the Greek system, and alcohol (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006; Kimble et al., 2008). Furthermore, the heightened risk may also be attributable

to the available range of types of social events in which students engage, the contexts within which those events take place, and the intense pressures on students to conform to campus social norms (Flack et al., 2008). These factors, among a host of other environmental and structural dynamics of college life, make first-year college women particularly vulnerable to sexual predators.

The majority of campus sexual assaults occur when women are incapacitated, primarily by alcohol (Abbey et al., 2002; Krebs et al., 2007; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2009). Although most of these sexual assaults are preceded by voluntary consumption of alcohol (Krebs et al., 2009), sexual predators often strategically incapacitate their victims. Sexual predators often use alcohol as a weapon to intentionally reduce resistance in victims or as an excuse for their behavior. Sexual predators also often seek out victims who are already intoxicated (Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004). Additionally, the majority of perpetrators are known to the victim (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Thus, those who pose the most salient risk to college women are acquaintances, boyfriends, ex-boyfriends, classmates, coworkers, and friends (Fisher et al., 2000).

Regardless of perpetrator type or tactic, sexual violence is a serious crime and a profound public health problem. Sexual violence has a myriad of persisting and devastating psychological, emotional, and physical effects on survivors, such as physical injury, low self-esteem, depression, and anxiety (Carlson, McNutt, & Choi, 2003; Kaukinen, 2014; Kaura & Lohman, 2007; Straight, Harper, & Arias, 2003). Furthermore, other health-related outcomes experienced post-victimization, such as Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and substance abuse, often interfere with college students' academic success by decreasing student's academic performance and increasing attrition (Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti, & McCauley, 2007).

The ways in which others react to a survivor's disclosure of sexual violence play a critical role in a survivor's healing and recovery process (Littleton, 2010; Orchowksi, Untied, & Gidycz, 2013). Because college and university students are often removed from their primary informal support system, they may disclose sexual victimization to a trusted academic staff person. Despite their significant role, academic personnel may be unprepared to respond appropriately, or at all, to students' disclosures of sexual violence. Further, if not properly trained, may re-victimize the survivor. This type of negative experience following an assault—termed “secondary victimization”—can significantly increase psychological distress and exacerbate post-traumatic symptoms (Busch-Armendariz, Sulley, & Hill, 2016; Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001). Therefore, there is an urgent need to identify factors that impact academic staffs' capacity to respond efficaciously to student disclosures of sexual violence.

Present Study

The purpose of this study was to identify predictors of academic staffs' personal agency (i.e., self-efficacy), attitudes (i.e., rape myth acceptance), knowledge of campus policies and resources, and organizational constraints (i.e., unsupportive workplace) related to the intention of responding effectively to students' disclosures of sexual violence. The study's central hypothesis is that academic staff who report high self-efficacy, report low acceptance of attitudes that support rape myths, knowledgeable of available campus resources and policies, and work in a supportive workplace environment will be more likely to intend to respond appropriately to a student's disclosure of sexual violence. Participants were faculty, staff, and teaching assistants at colleges and universities in the United States.

This mixed-methods study had two phases. In Phase 1, semi-structured interviews were conducted among academic staff to collect qualitative feedback on the appropriateness of the vignette and survey questions developed for this study, as well as its modifications for the 2x2 design. The qualitative data from Phase 1 informed the development of a survey based on vignettes used in the second phase of the study. In Phase 2, participants completed an online survey including a randomly assigned 2x2 sexual assault disclosure vignette. The survey measured academic staffs' self-efficacy, attitudes, knowledge of campus resources and policies, and organizational constraints. In addition, respondents who have had the experience of receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence were prompted to share additional details regarding their experience of handling the disclosure. The study was guided by relevant theoretical constructs derived from the Integrated Behavioral Model. The objectives of this study were:

Phase 1: Development of Vignettes

Objective 1. Develop and refine a vignette representing a realistic sexual assault disclosure that can be used to conduct a 2x2 vignette survey based on qualitative feedback from academic staff and refine the survey questions of the study.

Phase 2: Examination of the Theoretical Model

Objective 2. Identify individual and organizational factors that increase academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence using a randomly assigned 2 (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs "freezing" or being unable to respond) x 2 (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use) factorial vignette survey.

Objective 3. Explore academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence and participants needs for organizational change to appropriately respond to campus sexual violence.

Public Health Implication

The findings generated from this research will (1) add to the empirical research on the phenomenon of student to academic staff disclosure and (2) provide a better understanding of the factors related to academic staffs' capacity to respond efficaciously to student disclosures of sexual violence. Ultimately, the goal of this research is to prevent secondary victimization and to alleviate negative related consequences of sexual violence. This research will play an essential role in helping to improve the physical well-being and psychological functioning of student survivors of sexual violence.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers topics relevant to the study of college and university student disclosures of sexual violence and academic staff. This chapter is composed of three sections. The first section provides an overview of sexual violence in the college student population, including the definition of sexual violence, prevalence of sexual violence, barriers to reporting, and the health impact of sexual violence. The second section explains the theoretical basis for this study. The third section discusses responses to sexual violence.

2.1 Overview of Sexual Violence

Definition of sexual violence

There are various definitions of sexual violence used to collect data – from criminal definitions that vary between states, to public health definitions of sexual violence. In 2014, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) released a document titled *Sexual Violence Surveillance: Uniform Definitions and Recommended Data Elements* to improve sexual violence data collection (Breiding et al., 2015). According to CDC, “a consistent definition is needed to monitor the incidence of and trends for sexual violence, the scope of the problem, and to uniformly measure and identify risk and protective factors for victimization and perpetration to inform prevention and intervention efforts” (Breiding et al., 2015). In this document, CDC defines sexual violence as:

A sexual act that is committed or attempted by another person without freely given consent of the victim or against someone who is unable to consent or refuse. It includes:

forced or alcohol/drug facilitated penetration of a victim; forced or alcohol/drug facilitated incidents in which the victim was made to penetrate a perpetrator or someone else; nonphysically pressured unwanted penetration; intentional sexual touching; or non-contact acts of a sexual nature. Sexual violence can also occur when a perpetrator forces or coerces a victim to engage in sexual acts with a third party (Breiding et al., 2015).

CDC's definition of sexual violence encompasses a continuum of sex crime behaviors, ranging from rape to non-contact sexual acts. Rape and sexual assault are often used interchangeably, despite having different definitions. In prevalence studies, rape is commonly referred to as vaginal, oral, or anal penetration obtained by force or incapacitation (Cantor et al., 2015; Carey, Durney, Shepardson, & Carey, 2015; Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, & Peterson, 2016; Smith et al., 2018). The term sexual assault includes penetrative and nonpenetrative sexual acts obtained by force or incapacitation (Cantor et al., 2015; Carey et al., 2015; Edwards et al., 2015; Krebs et al., 2016).

For this study, the term sexual violence, as defined by CDC, will be used as a comprehensive term to describe any nonconsensual sexual contact. Furthermore, I will refer to those who have experienced sexual violence as both *survivor* and *victim*. The person who committed sexual violence will be referred to as the *perpetrator*.

Prevalence of sexual violence on college campuses

Sexual violence on college and university campuses is a significant public health concern in the United States, with college and university women ages 18-25 years being particularly at risk (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In a survey from 2007, one in five women experience attempted or completed sexual assault during college years (Krebs et al., 2007). In 2014, President Barack Obama and Vice President Joe Biden endorsed this longstanding statistic in a

report titled *Not Alone* released by the first White House Task Force established to protect students from sexual assault. Although college women carry the most significant burden of sexual violence, college men are also victimized: More than 6% of men experienced attempted or completed sexual assault while in college (Krebs et al., 2007).

In recent years, the pervasive problem of sexual violence has gained substantial attention often as a result of recent legislative initiatives, high-profile cases, and student activism along with corresponding media attention. However, the crisis of sexual violence on college campuses is not a new phenomenon. In 1987, pioneers of campus sexual assault research, Mary P. Koss and her colleagues Christine Gidycz and Nadine Wisniewski, published the results of their groundbreaking national study of over 6,000 students from 32 colleges and universities in the United States (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). Koss and her colleagues discovered that approximately 1 in 4 (27.5%) college women reported experiencing rape or attempted rape since the age of 14. The existence and prevalence of campus sexual violence have been measured for decades. While estimates vary depending on the methodology employed (i.e., varying definitions of sexual violence, measures, and assessment timeframes), findings from the latest national studies indicate similar disturbingly high prevalence rates of sexual violence on college and university campuses (Cantor et al., 2015; Conley et al., 2017; Fisher et al., 2000; Krebs et al., 2016).

In the Campus Sexual Assault Study (Krebs et al., 2007), data were collected in the winter of 2006 using a web-based survey from over 6,800 undergraduate students (5,466 women and 1,375 men) from two large public United States universities. Researchers found that approximately 1 in 5 (19%) college women and 1 in 16 (6.1%) college men had experienced completed or attempted sexual assault since entering college. In the spring semester of 2015, the

Association of American Universities conducted a campus climate survey administered at 27 institutions of higher learning with over 150,000 respondents – including 56,420 female undergraduate students. Results showed that almost 1 in 4 (23.1%) undergraduate women and 1 in 20 (5%) college men reported experiencing nonconsensual sexual contact since entering college (Cantor et al., 2015). Most recently, the National Institute of Justice’s Campus Climate Validation Survey (Krebs et al., 2016), based on survey data from over 23,000 undergraduate students (8,034 men and 14,989 women) in nine colleges and universities found that approximately 1 in 5 (20.5%) college women had been sexually assaulted since entering college, and among women in their senior year, 1 in 4 (25.1%) had been sexually assaulted during college. Among undergraduate males 1 in 16 (6%) had been sexually assaulted since entering college.

The findings from more recent national studies further illuminate the pervasive public health problem of campus sexual violence and makes it clear that sexual violence disproportionately affects college women. Several studies have provided empirical support for the 1 in 4 or 1 in 5 national statistics of campus sexual violence among college women. Although these statistics are sometimes criticized as being misleading and inflated, these national statistics are relatively conservative and are likely gross underestimates of the accurate number of sexual victimizations involving college students (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Krebs et al., 2009). A significant challenge in providing accurate estimates of sexual violence on college campuses is that only a minority of survivors report their victimization experiences. Although many survivors often remain silent about their victimization, research shows that sexual violence is much more commonly disclosed to informal support sources such as family, friends, and significant others when seeking support (Golding, Siege, Sorenson, Burnam, & Stein, 1989; Ullman, 1996).

Barriers to reporting sexual violence

Sexual violence is a vastly underreported crime in the general population as well as the college population. Studies of campus sexual assault indicate that many, maybe most, assaults and attempted assaults are never reported. Research shows that 90% of sexual assault survivors on college campuses do not report their victimization to formal support providers (i.e., campus security, law enforcement) (Fisher et al., 2000). The National Institute of Justice's Campus Climate Validation Survey (Krebs et al., 2016) demonstrated that only 7% of rapes were reported to school officials and 4% to law enforcement. According to a United States Department of Justice study based on National Crime Victimization Survey data for the period of 1995 to 2013, when comparing female students and nonstudents aged 18 to 24 years, the researchers discovered that students were less likely to report to law enforcement (20%) compared to nonstudents (32%) (Sinozich & Langton, 2014).

There are many and varied reasons why a survivor may choose to report or not report experiences of sexual violence. The leading barriers to reporting among college students are 1) personal dignity, 2) relationship to perpetrator, 3) involvement of alcohol or drugs, 4) fear of not being believed, and 5) distrust of the criminal justice system.

Personal dignity. Reluctance to report a sexual assault can result from concerns related to personal dignity such as feelings of shame, guilt, and embarrassment (Bachman, 1998; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006). Sable et al. (2006) examined college freshman's (120 women and 95 men) perceptions of barriers to reporting rape and sexual assault. They found that feelings of shame, guilt, and embarrassment were the most significant perceived barriers to reporting. Sable et al. (2006) also found that confidentiality and privacy concerns were two other leading perceived barriers for not hypothetically reporting a sexual assault. Confidentiality and privacy

concerns are also barriers commonly cited by victims and survivors. Many victims and survivors fail to report because they are afraid of their family members and friends finding out about their experience with sexual violence and desire to prevent them from learning about it (Krebs et al., 2007). Some survivors may also experience feelings of denial that may result from having difficulty defining the act or experience as sexual violence. This barrier is important. In the Campus Sexual Assault Study, only 40% of forced and 25% of incapacitated victims indicated they considered their assault to be rape (Krebs et al., 2007).

Relationship to perpetrator. Feelings of denial that may result from the victim's or survivor's perception of the experience might be particularly amplified if the perpetrator was someone that the survivor knew and trusted. Between 80% to 90% of college women who are victims of rape and sexual assault knew their perpetrator (Fisher et al., 2000; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Sinozich and Langton (2014) found that that rape and sexual assaults on campuses mainly take place between friends or acquaintances (50%) followed by intimate partners (24%), which could lessen the likelihood of reporting. Often survivors refrain from reporting a friend or dating partner to avoid getting them in trouble (Edwards et al., 2014; Sable et al., 2006). Moreover, many college women survivors also choose not to report because they may fear retaliation by the perpetrator (Sampson, 2002).

Involvement of alcohol or drugs also reduces the likelihood of reporting the assault, given that the survivor may be concerned about getting in trouble for engaging in underage drinking or illegal drug use (Edwards et al., 2014). The Campus Sexual Assault study found that majority of rapes occur when women are incapacitated, primarily by voluntary consumption of alcohol (Krebs et al., 2007; Krebs et al., 2009). The use of alcohol has also resulted in survivors experiencing feelings of self-blame (Schwartz & Leggett, 1999). Self-blame is an example of

how a prominent rape myth belief can impede the reporting of sexual violence preventing the survivor from receiving the support and care needed post victimization. Rape myth beliefs often perpetuate victim-blaming attitudes, excuse the perpetrator from responsibility, minimize or deny sexual assault behaviors, and encourage the notion that only specific type of women are raped or sexually assaulted (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017). Rape myth acceptance is a significant problem underlying the lack of reporting of campus sexual victimization.

Fear of not being believed. In addition to the fear of getting in trouble because of underage drinking or illegal drug use, survivors may also be reluctant to report to authorities or formal support sources in fear of not being believed (Sable et al., 2006). This fear is a barrier for reporting for both men and women. The belief that false reports of sexual violence are common, and that women frequently lie about sexual violence to blame innocent men for a crime they did not commit, is a harmful myth. False accusations of sexual assault are extremely rare. A review of false sexual assault allegations indicated that the rate of false reporting ranged between 2% and 10% (Lisak, Gardinier, Nicksa, & Cote, 2010).

Some sexual assault survivors do not report their sexual assault out of fear the police cannot or will not do anything about it (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Students survivors have also reported an overall distrust of formal support sources (Sable et al., 2006). Students of color, for example, have described a reluctance to report sexual violence due to a strained relationship between law enforcement and their communities (Giorgis, 2015). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) students may also underreport, or not seek help after experiences of sexual violence, due to stigmatization and marginalization of their sexual identity (Graham, Jensen, Givens, Bowen, & Rizo, 2016; Snyder, Scherer, & Fisher, 2018). Students who are undocumented may have specific fears related to their citizenship status in this country

(Childress, 2015). Students of color and the LGBTQ community face unique barriers to reporting sexual violence to formal support sources, as well other survivors from marginalized communities.

Health impact of sexual violence on survivors

Survivors of sexual violence are vulnerable to both immediate and long-term adverse health consequences. Immediate physical health consequences are injuries, sexually transmitted infections, and unwanted pregnancy (Holmes, Resnick, Kilpatrick, & Best, 1996; Jewkes, Sen, & Garcia-Moreno, 2002; Sommers, 2007). Each year, more than 32,000 pregnancies occur as a result of rape, with the highest rates of rape-related pregnancies reported by women in abusive relationships (Holmes et al., 1996; McFarlane et al., 2005). In addition to immediate physical health consequences, exposure to sexual violence is also associated with long-term physical health consequences such as asthma, gastrointestinal disorders, chronic pain, and migraines and frequent headaches (Jewkes et al., 2002; Santaularia et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2018).

Sexual violence has a myriad of profound, persisting, and devastating psychological direct effects on survivors. Survivors of sexual violence report a range of immediate psychological consequences including distressing emotional reactions such as shock, fear, guilt, shame, anxiety, confusion, and withdrawal (Campbell, Dworkin, & Cabral, 2009; Yuan, Koss, & Stone, 2006). Research also demonstrates a number of deleterious chronic mental health consequences such as low self-esteem, depression, suicidal ideation and behaviors, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Basile & Smith, 2011; Carlson et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2010; Kaukinen, 2014; Kaura & Lohman, 2007; Straight et al., 2003; Zinzow et al., 2011). Survivors with PTSD experience a range of symptoms such as emotional detachment, sleep disturbances, flashbacks, and mental replay of assault (Yuan et al., 2006).

Sexual victimization is also associated with increased engagement in health risk behaviors such as problematic drinking, drug use, and risky sexual behavior (Gidycz, Orchowski, King, & Rich, 2008; Turchik & Hassija, 2014). Researchers argue that substance use, in particular, is used as a response to sexual victimization to reduce distress (Khantzian, 2003), but substance use can often lead to additional negative consequences for student survivors. For example, PTSD and substance abuse often interfere with college students' academic success by decreasing student's academic performance and increasing college attrition (Kilpatrick et al., 2007). Sexual violence, in general, can significantly worsen academic performance. Researchers exploring the association of rape and sexual assault with academic performance among 750 college women found that women sexually assaulted during their first semester of college had lower GPAs by the end of the semester than did women without a sexual assault experience during the first semester (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014).

2.2 Theoretical Background

This research study was guided by relevant theoretical constructs derived from the Integrated Behavioral Model (IBM) illustrated in Figure 2.1. The IBM was conceptualized and developed to integrate constructs from the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1988; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), as well as from Bandura (1977) Social Cognitive Theory. Consistent with the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior, the IBM posits that the most significant determinant of human behavior is the intention to perform the behavior (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). Thus, this study examined academics staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosure of sexual violence using the IBM. This study focuses on individuals' intentions, instead of actual behavior.

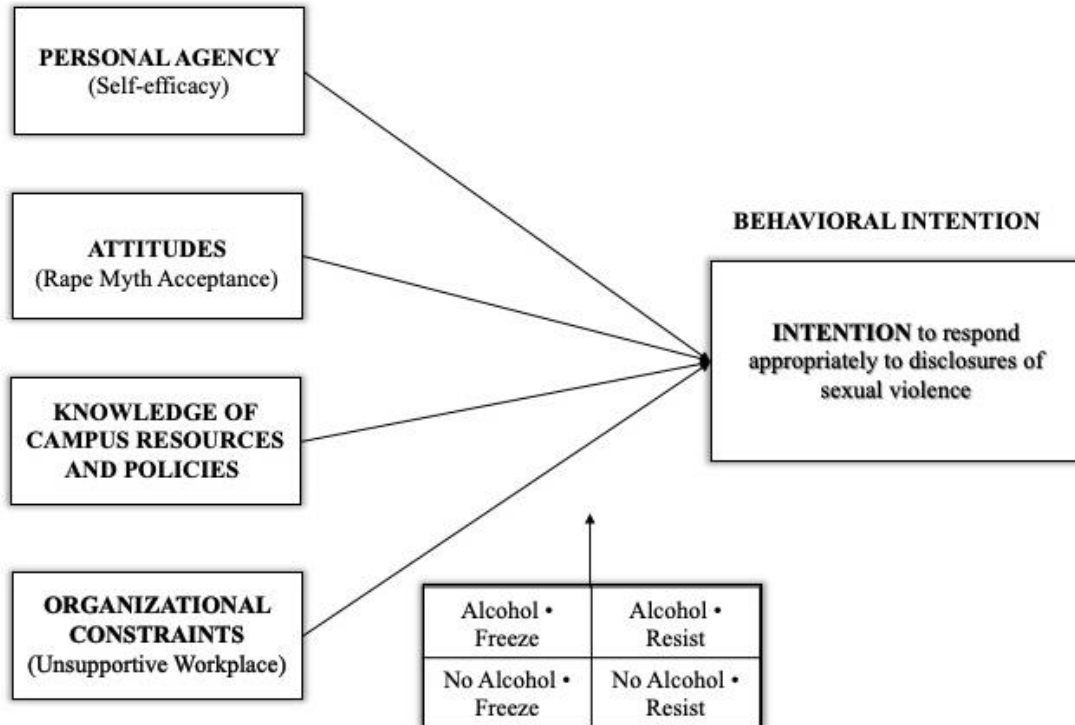


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Model

Within the IBM, **intention** refers to the perceived likelihood an individual will perform a specific behavior (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). According to Montaño and Kasprzyk (2015), three significant factors influence intention: personal agency (i.e., bringing one’s influence to bear on one’s own functioning and environmental events), attitude toward the behavior (i.e., person’s overall affective evaluation of the behavior and the belief that performing the behavior will lead to positive or negative outcomes), and finally perceived norm (i.e., the social pressure one feels to perform or not perform a particular behavior). In this study, however, behavioral intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence are determined solely by self-efficacy, a construct of personal agency, experiential attitude, knowledge, and environmental constraints.

Personal agency consists of two constructs, perceived control and self-efficacy. In the IBM, perceived control is referred to as a person's perceived amount of control over behavioral performance. In contrast, self-efficacy is referred to as a person's degree of confidence in their ability to perform the behavior in the face of various barriers (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). Self-efficacy is a widely known construct from Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977). Social Cognitive Theory suggests that no other factor has a greater influence on individual behavior than the individual's confidence in his or her ability to perform a behavior correctly and effectively (Bandura, 1989). The stronger an individual's beliefs that he or she can perform the behavior despite various specific barriers, the greater an individual's self-efficacy about performing the behavior. Furthermore, according to a 2002 Institute of Medicine report, *Speaking of Health*, self-efficacy is also as a major factor influencing behavioral intention (Institute of Medicine, 2002). In this study, self-efficacy will measure participant's confidence in their intention to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence.

Specific **attitudes** influence the evaluation of the behavior, namely, acceptance that rape is a myth. Thus, for this study, attitude will refer to a construct that will measure an individual's rape myth acceptance level. Burt (1980) defined rape myths as "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists." Rape myths are best conceptualized as attitudes and generally false beliefs about rape that are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Common rape myths are the belief that women lie about rape, women enjoy rape, and women ask to be raped (Edwards, Turchik, Dardis, Reynolds, & Gidycz, 2011). Burt (1980) provided the following examples of rape myths, "Only bad girls or women are raped," "any person can resist rape if he or she wanted to," and "individuals who are raped asked for it."

In a meta-analysis of 37 studies that used either the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Burt, 1980) or the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995), Suarez and Gadalla (2010) concluded that men believe in rape myths more than women. The acceptance of rape myths can be influenced by situational factors such as the victim's behavior before, during, and after victimization, particularly drinking alcohol and victim's resistance strategy. Thus, rape myths may influence the recipient's intention to respond appropriately to the survivor.

In addition, to academic staffs' self-efficacy and attitudes, this study examined academic staffs' **knowledge of campus resources and policies** as a predictor of academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence. The decision to perform a behavior is largely influenced by individual's level of knowledge. The IBM posits that knowledge directly affects whether or not behavior can be carried out (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). To successfully perform a behavior, a person must know what to do and how to do it. Sufficient knowledge on how to best perform a behavior is necessary even if a person has a strong behavioral intention (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). The developers of the theory of reasoned action and planned behavior postulates that accurate knowledge is the foundation of appropriate decisions or actions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2010).

This study also explores the influence of **organizational constraints** such as an unsupportive workplace as a predictor of academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence. The IBM recognizes organizational constraints as another factor that directly affects whether or not behavior can be carried out (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015). The presence of organizational constraints can prevent individuals from carrying out their intentions of performing a specific behavior, making it difficult or even impossible for the behavior to occur (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2015; Triandis, 1980). Despite the best intentions, an

individual's physical or social environment can create serious challenges that inhibit behaviors or limit the ability to do what is intended.

Alcohol use and resistance strategy are two additional external variables incorporated into the research. This study used a 2x2 vignette depicting a hypothetical sexual assault disclosure with alcohol use and resistance strategy manipulations. The study examined whether these manipulated aspects of the vignette influenced the identification of the disclosure as sexual assault and the respondents' intention to respond appropriately.

Alcohol intoxication and sexual violence frequently co-occur (Abbey et al., 2002). Although this mix does not prove that alcohol use outright causes sexual violence, society often attributes sexual violence to alcohol abuse. This misconception inadvertently blames survivors for their victimization and deflects blame from the perpetrators. Numerous research studies have concluded that alcohol significantly influences whether a victim is perceived as blameworthy or blameless in an assault (Abbey, Buck, Zawacki, & Saenz, 2003; Maurer & Robinson, 2008; Osman & Davis, 1999) For example, in a survey of 213 college students examining their reaction to different rape vignettes, female victims were significantly more likely to be blamed for the incident when the victim was described as drinking alcohol compared with when the victim was not consuming alcohol (Sims, Noel, & Maisto, 2007).

Resistance is a situational factor that also has the potential to affect levels of acceptance of rape myths. Rape myth beliefs perpetuate the false notion that "real rape" consists of violent, physical, forced acts of sex often perpetrated by strangers and met with much resistance from victims. Resistance strategies refer to verbal and physical actions that individuals may engage in when confronted by a potential perpetrator (Ullman, 2007). Strategies include forceful physical resistance (i.e., kicking or hitting), nonforceful physical resistance (i.e., blocking the attacker's

blows or fleeing), forceful verbal resistance (i.e., yelling), and nonforceful verbal resistance (i.e., pleading or reasoning). Research shows that using more resistance strategies and resisting immediately are related to avoiding completed rape (Ullman, 1997). Survivors who are perceived as forcefully resisting an assault are typically viewed as less responsible and are blamed less than victims who do not resist (van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2014). Thus, the expectation for women to resist sexual violence holds women responsible for controlling male sexual aggression.

This unrealistic expectation also contributes to blaming the victim by implying that women should resist sexual victimization or that they are at fault if they are unable to do so effectively. A review of empirical studies of rape avoidance conducted by Ullman (2007) indicated that only 1 in 4 women used forceful physical resistance. Consistent with these results, Koss, Dinero, Seibel, and Cox (1988) concluded that women were more likely to reason, plead, turn cold or froze, physically struggle, or cry. Victims often do not resist assault because they are taken by surprise, scared, confused, fear injury, or are too incapacitated (Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016). Due to the neurobiology of trauma, victims may also suffer from a rape-induced paralysis called tonic immobility – a natural reaction to fear and trauma (Campbell, 2012). When tonic immobility occurs, a victim may freeze during an assault, unable to move or resist at all (Marx, Forsyth, Gallup, Fusé, & Lexington, 2008).

The next section of this chapter reviews the literature on sexual violence disclosure. This section will address how people respond to disclosures of sexual violence and how these responses affect survivors. This section will also present empirical research on the phenomenon of student-to-academic staff disclosure of sexual violence and end with discussing the unique role of faculty and staff as “responsible employees” or mandatory reporters, under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.

2.3 Responses to Sexual Victimization

Secondary victimization

Rape myth beliefs and victim blaming can re-victimize the survivor. This type of negative experience following victimization is termed “secondary victimization” (Campbell & Sheela, 1999). Secondary victimization refers to victim-blaming attitudes, behaviors, and practices engaged in by community service providers that results in additional trauma for sexual assault survivors (Campbell & Sheela, 1999). Researchers have documented the profound adverse effects that secondary victimization has on survivors (Campbell, 2008; Campbell et al., 2001). Secondary victimization can significantly increase psychological distress and exacerbate post-traumatic symptoms (Campbell & Sheela, 1999). Secondary victimization is often perpetrated by legal, medical, or mental health professionals, as well as friends, partners, academic professionals, or family members who blame the victim or are unsupportive.

Disclosure of sexual violence plays a vital role in post-victimization adjustment for survivors (Relyea & Ullman, 2013). How others react to a survivor’s disclosure of sexual violence plays an even more critical role in a survivor’s healing and recovery process (Littleton, 2010; Orchowski et al., 2013). Social reactions to disclosures refers to the ways in which disclosure recipients respond both verbally and nonverbally to a survivors’ disclosure (Ullman, 1999). Disclosure recipients are the individuals receiving the disclosure. These reactions generally fit into two categories: positive (i.e., reactions thought to be beneficial such as those that provide support to survivors) and negative (i.e., reactions thought to be harmful such as blame) (Relyea & Ullman, 2013). Common positive social reactions to assault disclosure include providing emotional support (i.e., listening), tangible aid, and informational support (i.e., seeking and reaching resources) (Ullman, 2000, 2010). Negative social reactions to assault disclosure

include blaming the victim, treating the victim differently, distracting or discouraging the victim from talking about the assault, attempting to control the victim or victim's actions, or focusing on one's feelings rather than the victim's feelings.

College survivors who receive negative reactions when disclosing have more psychological symptoms of posttraumatic stress and depression (Borja, Callahan, & Long, 2006; DeCou, Cole, Lynch, Wong, & Matthews, 2017; Hassija & Gray, 2012; Littleton, 2010; Nikulina, Bautista, & Brown, 2016; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015; Orchowski et al., 2013). For example, Orchowski et al. (2013) examined 374 college women's responses to a survey that examined associations between various positive and negative social reactions to sexual assault disclosure and adjustment. Social reactions to assault disclosure that attempted to control the survivor's decisions were associated with increased symptoms of posttraumatic stress, depression, and anxiety, and lower perceptions of reassurance of worth from others. Blaming social reactions were associated with less self-esteem and engagement problem-focused coping strategies such as making changes so that a problem had the best chance of being resolved, brainstorming solutions before deciding what to do, setting goals for actively dealing with the situation, and weighing potential options.

Based on a cross-sectional study with a sample of 517 college women, Borja et al. (2006) concluded that the average number of negative responses a survivor received from the individuals to whom she disclosed was associated with higher symptoms of PTSD. Similar results were found in a longitudinal study (Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015) where researchers collected data from 374 students on sexual victimization and responses to disclosure at baseline and at 4-month follow-up, and symptomatology at 7-month follow-up. Negative reactions to disclosure at 4 months were associated with higher fear and hostility at the 7-month follow-up.

Positive reactions either did not affect the survivor's symptoms significantly or relate to slightly fewer symptoms (Borja et al., 2006; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015; Orchowski et al., 2013). For example, in a study of 517 college women, Borja et al. (2006) reported that positive reactions from family and friends, as well as positive reactions from formal support providers, were associated with benefits in the aftermath of trauma. Similarly, Orchowski et al. (2013) concluded that positive social reactions that provided emotional support to the survivor were associated more adaptive post-assault adjustment such as increased coping by way of seeking emotional support.

Faculty and staff experiences with student disclosures of sexual violence

The scientific literature on student to academic staff disclosure of sexual assault is limited. However, a growing body of research suggests that professors and teaching instructors frequently receive student disclosures of sexual violence (Branch, Hayes-Smith, & Richards, 2011; Hayes-Smith, Richards, & Branch, 2010; Richards, Branch, & Hayes, 2013). In a study conducted by Richards et al. (2013), 42% of their sample of 261 faculty members from two institutions received at least one student disclosure of crime victimization. Among them, 27% received multiple disclosures. The top five most frequently disclosed crimes included rape and sexual assault (42%), assault (18%), theft (15%), domestic violence (6%), and sexual harassment and stalking (both 3%).

In a qualitative research study, Branch et al. (2011) interviewed 30 faculty members who had received at least one student disclosure of intimate partner violence or sexual violence. Of these 30 participants, 27 of whom were women, 93% reported receiving multiple student disclosures throughout their career. Branch also found that some students were seeking help from their professor's post-assault not just once, but multiple times.

These research studies also showed that after receiving student disclosures, faculty and instructors often feel unprepared, helpless, and emotionally burdened (Branch et al., 2011; Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Richards et al., 2013). For instance, Branch indicated that professors who lacked formal training, or had little experience with student disclosures, reported feeling ill-prepared. Some professors interviewed in this study explained that if they had been forewarned that these types of disclosures would happen, they may have handled the disclosure better. Many of their participants admitted confusion on whether their university had policies and resources for sexual assault and intimate partner violence survivors.

Other researchers have echoed these findings. Hayes-Smith et al. (2010) interviewed 26 female professors and lecturers who had received a student disclosure of sexual assault or intimate partner violence. Nearly half were unsure of their responsibility after students disclosed or the intention behind the disclosure. Furthermore, over a third of participants felt emotionally upset and burdened by student disclosures.

These research studies highlight the need to explore further academic staffs' experience with student disclosure of sexual violence to identify and understand factors that impact their capacity to respond efficaciously to student disclosures. Because college and university students are often removed from their primary informal support system, they may disclose sexual victimization to a trusted academic professional. Despite their significant role, academic staff may be unprepared to respond appropriately to students' disclosures of sexual violence and, if not properly trained, may re-victimize the survivor.

Title IX

Most college and universities consider faculty and staff as first responders to students who have experienced sexual violence. Many of these institutions have named faculty and staff

responsible employees and mandated reporters. Title IX grants colleges and universities the liberty to define who constitutes as a responsible employee and who is required to report all known incidents of sexual violence.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) 20 U.S.C. Sec.1681, et seq., is a federal civil rights law that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in federally-funded education programs and activities (Branch et al., 2011). Regarding campus sexual violence, Title IX addresses all forms of sexual violence or any gender-based discrimination that may deny a person equal access to educational benefits and opportunities (End Rape On Campus, n.d.). All educational institutions receiving any federal financial assistance must comply with Title IX, including public and private institutions of higher education (Ali, 2011). For example, Title IX requires colleges and universities to report incidents of sexual violence and to track patterns of sexual misconduct and other behaviors that might create a hostile environment for women (American Association of University Professors, 2012). The “Dear Colleague Letter,” which provides additional guidance for interpreting Title IX, states that institutions are required to “take immediate action to eliminate the harassment, prevent its recurrence, and address its effects” (Ali, 2011; American Association of University Professors, 2012). This letter also states that “responsible employees” must report sexual assault to school officials. According to Title IX, a “responsible employee” is any employee who has the authority to take action to address sexual violence, who has been given the duty of reporting incidents of sexual violence or any other misconduct by students to the Title IX coordinator or other appropriate school designee, or who a student could reasonably believe has this authority or duty (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

Colleges and universities often designate faculty as responsible employees and as mandated reporters, although Title IX does not require that faculty serve as mandated reporters (American Association of University Professors, 2016). Because faculty and staff are considered first responders to students who have experienced sexual violence, some institutions adopt mandatory reporting policies as a way to fulfill their reporting obligation (Hatch, 2017). However, there has been a continuous debate over whether mandatory reporting procedures reduce campus violence or silence student survivors and burden faculty members.

Several aspects of mandatory reporting policies are controversial. To some, designating faculty and staff as mandated reporters is a necessary step to help address campus sexual violence. Advocates of mandated reporting argue that this policy will combat underreporting. Advocates also believe that adopting this policy demonstrates that a college or university is taking sexual violence seriously (Association of Title IX Administrators, 2015).

Critics, instead, argue that reporting the details of student's disclosure is a breach of confidence and disrupts the teacher-student relationship (Hatch, 2017). Some argue that if students fear that their professors or instructors will report their victimization, students will not disclose their experience to anyone resulting in a chilling effect on campus (Mancini, Pickett, Call, & Roche, 2016). Another central critique of faculty mandated reporting is that this policy takes away personal agency from a survivor in a vulnerable time in which autonomy has already been compromised (Flaherty, 2015). Furthermore, asking a student to disclose victimization to campus officials or law enforcement when they are unwilling or not ready is retraumatizing and can lead to secondary victimization (Campbell & Sheela, 1999; Deamicis, 2013).

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss topics relevant to college and university students' disclosures of sexual violence to academic staff. I began by providing an overview of sexual violence in the college student population, including the definition of sexual violence, prevalence of sexual violence, barriers to reporting, and the health impact of sexual violence. In the next section, I explained the theoretical background for this study. This study was guided by four theoretical constructs derived from the Integrated Behavioral Model: personal agency, attitudes, knowledge, and organizational constraints. I also justified the examination of alcohol use and resistance strategy. Finally, I presented an overview of responses to sexual violence, including the definition of secondary victimization, the impact of social reactions to disclosures of sexual violence, faculty and staff experiences with student disclosures of sexual violence, and faculty's mandatory reporting obligations under Title IX. The next chapter details the methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The long-term goal of this research is to prevent secondary victimization among student survivors of sexual violence and to alleviate negative related consequences. The findings from this study could be used to inform campus training and programming for academic staff focusing on how to prevent secondary victimization. The purpose of this study was to examine patterns and predictors of academic staffs' personal agency (i.e., self-efficacy), attitudes (i.e., rape myth acceptance), knowledge of campus resources and policies, and organizational constraints (i.e., unsupportive workplace) related to the intention of responding effectively to students' disclosures of sexual violence using a randomly assigned 2 (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs "freezing" or being unable to respond) x 2 (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use) vignette survey. This study used a mixed-method design and was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 (qualitative) consisted of semi-structured interviews conducted to collect qualitative feedback on the appropriateness and realism of the vignettes and survey questions developed for this study. The data collected in Phase 1 informed the development of a survey based on vignettes used in the second phase of the study. Phase 2 (quantitative for Objective 2 and open-ended questions for Objective 3) consisted of surveys of academic staff.

This chapter details the methodology of this study and it is divided into two sections. The first section describes Phase 1 of the study, and the second section describes Phase 2.

3.1 Phase 1 – Development of Vignettes

Phase 1 had two objectives. The first objective was to develop and refine a vignette representing a realistic sexual assault disclosure that can be used to conduct a 2x2 vignette survey based on qualitative feedback from academic staff. The second objective was to refine the survey questions.

Vignette Description and Development

The vignette for this study (Box 3.1) was adapted from a template created to examine the influence of alcohol consumption on rape myth acceptance (Baldwin-White & Elias-Lambert, 2016). In this present study, the vignette includes additional characteristics of campus sexual violence such as specific mechanisms of alcohol consumption, perpetrator alcohol use, perpetrator type, and location of assault. The content of the vignette was also slightly modified to create a 2 (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs “freezing” or being unable to respond) x 2 (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use) vignette resulting in four vignettes. The

Box 3.1 Vignette

Nicole, a student you are familiar with, sends you an email to schedule a time to meet with you to share something that has been bothering her. Nicole discloses the following:

Last weekend, Nicole attended an off-campus party with her friend Brandon who she recently started dating. Nicole spent the entire night [(1) **dancing with Brandon at the party;** (2) **playing drinking games with Brandon and friends at the party**]. Toward the end the night, Nicole became tired and was ready to leave the party. Brandon asked Nicole if she would stay over with him at his apartment. Nicole agreed. Once they arrived at Brandon’s apartment, they began to kiss. Brandon is assertive, and he starts to remove Nicole’s clothing. Nicole tries to explain to Brandon that she doesn’t want to have sex at this stage of their relationship and that she is tired and ready to go sleep, but Brandon persists. Nicole expresses concern, but Brandon tells her it’s not a big deal and that it will be okay. [(1) **Nicole insists and tells him she doesn’t want to have sex tonight and tries to push him away.** (2) **Nicole stops responding**]. As Brandon initiates sex, Nicole begins to cry but embraces Brandon. In the weeks after, Brandon sent Nicole several text messages asking to meet. She deleted them without responding. Nicole is having difficulty processing what happened that night.

Note: Each respondent views one of four possible vignettes. The numbers (1) and (2) represent the options.

final four vignettes contain identical wording, except for changes directly related to the manipulated variables. The scenario described in the vignette depicts an intimate encounter

between a college-aged female student (Nicole) and a college-aged male student (Brandon). Box 3.1 shows the vignette, with the changes in brackets.

Vignette 1 described a sexual assault with neither Nicole nor Brandon drinking at the party and Nicole freezing or being unable to respond during the assault.

Vignette 2 described an assault with neither Nicole nor Brandon drinking at the party and with Nicole responding to the assault by telling Brandon she does not want to have sex and pushing him away.

Vignette 3 described a sexual assault with both Nicole and Brandon drinking at the party and with Nicole responding to the assault by telling Brandon she does not want to have sex and pushing him away.

Vignette 4 described an assault with both Nicole and Brandon drinking at the party and Nicole freezing or being unable to respond during the assault.

Study Design

I conducted semi-structured interviews with academic staff to obtain qualitative feedback on the appropriateness and realism of vignettes depicting a sexual assault disclosure developed for the survey administered in Phase 2. A feminist approach guided the design and the conduct of the interviews, given the sensitive nature of this study. According to Reinharz (1982), feminist researchers use a variety of interviewing methods, such as semi-structured interviews as a way of obtaining “access to people’s ideas, thoughts, and memories in their own words rather than in the words of the researcher” (p. 19). The feminist interview method promotes an ethical, non-exploitive, respectful, and sincere approach to interviewing participants (Devault, 1990; Roulston, 2010). Feminist interviewing focuses on building rapport and establishing equitable relationships between the researcher and participants. Not only does employing a feminist

approach offer helpful guidance to researchers, it also facilitates positive experiences for research participants (Campbell, Adams, Wasco, Ahrens, & Sefl, 2010).

Sample

Participants were seven academic staff employed at a large Southeastern university with expertise in campus sexual violence as well as experience with receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence. The sample consisted of two academic professionals, two assistant professors, one professor, one instructor, and one student affairs professional. At the time of the interviews, the number of years in their current positions ranged from 1 to 23 years; one participant opted not to disclose this information. No other identifying information was collected to ensure the participant's confidentiality.

Interviews began in June 2019 and lasted through August 2019. The length of each interview was between 45 minutes and 2 hours, which allowed for mutual sharing, in-depth discussions, and time for reflection. Six interviews were held in the participant's office on campus, and one interview was conducted in a private sitting area at the university campus.

Procedure for Recruitment

A purposeful sampling strategy was used to invite academic staff with expertise in campus sexual violence as well as experience with receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence. Maxwell (2013) notes that in a purposeful sampling strategy, particular settings, persons, or activities are selected deliberately to provide information that is particularly relevant to the researcher's questions and goals. The participants were purposefully selected based on their capacity to provide feedback on the content of the 2x2 vignette developed for Phase 2 and the survey questions, as well as having experience with student disclosures of sexual violence.

Participants were invited into the study through personal networks. Once identified, participants received an invitation email into the study. Anyone who responded to the invitation email and elected to participate received an electronic copy of the informed consent form. The consent form explained the purpose of the study, the details of the interview, and the rights of the participant.

Interview Guide

The purpose of conducting individual semi-structured interviews was to collect qualitative feedback on the appropriateness of the vignette and survey questions developed for Phase 2 of the study. Each interview began with introductions, the purpose of the interview, and a description of the second phase of this study. [Appendix A](#) presents the full interview guide. After signing the consent form ([Appendix B](#)), participants answered a series of questions to ensure that the vignette content, format, and survey questions were vetted and appropriate for Phase 2 participants.

To start, each participant read the vignette silently and was then asked a series of questions pertaining to the design of the vignette. For example: How realistic is this situation? Does the scenario create some level of uncertainty? What would you add or change?

Interviewees participated in a guided discussion regarding the survey questions. After carefully reviewing each scale, participants discussed whether the questions measured the constructs correctly and what they would add or change.

Qualitative Data Analysis

The feedback on the vignette and survey questions were written during each interview and then typed immediately after and summarized. The original vignette and survey questions were used in each interview; responses to the interview questions were compared across

interviews with the seven participants. Relevant statements and suggestions that emerged from the interview data helped finalize the vignette and survey questions presented in the survey implemented during Phase 2 of the study.

Subjectivity Statement

The following subjectivity statement explains my connections to gender-based violence and my subjectivities as they may interact with my work and research on disclosures of sexual violence.

I approach this research study position as a 28-year-old Black woman completing her doctoral studies at a predominately White higher education institution situated in the Southern United States. I earned my bachelor's degree in Comparative Women's Studies from Spelman College in Atlanta, Georgia—a historically Black, private, liberal arts institution for Black women. My academic training and research experience at Spelman College provided me with an excellent background in feminist theory, women's health, and gender-based violence. As an undergraduate at Spelman College, I conducted research with Dr. Gloria Wade-Gayles, founding director of the Spelman College Oral History Project, on African American women elders of the Southeastern United States.

While completing my master's degree, I received a graduate teaching assistantship to instruct an undergraduate injury and violence prevention course at the University of Georgia. The following year, I received an internship with the Relationship and Sexual Violence Prevention Office in the University of Georgia's Student Health Center, as well as a two-year fellowship with Futures Without Violence funded by the Department of Health and Human Services, Administration of Children and Families. My fellowship with Futures Without Violence was a very rewarding experience and played a significant role in shaping my interest in

social justice. Futures Without Violence is a health and social justice nonprofit with a simple mission to heal those among us who are traumatized by violence every day and to create healthy families and communities free of violence. This fellowship introduced me to federal laws such as Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and offered me an extraordinary opportunity to join ten other fellows for a meeting at the White House with Carrie Bettinger-Lopez, previous White House Advisor on Violence Against Women and members of the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault launched in January 2014. In the last year of completing my master's degree, I was accepted into the University of Georgia College of Public Health's Health Promotion and Behavior doctoral program in 2016.

For my doctoral training at the University of Georgia, I have continued to focus my research on sexual violence on college campuses. Ultimately, my primary goal is to become a leading expert in the field of gender-based violence prevention. My career goal is to translate my knowledge derived from research to promote public health as a faculty member in higher education and to reform campus policies around responding and supporting survivors of sexual violence. Thus, this study of exploring how academic staff respond to student disclosures of sexual violence is of great interest to me.

Discussing my progression to where I am in my educational career, however, would not be complete if I did not mention my history with violence. My interest in gender-based violence is shaped by the experiences of close relatives and of other Black women who came into my life while attending Spelman College. The experiences of those close to me moved me to learn and understand gender-based violence and the history of Black women who have been robbed of their dignity, integrity, and freedom by forms of violence.

As a Black woman with the intention of teaching at a college or university, I realize several factors will impact the design, implementation, and final interpretations of this research study. I bring an enormous amount of passion and concern for the lives of the victims and survivors of sexual violence. I also bring a great amount of concern for the academic staff; also, for them, I am conducting this research study. Thus, I understand that the emotions I bring to this study must not hinder my full understanding of the participants' experiences.

3.2. Phase 2 – Examination of the Theoretical Model

Study Design and Objectives

After the qualitative feedback from Phase 1 was incorporated into the final vignette and survey, a cross-sectional sample of academic staff completed a randomly assigned 2x2 online vignette survey depicting a sexual assault. The results section describes the modifications to the original vignettes based on the feedback from Phase 1. Given the ethical constraints in creating an experimental study involving a disclosure of sexual violence, the present study used vignettes to examine the impact of the victims' resistance strategy and alcohol use on the perception of whether raped occurred. Participants in the study were randomly assigned to one of four scenarios of the vignette: 1) no alcohol x freezing or being unable to respond, 2) excessive alcohol use x verbal or physical resistance strategy, 3) no alcohol use x verbal or physical resistance strategy, 4) excessive alcohol use x freezing or being unable to respond. Phase 2 of the study is guided by the following objectives and hypotheses:

Objective 2. Identify individual and organizational factors that increase academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence using a randomly assigned 2 (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs "freezing" or being unable to respond) x 2 (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use) vignette survey.

Hypothesis 1: The identification of the event as sexual assault will differ by vignette conditions. [Test of manipulated variables: alcohol and resistance strategy]

Hypothesis 2: Academic staff's intention to appropriately respond to a students' disclosure of sexual assault will differ by vignette conditions. [Test of manipulated variables: alcohol and resistance strategy]

Hypothesis 3: High personal agency (self-efficacy), low rape myth acceptance, knowledge of campus resources, and lack of organizational constraints will significantly predict academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a students' disclosure of sexual assault. [Overall test of the conceptual model]

Objective 3. Explore academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence and participants' needs for organizational change to respond appropriately to campus sexual violence.

Sample

The population for Phase 2 of this study was professors, instructors, teaching assistants, resident assistants, or student affairs professionals working in the United States in universities or community colleges. Experience with receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence was not required to participate in this study.

Procedures for Recruitment and Data Collection

Participants were invited through academic professional listservs, UGA Student Affairs Programs and Services, a Qualtrics research panel, the National Campus Advocacy & Prevention Professionals Association, and attendees at the National Women's Studies Association 2019 annual conference. Participants were introduced to the study through an invitation email that explained the purpose of the study, the participants rights, and the weblink to the survey

([Appendix C](#)). Once the link was opened, participants read the consent form ([Appendix D](#)) and selected the option to begin the survey.

Data collection for Phase 2 began in October of 2019 and ended in February 2020, using the web-based survey data collection software Qualtrics. Qualtrics randomly assigned participants to one of the four vignettes.

The University of Georgia Institutional Review Board approved all study procedures.

Measures

Table 3.2 summarizes for each construct the number of items, response format, and Cronbach's alpha for each scale calculated with data from the present study. Personal agency, knowledge of campus resources and policies, and organizational constraints were measured prior to receiving the vignette; Attitudes and intention were measured afterward. [Appendix E](#) presents the measurement manual and survey.

Demographic and Academic Information. The demographic and academic questions were: age, gender identity, race and ethnicity, primary role or position, years in current role or position, years of working with or teaching students, teaching area or type of contact with students, type of student respondents primarily interact with, type of academic institution, and region of the country currently teaching or working in. Table 3.1 lists the demographic variables and their response categories.

Table 3.1 Demographic and Academic Information

Demographic Characteristics	Response Categories
Age	18-24 years old, 25-34 years old, 35-44 years old, 45-54 years old, 55-64 years old, 65-74 years old, 75 years or older
Gender identity	Female, male, transgender man, transgender woman, gender queer/gender non-conforming
Race and ethnicity	Latinx, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian Indian, Other Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other, Pacific Islander, White, some other race; select all that apply
Primary role or position	Professor, instructor, teaching assistant, student affairs professional, academic advisor, resident assistant, other
Years in current role or position	2 years or less, 3-5 years, 5-10 years, 11 years or more
Years of working with or teaching students	2 years or less, 3-5 years, 5-10 years, 11 years or more
Teaching area or type of contact with students	Business/law, Math/sciences, Sports/recreation, Education, Liberal arts, Health/nutrition, Social sciences, advisement, student affairs, other
Type of student respondents primarily interact with	Undergraduate, graduate, professional students
Type of Academic institution	Community, Public university, Private university
Region	South, Northeast, Midwest, West

Personal Agency (Self-efficacy) Scale. The self-efficacy scale measured academic staffs' confidence in their ability to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence (five items; $\alpha=.87$). Items developed for this study were based on previous research (Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Sales & Krause, 2017). Examples of statements are "I am confident in my ability to guide a student through the disclosure process," "I am confident in my ability to provide emotional support to students who have experienced sexual violence," and "I am

confident in my ability to avoid re-traumatizing students who have experienced sexual violence.” Respondents select the answer that best describes how they feel about each statement. Response categories were *Not true* (1) to *Very much true* (4). To compute the scale, responses were averaged, with higher scores indicating a stronger self-efficacy.

Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale – Short Form (IRMA-SF) (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) was used to measure attitudes towards rape, particularly the level of acceptance of rape myths (22 items: $\alpha=.95$). After reading the vignette, respondents were asked to select the answer that best described how they felt about each statement. Examples of statements are “If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand,” “If a girl doesn’t physically resist sex—even if protesting verbally—it can’t be considered rape,” and “When girls get raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was unclear.” Response categories ranged between *Strongly disagree* (1) to *Strongly agree* (5). To compute the scale, responses were averaged, with higher scores indicating a stronger acceptance for the rape myth.

Knowledge of Available Campus Policies and Resources Scale. This scale assessed participants’ knowledge of available campus policies and resources (six items). Items developed for this study were based on previous research (Branch et al., 2011; Richards et al., 2013) and written in the form of questions. Examples of questions were “Does your university have a policy on dealing with sexual violence?” “Do you know where to report an incident of sexual violence?” and “Does your university have campus resources available to assist students who experience sexual violence?” Response categories were *Yes*, *No*, and *Unsure*. *Yes* responses were coded as 1, others as 0. A scale was calculated as the sum of *Yes* responses, with higher scores indicating more knowledge.

Organizational Constraints (Workplace Support) Scale. The workplace support scale measured participants' views of the factors external to the person that impact responding appropriately to student disclosure either positively (facilitators) or negatively (constraints) (six items; $\alpha=.90$). Items developed for this study were based on previous research (Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Sales & Krause, 2017). Participants were asked to select the answer that best describes how they felt about each statement. Examples of statements were "There is an open dialogue in my organizational unit about the possibility of faculty and staff receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence," "My organizational unit has a specific protocol for responding to student disclosure of sexual violence," and "My organizational unit has provided trauma-informed training on how to respond to student disclosures of sexual violence." Response categories were *Not true* (1) to *Very much true* (4), and *Unsure*. Because being unsure shows lack of knowledge of organizational supports, participants who selected *Unsure* were coded as 1. To compute the scale, responses were averaged, with higher scores indicating a stronger workplace support.

Participants also responded to one open-ended question: "What changes would you like to see in the workplace in response to campus sexual violence?"

Intention Scale. The intention scale measured academic staffs' likelihood of using hypothetical statements when responding to a student disclosure of sexual assault (15 items, $\alpha=.66$). Response categories were *Not likely* (1) to *Very likely* (4). Items developed for this study were based on previous research (Bogen, Leach, Meza Lopez, & Orchowski, 2018; Ullman, 2000, 2010). The intention scale has two subscales. The *Positive Responses* subscale consists of six appropriate statements that a person can use if a student discloses a sexual assault. Example of statements are "I believe you. I believe that your experience happened as you say it

did,” and “I support you and whatever decisions you make moving forward.” The *Negative Responses* subscale consists of nine less appropriate responses to a student disclosure. Examples of statements are “You need to report what happened to campus police or law enforcement” and “I’m not sure what to say or how to help you.” Participants rated how likely they would use each response or a similar response. To develop the scale, the scores of negative items were reverse coded. To compute the intention scale, responses were averaged, with higher scores indicating a stronger intention. A detailed construction of the scale can be found in the results section.

In addition to the measures of the theoretical model, participants responded to two additional questions: certainty of sexual assault and experience with a student disclosure.

Certainty of Sexual Assault. Respondents answered one question about sexual assault: “Did Brandon sexually assault Nicole?” Response categories were *Yes* and *No*.

Student Disclosure. The survey ends with three questions about academic staffs’ experience with student disclosure of sexual violence: 1) “Have you ever received a student disclosure of sexual violence?” and 2) “Did you report the disclosure?” Response categories were *Yes* and *No*. If participants responded yes to the second question, they indicated the reporting procedures. In one open-ended question, participants who stated that they had received a disclosure were prompted to describe the situation.

Table 3.2 Summary of Measures for each Theoretical Constructs

Construct	Description of Measure	Response Format	Internal Consistency	Final Variable Analyzed
1. Personal Agency (self-efficacy)	5 items measuring academic staff's confidence in their ability to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence	Four-point scale with anchors of 1 to 4 representing <i>Not True</i> to <i>Very Much True</i> .	$\alpha=.87$	Self-efficacy scale calculated as the average of the 4 items
2. Attitudes (rape myth acceptance)	22 items measuring attitudes towards rape, particularly the level of acceptance of rape myths	5-point scale with anchors of 1 to 5 representing <i>Strongly Agree</i> to <i>Strongly Disagree</i> .	$\alpha=.95$	Rape myth acceptance scale calculated as the average of the 17 items
3. Knowledge of Campus Policies and Resources	6 items measuring academic staffs' knowledge of available campus policies and resources.	<i>Yes, No, or Unsure.</i> <i>Yes</i> responses were coded as 1, others as 0.	N/A	Sum of responses ranging from 0 to 6
4. Organizational Constraints (unsupportive workplace)	6 items measuring the views of the factors external to the academic staff that impact responding appropriately to student disclosure either positively (facilitators) or negatively (constraints).	Four-point scale with anchors of 1 to 4 representing <i>Not True/Unsure</i> to <i>Very Much True</i> .	$\alpha=.90$	Workplace support scale calculated as the average of the 5 items
5. Intention	6 items measuring likelihood of using appropriate responses to student disclosure	Four-point scale with anchors of 1 to 4 representing <i>Not Likely</i> to <i>Very Likely</i> .	$\alpha=.72$	Sum of responses ranging from 0 to 6
6. Demographic and Academic Characteristics	10 items assessing age, gender identity, race and ethnicity, primary role or position, years in current role or position, years of working with or teaching students, teaching area or type of contact with students, type of student respondents primarily interact with, type of academic institution, and region of the country currently teaching or working in.	Various response options depending on demographic information collected.	N/A	Sum and percentage score of each demographic variable

Analysis plan for Quantitative Measures

Following data collection, survey data were downloaded from Qualtrics software into SPSS software, version 26 for analysis. Data were cleaned and sorted by visually inspecting values and running frequencies to check for missing, incomplete, or implausible data. The internal consistency of the scores of the scales (personal agency, attitudes, knowledge of campus resources and policies, organizational constraints, and intention) was examined using Cronbach's alpha.

The analyses for Objective 2 follow three steps. First, descriptive statistics were used to examine the demographic characteristics of the sample and responses to each scale. Second, a Chi-square test was used to test Hypothesis 1 (The identification of the event as sexual assault will differ by vignette conditions). **Chi-square test** allows for statistical comparison of academic staffs' certainty of sexual assault responses between the manipulated vignette conditions. A one-way ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 2 (Academic staff's intention to respond to a students' disclosure of sexual assault appropriately will be differ by vignette conditions). A **one-way ANOVA** allows for a comparison of statistical differences in intention (dependent variable) mean scores based on manipulated vignette conditions. Third, a multiple regression analysis was used to assess Hypothesis 3 (High personal agency (self-efficacy), low rape myth acceptance, knowledge of campus resources, and lack of organizational constraints will significantly predict academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a students' disclosure of sexual assault.)

Multiple regression analysis is a widely used statistical method in social science research. According to Wampold and Freund (1987), multiple regression analysis is a statistical method for examining the separate and collective contribution of one or more independent variables on explaining the variability of a continuous dependent variable. In essence, multiple

regression analysis seeks to find the best combination of multiple independent variables, commonly referred to as predictor variables, that can predict or explain the variance in a single dependent variable with some degree of accuracy and precision (Heppner, Wampold, Owen, Thompson, & Wang, 2015). Multiple regression analysis was selected to examine the association between four predictor variables and academic staff's intention to respond to a students' disclosure of sexual assault appropriately.

There are a few methods of multiple regression modeling that a researcher can select from to use for their data. The particular method that the researcher chooses depends on the following: 1) the proposed research questions, 2) the hypothesis tested, and 3) the logic behind the research design (Petrocelli, 2003). In this study, a hierarchical entry multiple regression analysis was selected for entering predictor variables, progressively, into the regression model.

Hierarchical entry regression is used to answer questions about how variance is partitioned among predictor variables and allows researchers to understand how predictors entered later in the model affect predictive power over and above that of the predictors entered earlier (Swanson & Holton, 2005). Hierarchical entry multiple regression analysis allows the researcher to explain everything the predictor variables can account for thoroughly, which is the most significant benefit of using this particular multiple regression method over entering all predictors into the model at once.

In hierarchical entry multiple regression analysis, the researcher chooses the order in which the predictor variables are entered (Wampold & Freund, 1987). Predictor variables are selected based on research relevance, causal priority, or theoretical grounds (Heppner et al., 2015). The researcher also decides the order to enter the predictor variables into the model. Known predictor variables that are most theoretically sound are entered into the regression

model first in order of their importance in predicting the dependent variable (Field, 2013). After known predictor variables have been entered, the researcher can add any new predictor variables into the model, such as hypothesized variables. (Field, 2013).

Thus, to examine the impact of predictor variables on academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a students' disclosure of sexual violence, self-efficacy and attitudes were entered into the model first, and knowledge and organizational constraints were entered into the model second. Self-efficacy and attitudes were entered into the model first because IBM postulates that these constructs influence intention directly. In contrast, knowledge and organizational constraints influence behavior directly apart from affecting behavior through intention.

Several assumptions must be met when using multiple regression analysis: 1) Normality of error, 2) homoscedasticity, and 3) independence of error.

Normality of errors. Multiple regression requires that the error (i.e., the difference between the observed and predicted values (i.e., the residuals of the regression)) is normally distributed. This assumption can be checked by visual evaluation of the standardized residual histogram or P-P-Plot.

Homoscedasticity. Multiple regression assumes that the variance of error (residual) is constant across all levels of the independent variables; heteroscedasticity refers to unequal variance, and homoscedasticity refers to equal variance. This assumption can be tested by looking at a scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Independence of error. It is also assumed that for any two observations, the error should be uncorrelated (i.e., independent from one another). This assumption can be tested with the Durbin–Watson test, which tests for serial correlations between errors (Field, 2013).

Multiple regression assumes that the independent variables are not highly correlated with each other (Meuleman, Loosveldt, & Emonds, 2015). In multiple regression analysis, the ideal condition for the analysis is for the independent variables to have strong and significant correlations to the dependent variable, but weak correlations with one another. In many cases, the independent variables are often related to the dependent variable, but research has found that the independent variables are also regularly correlated (Meuleman et al., 2015). In the social sciences, this problem often arises, since many socioeconomic variables, for example, are likely to be interrelated, such as education, social status, or income (Schroeder, Sjoquist, & Stephan, 2016). This condition is referred to as multicollinearity, which exists when two or more of the independent variables used in regression are moderately or highly correlated (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012).

According to Field (2013), low levels of collinearity pose little threat to the analysis; however, if the correlations between the independent variables become too strong, problems can arise during the analyses. Having intercorrelated independent or predictor variables often lead to confusing and misleading results. For instance, high correlations among the independent variables can increase the likelihood of rounding errors in the calculations of the β estimates and standard errors (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012). In other words, in the presence of multicollinearity b-values are less trustworthy, and standard error of the estimate is inflated. Furthermore, multicollinearity between predictors renders it difficult to assess the particular importance of a predictor (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012). For example, if the predictors are highly correlated, each accounts for similar variance in the outcome, it is difficult to interpret which of the two variables is most important (Field, 2013).

Influential residual outliers is an additional possible pitfall. A residual outlier is a residual that are extremely discrepant. According to Mendenhall and Sinich (2012), the standardized residual is an outlier if it is more than three standard deviations away from the mean of 0. However, an outlier is only influential if it significantly influences the regression parameter estimates or predicted values (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012).

A residual outlier may be present in the data for several reasons. For example, the measurement associated with the outlier may be invalid due to the experimental procedure malfunctioning, or the researcher may have simply misreported the measurement or coded the entry into the statistical program incorrectly (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012). Double-checking experiential and coding procedures can avoid each of these common mistakes. There are times, however, when an outlier cannot be explained by these reasons mentioned. Extremely atypical residuals may be related to the nonnormality of the probability distribution of error (i.e., error does not adhere to normality), chance, or the presence of a legitimate unique observation (Mendenhall & Sinich, 2012). Given that any residual outlier has the potential to be influential, it is necessary to investigate each outlier.

Analysis plan for Qualitative Measures

To assess Objective 3, data from participants' responses to open-ended questions completed in the survey were analyzed using LeCompte (2000) approach to thematic analysis. This qualitative analysis process allows multiple and interconnected themes to emerge from the data. Thematic analysis is one of the most commonly used approaches to the examination of qualitative data (Roulston, 2010). In this study, each response was carefully read and then coded using a deductive approach. Once responses were coded, conceptual categories for each code were created and organized by relevant themes and statements from the data.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the methodological processes employed to conduct this mixed-method study focused on identifying factors that influenced academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence. I described the design of the study, the procedure for recruitment, data collection, and data analysis. I began with describing Phase 1 of the study in which semi-structured interviews were conducted with academic staff with expertise in campus sexual violence to collect qualitative feedback on the appropriateness of the vignette and survey questions developed for this study. The qualitative data from Phase 1 informed the development of a survey based on vignettes used in the second phase of the study. In the next section, I explored various components of my subjectivity in relation to this study. Finally, I described Phase 2 of the study in which participants completed an online survey, including a randomly assigned 2×2 sexual assault disclosure vignette. The next chapter presents the results of Phase 1 and Phase 2 of this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section presents the results from Phase 1: Development of Vignettes (qualitative). This section describes the sample and qualitative feedback from participants on the appropriateness of the vignette and survey questions. The second section of this chapter presents the results from Phase 2: Academic survey (quantitative). The third section presents common themes from exploring academic staffs' experience with student disclosure of sexual violence.

4.1 Development of Vignette (Phase 1)

Most participants believed that the content of the vignette was realistic and appropriate for the survey. However, one participant noted that in many cases of sexual assault, the perpetrator is not drinking and is focused on encouraging the victim to drink. Another participant noted that, in their experience, a student may not disclose as much information about the assault unless the assault is disclosed in a written assignment or during a safe space event. Although, another participant explained that a former student had shared similar details of a sexual assault.

When asked whether the scenario described in the vignette created some level of uncertainty, the majority agreed that the following variables created such uncertainty: the relationship status, Nicole staying overnight with Brandon, and the element of freezing depicted in the vignette. Participants agreed that the excessive use of alcohol and the refraining of consuming alcohol contributed the most uncertainty in the scenario.

Participants also suggested several elements that they would add to the vignette or change. A few participants proposed manipulating additional variables within the vignette, such as the relationship status and the social status of the perpetrator. Participants highlighted specific language that needed revising within the vignette. For example, one participant suggested removing the statements "Nicole became tired" and "She is feeling sick after drinking." The participant explained that this would enhance empathy which could influence the results of Phase 2. This participant also recommended eliminating the term "sex"; given that the encounter was described as sexual assault. Most participants identified the need to paint a clearer picture of Brandon and his actions. Participants suggested a revision of the statement "Brandon become aggressive." This statement was changed to "Brandon is assertive and he starts to remove Nicole's clothing."

Finally, participants responded to probing questions about how they felt about certain aspects of the survey. Overwhelmingly participants agreed that the survey questions measured the theoretical constructs well and correctly. Minor suggestions were given pertaining to question formatting, wording of questions, ordering of questions and response categories. A few participants also suggested including definitions for phrases and technical terminology that not all respondents may understand.

Each participant's input was used to refine and inform the content of the vignette and survey questions. Dr. Orpinas, an expert in violence prevention, also reviewed the vignette and survey questions to ensure that they were written and designed appropriately as well. The vignette and survey questions were then modified and recalibrated until there was a general agreement established. This back and forth process was used to finalize the 2x2 survey for the second phase of the study with academic staff.

4.2 Examination of the Theoretical Model (Phase 2)

Sample

Initially, 226 persons clicked on the survey, but 60 did not meet the eligibility requirements or opted not to participate in the study. Therefore, the final sample for this study consisted of 166 academic professionals. As shown in Table 4.1, most participants identified as female (80%) and White (80%). Participants' age varied, with the largest portion of participants being between 25 and 35 years (37.2%). Slightly more than half of participants worked in the Southern region of the United States (58%).

Table 4.2 presents an overview of the academic characteristics of the participants. Majority of participants were student affairs professionals (30%), followed by professors (21%), and instructors (15%). Almost a quarter of the sample reported other academic professional positions and roles (23%). Example of other positions and roles included in this sample are information technology specialist, financial aid advisor, medical professional, librarian, administrative staff, campus recruiter, post-doctoral researcher, and graduate assistant.

Most participants, at the time of the survey, reported being in their current positions 2 years or less (35%) and working with or teaching students for 11 years or more (38%). Of the participants that taught in this sample, the largest portion of the sample taught in the social sciences (18%), followed by liberal arts (15%) and education (15%). Most participants reported primarily interacting with undergraduate students (65%) at a public university (69%).

Table 4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants (n=166)

Demographic Characteristics	N	%
Gender Identity ¹		
Female	133	80.1
Male	32	19.3
Gender Queer/Gender Non-Conforming	1	0.6
Age		
18-24 years old	11	6.7
25-34 years old	61	37.2
35-44 years old	39	23.8
45-54 years old	28	17.1
55-64 years old	15	9.1
65-74 years old	8	4.9
75 years or older	2	1.2
Race/Ethnicity ²		
White	140	80.0
Black or African American	18	10.3
Latinx	7	4.0
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	0.6
Asian Indian	1	0.6
Other Asian	6	3.4
Other	2	1.1
Region ³		
South	96	58.2
Northeast	26	15.8
Midwest	21	12.7
West	22	13.3

¹ No participants selected transgender.

² Numbers add to 175 because 10 participants selected 2 race/ethnic groups.

³ One person at a private university did not indicate the region.

Table 4.2. Academic Staff Characteristics (n=166)

Academic Staff Characteristics	N	%
Primary Role or Position		
Student Affairs Professional	50	30.1
Professor	34	20.5
Instructor	25	15.1
Academic Advisor	11	6.6
Teaching Assistant	6	3.6
Resident Assistance	2	1.2
Other	38	22.9
Years in Position or Role		
2 years or less	58	34.9
3-5 years	44	26.5
6-10 years	26	15.7
11 years or more	38	22.9
Years of Working/Teaching Students		
2 years or less	24	20.9
3-5 years	43	26.4
6-10 years	24	14.7
11 years or more	62	38.0
Teaching Area		
Social sciences	30	18.4
Education	23	14.1
Liberal arts	14	8.6
Health/nutrition	10	6.1
Math/sciences	8	4.9
Business/law	4	2.5
Sports/recreation	3	1.8
Women studies	3	1.8
Not instructional position	68	41.7
Type of Students Interacted		
Undergraduate	107	65.2
Graduate	16	9.8
Professional	6	3.7
Academic Institution		
Public university	114	68.7
Private university	32	19.3
Community	20	12.0

Descriptive Analyses of Scales

Table 4.3 presents the mean and standard deviation for each scale. Mean scores were high for personal agency, knowledge, and intention, and they were low for attitudes and organizational constraints. In other words, participants reported feeling confident in their ability to respond to a student disclosure of sexual violence and were informed of campus resources and policies. Results also indicated that participants reported a strong intent to respond with positive statements to a student disclosure of sexual violence and a lower acceptance of attitudes that support rape myths. However, the low mean score for the organizational constraints scale ($M=2.78$; $SD=0.87$) suggests that participants may lack support within their workplace as it relates to responding to campus sexual violence. Table 4.4 displays the frequencies of the response options for the organizational constraints scale. As described in the methods section, participants who selected *Unsure* were coded into the *Not True* response category.

Table 4.3 Description of Scales: Response rate, range, mean and standard deviation (SD)

Scale Name	Response Rate	Scale Range	Mean	SD
Personal Agency (Self-efficacy)	155	1 – 4	3.07	0.72
Attitudes (Rape Myth Acceptance)	141	1 – 5	1.47	0.63
Knowledge of Campus Policies and Resources	165	0 – 6	4.01	1.20
Organizational Constraints	139	1 – 4	2.78	0.87
Intention	141	0 – 6	4.04	1.73

Because the intention to respond positively was so important in this study and scores were high, a more detailed analysis of this scale is warranted. The original intention scale included 15 items measuring academic staffs' likelihood of using hypothetical statements when responding to a student disclosure of sexual violence. The intention scale included 6 positive

responses and 9 negative responses. To develop the scale, the scores of negative items were reverse coded. To compute the intention scale, responses were averaged, with higher scores indicating a stronger intention. When analyzing the reliability of the intention scale, the internal consistency of the scores was found to be questionable, with $\alpha=.66$.

The low internal consistency likely resulted from low variability in response a large number of responses were only recorded at the extreme response options. For example, as shown in Table 4.5, most participants responded *Very likely* for using positive statements when responding to a student disclosure of sexual assault. Similarly, a vast majority of participants gave a response of *Not likely* for using negative statements when responding to a student disclosure of sexual assault. The only exception to this pattern was the responses to the following negative statement, “You need to report what happened to campus police or law enforcement.” This statement received a range of responses from participants (Table 4.6).

To improve the reliability of the *Positive Response* subscale, the final form of the scale was dichotomized by a split (Table 4.7). Positive responses were recoded as *Very likely* = 1 and *Likely, Pretty likely, Not likely* = 0. Thus, the scale was calculated as the sum of six dichotomous items. The scale scores ranged from 0 to 6, with higher scores indicating a stronger intention. After the dichotomization, the internal consistency for the subscale was found to be acceptable, with $\alpha=.72$.

Table 4.4 Organizational Constraints Scale Frequency

Statements	<i>Not True+ Unsure (%)</i>	<i>A little true (%)</i>	<i>Pretty much true (%)</i>	<i>Very much true (%)</i>	Mean (SD)
1. There is an open dialogue in my organizational unit about the possibility of faculty and staff receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence.	16.4	18.7	30.6	34.3	2.83 (1.08)
2. My organizational unit has a specific protocol for responding to student disclosure of sexual violence.	20.7	9.6	20.7	48.9	2.98 (1.20)
3. My organizational unit has provided trauma-informed training on how to respond to student disclosures of sexual violence.	36.6	20.9	23.1	19.4	2.25 (1.15)
4. Addressing campus sexual violence is a priority for my organizational unit.	19.4	27.6	26.9	26.1	2.60 (1.08)
5. Supporting students who are victims or survivors of sexual violence is a large priority for my organizational unit.	14.3	25.6	25.6	34.6	2.80 (1.07)
6. My organizational unit has created a normative environment that does not tolerate sexual violence.	9.0	12.0	33.1	45.9	3.16 (0.96)

Table 4.5 Intention (Positive Responses Subscale) Frequency

Positive responses	<i>Not likely</i> (%)	<i>A little likely</i> (%)	<i>Pretty likely</i> (%)	<i>Very likely</i> (%)	Mean (SD)
1. I believe you. I believe that your experience happened as you say it did.	2.8	6.6	25.3	50.6	3.46 (0.76)
2. I am so sorry.	8.6	15.0	28.6	47.9	3.16 (0.98)
3. I support you and whatever decisions you make moving forward.	0.7	5.0	22.7	71.6	3.65 (0.61)
4. Thank you for trusting me and sharing this with me.	0.7	6.4	15.6	77.3	3.70 (0.62)
5. What happened was not your fault. You are not to blame.	3.5	9.2	17.0	70.2	3.54 (0.81)
6. If you are interested, I can share with you information about campus and community resources that can help you through this process.	0.0	5.0	15.6	79.4	3.74 (0.54)

Table 4.6 Intention (Negative Responses Subscale) Frequency

Negative responses	<i>Not likely</i> (%)	<i>A little likely</i> (%)	<i>Pretty likely</i> (%)	<i>Very likely</i> (%)	Mean (SD)
1. I'm not sure what to say or how to help.	73.0	21.3	4.3	1.4	1.34 (0.63)
2. Don't worry; it happens to a lot of young women.	92.2	4.3	3.5	0.0	1.11 (0.42)
3. I think he is just in love; he wants to see you again.	95.7	2.1	0.7	1.4	1.08 (0.42)
4. You need to report what happened to campus police or law enforcement.	36.9	15.6	25.5	22.0	2.33 (1.19)
5. Tell me how much alcohol you consumed that night.	88.7	5.0	5.0	1.4	1.19 (0.59)
6. Most likely it was just a miscommunication.	95.7	1.4	2.9	0.0	1.07 (0.35)
7. Explain to me why you didn't fight Brandon off.	92.9	2.8	3.5	0.7	1.12 (0.47)
8. Try your best not to think about what happened so that you can move on with your life.	91.4	5.0	2.9	0.7	1.13 (0.46)
9. I would like to understand why you didn't leave Brandon's apartment.	92.9	3.5	2.8	0.7	1.11 (0.45)

Table 4.7 Frequency of Response of the Dichotomized Positive Subscale (n=141)

Positive responses	Frequency	Valid Percent
0	6	4.3
1	8	5.7
2	17	12.1
3	15	10.6
4	25	17.7
5	38	27.0
6	32	22.7

Bivariate Analyses

Table 4.8 presents the proportion of participants who identified the encounter between Brandon and Nicole as sexual assault (SA) by vignette conditions. The majority of participants agreed that Brandon sexually assaulted Nicole despite the vignette condition. The largest proportion of participants who doubted that the vignette depicted a sexual assault were those who received the Alc-Freeze vignette, with 1 in 6 participants. Approximately, 1 in 10 participants in both No-Alcohol conditions doubted that the vignette depicted a sexual assault.

Table 4.8 Prevalence of Identification of Encounter as SA by Vignette Condition

Did Brandon sexually assault Nicole?	2x2 Vignette Condition			
	<i>Alc-Freeze</i> (n=37) %	<i>Alc-Resistance</i> (n=37) %	<i>No Alc-Freeze</i> (n=33) %	<i>No Alc-Resistance</i> (n=34) %
Yes	83.8	97.3	90.9	83.9
No	5.4	0.0	0.0	2.7
Unsure	10.8	2.7	9.1	5.4
No + Unsure	16.2	2.7	9.1	8.1

A Chi-square test was performed to assess whether the proportion of participants that identified the encounter between Brandon and Nicole as a sexual assault differed by vignette conditions. Because several cells had no respondents, *no plus unsure* were tested against *yes*. Based on the Chi-square test, the proportion of participants that identified the encounter as sexual assault did not differ significantly by vignette conditions $X^2 = 4.05$, $p = 0.256$.

A one way ANOVA was performed to test hypothesis 2. The results of the ANOVA tests are displayed in Table 4.9. There was no significant difference in mean scores of participant's intentions, $F(3, 137) = 0.93$, $p = 0.43$. Academic staff's intention to appropriately respond to a students' disclosure of sexual assault did not significantly differ when the victim resists the assault, and when the victim had not consumed alcohol. Thus, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 4.9 Results of ANOVA test: Intention With Vignette Conditions

Variable	n	M	SD	F	p
Vignette Condition				0.93	0.43
Alc-Freeze	37	4.16	1.82		
Alc-Resistance	37	3.68	1.65		
No Alc	33	4.33	1.49		
No Alc-Resistance	34	4.00	1.91		

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to examine the association between predictor variables and academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to a students' disclosure of sexual violence (Hypothesis 3). In this analysis, intention served as the dependent variable. Personal agency (self-efficacy), attitudes (rape myth acceptance), knowledge, and organizational constraints served as the independent (predictor) variables. Table 4.10 lists mean scores and standard deviation for each scale by each vignette condition.

Table 4.10 Means and Standard Deviation (SD) for Scales by Vignette Conditions

	2x2 Vignette Condition			
	<i>Alc-Freeze</i>	<i>Alc-Resistance</i>	<i>No Alc-Freeze</i>	<i>No Alc-Resistance</i>
Personal Agency (Self-efficacy)	3.18 (0.66)	2.85 (0.70)	3.17 (0.71)	3.07 (0.13)
Attitudes (Rape Myth Acceptance)	1.42 (0.67)	1.53 (0.49)	1.40 (0.50)	1.51 (0.81)
Knowledge of Campus Policies and Resources	3.95 (1.41)	4.08 (1.27)	4.15 (0.98)	3.92 (1.20)
Organizational Constraints	2.70 (0.78)	2.6 (0.82)	2.84 (0.94)	3.01 (0.91)
Intention	4.16 (1.82)	3.68 (1.65)	4.33 (1.49)	4.00 (1.91)

Table 4.11 depicts correlations among the predictor variables, as well as intention. Two predictor variables were correlated with intention: self-efficacy ($r = 0.26$) and attitudes ($r = -0.34$). There was a weak correlation between knowledge and rape myth acceptance ($r = -0.26$), and a moderate correlation between knowledge and self-efficacy ($r = 0.43$). Work support showed a moderate correlation with self-efficacy ($r = 0.39$) and with knowledge ($r = 0.35$). Given that two of the independent variables were moderately correlated, the independent variables and dependent variable were tested for extreme multicollinearity. The VIF values were all well below 10, and the tolerance statistics were all well above 0.2. This confirms that that collinearity was not a concern for this regression model.

Table 4.11 Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Personal Agency (Self-efficacy)	-			
2. Attitudes (Rape Myth Acceptance)	-0.039			
3. Knowledge of Campus Policies and Resources	0.431**	-0.255**		
4. Organizational Constraints	0.393**	0.110	0.351**	
5. Intention	0.264**	-0.338**	0.057	-0.047

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

After examining for multicollinearity, predictor variables were entered into the regression model. Table 4.12 presents the results of the analysis. Personal agency (self-efficacy) and attitudes (rape-myth acceptance) were entered into the regression model first (step 1), followed by knowledge of campus resources and policies, and organizational constraints (step 2). The adjusted R^2 increased from step 1 to step 2. Step 1 variables accounted for 19% of the variance in intention to respond appropriately ($F(2, 123) = 14.574, p < 0.001$). Step 2 variables accounted for an additional 3% in intention variance ($F(4, 121) = 8.808, p < 0.001$), although the change in R^2 was not significant.

Personal agency ($b=0.662, \beta=.270, t=3.33, p<0.001$) and attitudes ($b=-0.923, \beta=-.333, t=-4.10, p<0.001$) were significant predictors of intention. Based on the standardized beta values, the most substantive predictor of intention was attitudes (rape myth acceptance), followed by personal agency (self-efficacy). Knowledge and organizational constraints did not significantly predict intention and were removed from the model. Overall, the final model accounts for 19% of the variance in intention and is a significant fit to the data ($F(2, 131) = 15.899, p < 0.001$).

Table 4.12 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Intention

Variable	Intention		
	Model 1 β	Model 2	
		β	95% CI
Constant	3.431	4.188	
Personal Agency (Self-efficacy)	0.662*	0.914*	0.467, 1.360
Attitudes (Rape Myth Acceptance)	-0.923*	-1.017*	-1.485, -0.550
Knowledge of Campus Policies and Resources		-0.241	0.505, 0.023
Organizational Constraints		-0.153	-0.512, 0.206
R^2	0.192	0.226	
F	14.574*	8.808*	
ΔR^2		0.034	
ΔF		2.651	

Note. $N = 126$. CI = confidence interval. * $p < .01$

Assumptions were tested to evaluate the adequacy of the final model. When testing for normality of error, the histogram revealed a negatively skewed distribution, indicating that the normality of errors assumption does not hold; the normal P–P plot verified this violation as the observed cumulative residuals deviated considerably from the expected cumulative residual if normality held. When testing for homoscedasticity, the scatterplot of ZPRED vs. ZRESID did not reveal a random pattern, indicating a concern for heteroscedasticity. Based on the results of the assumption tests, the final model is inadequate, and the results are inconclusive.

Change in the Workplace to Respond Appropriately to Campus Sexual Violence (Objective 3)

Participants answered one opened-ended question regarding changes they would like to see in their workplace in response to campus sexual violence while completing the Phase 2 survey. This question was designed to gather suggestions and recommendations from participants. Participants requested two main changes: 1) training opportunities, and 2) additional campus resources. Several themes emerged from these two topics (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13 Topics and Themes About Changes in the Workplace

Topic	Themes
Training opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• How to respond to a student disclosure of sexual violence• Trauma-informed training• Mandatory reporting and reporting procedures
Additional resources for victims/survivors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Counseling services• Confidential support services

Topic 1: Training Opportunities

How to respond to a student disclosure of sexual violence. Of the 124 participants who completed this question, 122 emphasized the need for training on how to respond to a student disclosure of sexual violence. Respondents advocated for campus-wide training. One participant stated, “Mostly, I think training should be available for everyone.” Several participants also expressed their individual need for training, while also highlighting the lack of training opportunities available at their institutions. Explicitly, one social science professor stated, “I think we need a broad-based effort to educate faculty and staff on this issue. I have received very little information and no training in my six years at my institution.” A teaching assistant reflected:

These questions are really illuminating how much I do not know about procedures for sexual violence in my department. I honestly can't recall anyone even mentioning it or

bringing it up during my department orientation meetings. So, even if a student did disclose something to me, I would have to look it up or find resources to direct them to.

Some participants emphasized training for specific academic staff who may be overlooked when it comes to implementing training on how to respond to student disclosures.

One student affairs professional stated:

I would like to see more formalized trainings, especially for new staff, on how to respond to and report sexual violence and harassment. There are so many amazing resources on our campus, but because of all these options it can be difficult to remember which resources you should reach out to in different situations.

An instructor emphasized the training for part-time academic staff, “I would like regular continued training, university-wide. I think this is especially important for part-time staff as well, who often miss a great deal of training opportunities.” A faculty member with 20 years of experience in responding to sexual assault stated, “I would like to see more faculty training for all faculty members, including adjunct faculty, on how to manage survivor disclosures, whether they come from students or other faculty/staff.” Regarding adjunct faculty specifically, one participant explained that “Non-tenure track faculty including adjuncts are often not included in training or policy discussions.”

While many participants highlighted specific academic staff that may benefit from training on how to respond to a disclosure, one participant suggested how training should be delivered and provided recommendations on the content of these training:

I do not want a traditional video training or a general training that is one-size-fits-all. I would like to see the university invest resources to have experts meet with each department and teach specific strategies for bystander intervention and for responding to concerns.

Trauma-informed training. Many participants also highlighted the importance of receiving trauma-informed training regarding their obligations to report disclosures of sexual violence, and instruction in how to provide sensitive responses to disclosures. For example, one

respondent stated, “I think everyone should receive trauma-informed training on how to respond to disclosures – not just people who work in the sphere of prevention or advocacy.” Another participant commented:

I would love some trauma-informed training. I think that is always the missing piece. I know what to do if/when a student reports, but I do not always feel equipped to handle those conversations in accordance with best practices. This is partly because there is just a push to report it; rather than take care of the student in the moment, too.

One student affairs professional suggested explicitly the need for “more training and understanding of the complex dynamics of trauma, and how trauma influences student's academic and personal well-being.” This participant justified this suggestion by adding, “Often we focus on a student's negative behaviors (missing class, having difficulty forming relationships, trusting/opening up to others, drinking/drugs, etc.) but there is no discussion as to what may be causing and perpetuating those behaviors.”

Another student affairs professional highlighted the need for trauma-informed training among staff within Title IX offices. The participant stated, “Title IX offices should have increased training in trauma-informed interviewing and restorative justice approaches. Title IX officials tend to display a cold, sanitized front that does not encourage victims' trust and participation.” Another student affairs professional stated, “I'd love for those doing Title IX investigation to be trained on issues related to sexual-violence induced trauma.”

Mandatory reporting and reporting procedures. The final theme that emerged from the topic of training opportunities was mandatory reporting and reporting procedures. One student affairs professional recommended, “More clear training for staff and faculty about their responsibilities as mandated reporters and where to report.” This recommendation was common.

Several participants commented on the value of training for academic staff who are required to report incidents of sexual violence. This theme was richly captured by one professor

who stated, “First, if we are going to mandate that faculty and staff be mandated reporters, they need to be properly trained. An untrained person can do a lot of harm, including perpetuating victim-blaming.”

One academic advisor suggested “better training on how to get students to non-mandatory reporting units prior to them disclosing to mandatory reporters.” For example, this participant explained:

It is very difficult to catch a student before they disclose sexual violence to explain that I am a mandatory reporter. This leaves me feeling as if I'm betraying student trust when I must report to our Title IX coordinator. The attorneys who handle these reports don't come across as particularly sensitive to either students who disclose or to staff.

Topic 2: Additional Campus Resources for Victims and Survivors

Counseling services. Some participants emphasized the need for campus resources “for students that have experienced sexual violence.” One of those resources is counseling services. One participant simply stated, “My university needs more counselors for students.” Another participant suggested, “More counselors on staff who are experts in supporting survivors of dating violence and sexual assault.”

Confidential support services. Along with counseling services, participants also suggested more confidential support services such as “A confidential place for students to report instances of this violence.” One participant stated:

I would like to see greater consideration for a student victim's request for confidentiality or increased knowledge of mandated reporter policies. Many students are unaware that faculty and staff are mandated reporters, and then feel regretful and betrayed that the person they trusted enough to disclose to must make a report.

Academic Staffs' Experience with Student Disclosures of Sexual Violence (Objective 3)

This next section describes academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence. Findings from this study indicated that 53 participants (37.6%) reported receiving a

student disclosure of sexual violence, 88 (62.4%) participants had not. Of the 53 participants who reported receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence, 39 answered one opened-ended question describing their experiences. The diverse experiences of the study participants were organized by the *type of sexual violence disclosure* and *mechanism for disclosure*.

Type of sexual violence disclosure. Several participants shared details about the type of sexual violence disclosure they received from students, such as disclosures related to non-contact acts of sexual nature, intentional sexual touching, rape, and sexual assault. One participant shared an incident of a non-contact act of a sexual nature where a “Girl disclosed her ex-boyfriend was threatening to release intimate photos/videos of her online.”

Three participants reported receiving disclosures from students that detailed non-consensual intentional sexual touching. One of the professors shared an incident that occurred at a student’s workplace:

A student was at work at a bar; a patron (not a student at university) pushed her up against the wall and made lewd comments as he touched her in ways she did not like or want to happen. He continued to follow her around throughout the night, trying to touch her, etc. Eventually, her coworker managed to eject the individual from the bar.

Another participant who received a similar type of sexual violence disclosure shared that, “a student was crying about a boy and how he inappropriately touched her in the hallway.” The third participant shared:

Two students (one male and one female) were studying in the classroom before the final exam. It was our regular classroom, but they had arrived early to study together in the empty classroom. He was touching her under the table. She reported as soon as I walked in the room.

Participants also shared disclosures of sexual assault and rape from students. For example, one professor stated, “A male student told me of a friend of who was sexually assaulted at a party and asked for help.” Another professor said, “I have had several students disclose to

me about being sexually assaulted. They were sexually assaulted by people they knew, and some of them reported it to the police.”

One participant recounted a time where the student missed class and then shared that she had been sexually assaulted:

The student missed class and told me that she had been sexually assaulted over the weekend while she was in downtown. I expressed concern and asked her how I could support her. She had already reported and been to her therapist, and I said if she needed anything including referrals to let me know.

Another respondent reflected on a student disclosure of a rape:

The student reported that she was raped by a non-student acquaintance at an off-campus location. After explaining my reporting obligations by virtue of my position, the student declined to provide further information about the incident. The student did take advantage of campus resources such as Counseling Services. I reported the incident to my supervisor who is also our campus Title IX Coordinator. The student declined to pursue a complaint.

Mechanism for disclosure. A few participants described how the students disclosed the assault or unwelcome sexual encounter. Respondents mentioned three venues: written in a class assignment, orally during class, and orally at a conference. For example, one professor said, “The students disclosed as part of an assignment, and as part of the assignment, I told the student their information was confidential.” Whereas, another participant, a Liberal arts male professor, shared that a student disclosed during class, “An undergraduate student did artwork about how his girlfriend was raped, and a student in class started crying and told [another] professor and myself how she had been raped.” One professor shared an encounter where the student disclosed indirectly at a conference held on campus, “In the time where I overheard a situation, we had an on-campus conference, and a student presented a narrative describing their sexual assault. So, I reported that to the Title IX coordinator.” This participant also reported receiving a disclosure in

a class assignment stating, “I also have had students indirectly disclose in reflective assignments, and I have handled it similarly.”

In addition, participant mentioned incidents that were not directly disclosed, but overheard or discussed by a third party. For example, one student affairs professional stated, “A student asked how to help a friend; I didn't have enough information to report.” Another student affairs professional shared, “I was a mandatory reporter at the time, and I would usually hear disclosures about students friends when they were processing to myself or to one of my supervisees who reported it to me.” Whereas, another respondent reflected:

I have never overheard but have received information in the form of friends reaching out for how to help their friend (the victim). In those cases, I have provided them with resources and asked them to encourage their friend to come forward so we can offer support. I don't believe I was ever given the name of the victim in any of these instances.

A participant also shared an experience where they overheard an incident of sexual violence about another student. One student affairs professional reflected, “A student employee in our office was discussing an incident that she had heard about through a friend. I reported the information to the Title IX Coordinator and connected him with the student employee.” A teaching assistant who overheard an incident of sexual violence shared:

I heard a student talking outside of my office about a "shady situation" her friend was in. She was reading her friend's text aloud to someone else, and asking what she thought about the issue. Their conclusion was that "she blacked out" so how could they know what the truth was? They talked briefly about how "shady these basement parties are" and then walked away.

Chapter Summary

The findings of this study revealed that the proportion of participants that identified the encounter as sexual assault did not differ by vignette conditions, and neither did academic staff's intentions. Results for the multiple regression used to test hypothesis three were inconclusive. The significant initial findings showed that high self-efficacy and low acceptance of rape myths

were associated with increased intentions to respond appropriately. However, the final model violated several statistical assumptions and was, therefore, inadequate. Academic staff reported high self-efficacy, lower levels of rape myth acceptance, strong intentions to respond appropriately, and knowledge of available campus resources and policies. Academic staff also reported a lack of support within their workplace related to campus sexual violence; qualitative results support this finding and emphasize the need for training and campus resources for student survivors. Finally, a third of the participants received a student disclosure of sexual violence. Several participants shared details about the type of sexual violence disclosure they received from students, such as disclosures related to non-contact acts of sexual nature, intentional sexual touching, rape, and sexual assault. Respondents also mentioned three venues for disclosure: written in a class assignment, orally during class, and orally at a conference. The next chapter describes the importance and contribution of the findings, limitations, and conclusion.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Any academic staff person within an institution of higher learning could receive a student disclosure of sexual violence and should be prepared to respond appropriately. How an academic staff person responds to a student disclosure of sexual abuse can play a significant role in a survivor's healing and recovery process. The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influenced the academic staff's intention to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence.

A randomly assigned 2x2 vignette survey depicting a hypothetical sexual assault disclosure with alcohol use and resistance strategy was used to assess whether academic staff would identify the encounter as sexual assault and to examine academic staffs' intentions to respond appropriately to a student disclosure. This study also explored academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence, as well as the changes they would like to implement at their college or university to improve the response to campus sexual violence. This study expands scientific understanding of where to focus when developing campus training for academic staff on how to respond to student disclosures of sexual violence appropriately.

First, there were no significant differences in the proportion of academic staff who identified the encounter between Brandon and Nicole as sexual assault by vignette conditions. The majority of the academic staff in this study perceived the hypothetical scenario as sexual assault, despite the presence or absence of alcohol use or the type of resistance strategy used by the victim. Likewise, academic staff in this study reported low levels of attitudes that support

rape myth acceptance. Research in this area shows that individuals who endorse rape myths are less likely to label a scenario as sexual assault (Burt & Albin, 1981; Krahe, 1988; Muehlenhard & MacNaughton, 1988). Thus, these results are not surprising.

A possible explanation for academic staff in this study reporting low levels of rape myth acceptance is that the majority of participants in this study identified as female. Research on rape myth attitudes indicates that women are less accepting of rape myths than men (Anderson, Cooper, & Okamura, 1997; Hammond, Berry, & Rodriguez, 2011; Hayes-Smith & Levett, 2010; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Likely, most participants had high levels of education and knew how rape myths inappropriately trivialize the violence of sexual victimization. It is also possible that in the light of recent media exposure condemning perpetrators of sexual violence, as well as the #MeToo movement aimed at bringing attention to sexual abuse and misconduct, that these results may reflect genuine attitude change. Another explanation is that those who volunteered to respond may have been generally interested in furthering women's rights. Because the majority of educators who volunteered to respond to this survey taught social science, liberal arts, education, and health, future research should focus on including perspectives from faculty in a variety of other fields, including science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Future research should focus on collecting information from multiple colleges and universities across the United States, including historically Black colleges and universities.

However, it is noteworthy that while no significant differences emerged in the proportion of academic staff who identified the encounter between Brandon and Nicole as sexual assault by vignette conditions, at least a portion of academic staff in this study endorsed certain rape myth beliefs related to alcohol and resistance strategies, and this is a concern. One in six academic

staff who received the vignette with the presence of alcohol and no resistance from the victim doubted that the vignette depicted sexual assault, one in ten academic staff who received the vignettes without the presence of alcohol doubted the assault as well.

These particular findings reiterate previous research that shows that aspects of the victim, perpetrator, or characteristics of the assault influence whether an individual perceives an incident of forced intercourse as rape or sexual assault (Kanin, 1984; Martin & Hummer, 1989; Ong & Ward, 1999; Wyer, Bodenhausen, & Gorman, 1985). Some researchers assert that failing to label a rape or sexual assault correctly is a form of victim-blaming (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). It is essential to underscore that the type of victim-blaming more often directed at females is the acceptance of rape myths. Victim-blaming is where individuals find instances within the victims' behavior (i.e., drinking alcohol and not resisting) to hold the victim at least partially responsible for the incident (Schwartz & Leggett, 1999). Additionally, participants are less likely to label hypothetical incidents of forced sexual intercourse as rape or sexual assault if they contain some aspects of normative sexual scripts, such as a victim and perpetrator who are in a romantic relationship (Hannon, Kuntz, Van Laar, Williams, & Hall, 1996; Shotland & Goodstein, 1983).

Second, the academic staff's intention to respond appropriately did not vary by vignette condition. Overall, academic staff in this study reported strong intentions to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence. The most likely response was offering help to access formal support if desired. Although this study did not use the original intention scale to test this hypothesis, it is worth noting that participants were less likely to indicate using negative responses. The only exception to this pattern of avoiding negative responses was the range of answers to the statement, "You need to report what happened to campus police or law enforcement." The responses to this statement may have been influenced by the perceived

importance of assisting the victim with accessing formal supports, such as campus police or law enforcement, as well as changes in social attitudes from silence to accountability. However, previous research suggests that being told to seek formal support compared to being offered help to access formal support, if desired, is less helpful and more harmful to victims (Filipas & Ullman, 2001; Ullman, 2000). Thus, academic staff must understand the importance of giving a student who is seeking support agency and choice in their decision-making process.

Third, the results for the hierarchical multiple regression analysis used to test hypothesis three were inconclusive. The significant initial findings showed that high self-efficacy—that is, confidence in their ability to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence—and low acceptance of rape myths were associated with increased intentions to respond appropriately. However, the final model violated several statistical assumptions and was, therefore, inadequate. Although specific techniques for violating assumptions could have been employed, the results of the assumptions test were likely due to the dependent variable intention and the summation of responses ranging from 0-6. Because the items used for the final form of the intention scale were dichotomized, the dependent variable was ordinal rather than continuous.

Finally, in addition to quantitative findings, this study provides a detailed description of academic staffs' experience with student disclosures of sexual violence. In this study, over two-thirds of academic staff reported receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence, indicating that some students are seeking assistance or support in some capacity from academic staff post sexual victimization. This finding is consistent with current literature on the phenomenon of student-to-academic staff disclosure (Branch et al., 2011; Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Richards et al., 2013). Academic staff in this study received disclosures of sexual violence from students who shared

specific and personal details through multiple avenues (i.e., class assignment, during class, etc.). Moreover, students not only sought support for themselves but also for peers who may have experienced some form of sexual violence. Thus, for training purposes, it is essential to realize that students may view academic staff, or their classes, as a safe space to disclose sexual victimization. And they will seek their support, regardless of instructors' comfort level, expertise, or willingness to provide support. Further research is needed to explore academic staff's experiences and perspectives with receiving student disclosure. Researchers should also explore student's experiences and perspectives with disclosing sexual victimization to academic staff, by interviewing student survivors who have disclosed to academic staff and reported the crime to Title IX.

This study also explored from the perspective of academic staff the changes they would like to see at their college or university to improve response to campus sexual violence. The majority of academic staff in this study suggested that their college or university should implement training on how to respond to a student disclosure of sexual violence. Some academic staff also recommended implementing training that included trauma-informed ways of responding to student disclosures. The trauma-informed approach offers compassionate and sensitive care without judgment, which is critical to ensure the best support for student survivors (American College Health Association, 2018). This finding highlights an opportunity for colleges and universities to garner academic staff support and participation in trauma-informed training and campus programming.

Also, academic staff in this study suggested that their college or university should provide opportunities for training on mandatory reporting and reporting procedures. It is critical that academic staff are not only aware of the responsibilities and procedures to report adequately

and within the legal framework an incident of sexual violence but also to disclose properly to students early whether or not they have the duty to report. Academic staff who do not understand mandatory reporting requirements and reporting procedures risk damaging the relationship with the student and ultimately may lose trust with a student who is seeking support.

Furthermore, numerous respondents emphasized the need for campus resources that support student survivors of sexual violence, such as counseling services and confidential support services. Providing access to these resources is vital for student survivors who choose not to disclose to non-confidential academic staff. Counseling services, in particular, offer a confidential space for student survivors to discuss their experiences with trained professionals. Counseling can be a valuable tool for healing, validating, and empowering student survivors (American College Health Association, 2018). Student survivors who do not have access to confidential resources may stay silent and refrain from seeking the support of any kind. Thus, colleges and universities must offer both counseling services and other confidential support services.

Limitations

This study had some limitations. The vast majority of participants in this study were White and female; thus, the results may not be generalizable to other demographic groups. It would be useful to replicate this study with a larger and more diverse sample of academic staff. The sample may not be representative of all academic staff, as some participants responded to a listserv for professionals in the field of interpersonal and gender-based violence. Others were attending a women's studies conference. This study reported their identification of sexual assault and intention to respond based on a hypothetical disclosure of a sexual assault; participants' responses to a real-life disclosure may be different. However, evaluating responses to real-life

disclosures would require a different methodology, with a stronger emphasis on exploring the context of the situation. Although the survey was anonymous, respondents may have tried to respond in a socially acceptable way.

The scales used in the study had some strengths and limitations. At the time of conducting this study, no scales existed to assess the constructs. The scales were developed for this study and had not been previously evaluated for reliability and validity, except for the rape myth acceptance scale (Payne et al., 1999). The items for each scale was developed by reviewing the literature on student-to-professor disclosures of gender-based violence and social reactions to disclosures. Seven academic staff with expertise in campus sexual violence also reviewed and provided feedback on the scales. All the scales developed for this study—except for the intention scale—showed face and construct validity and high internal consistency, especially the self-efficacy scale and organizational constraints scale. The responses to the intention scale were skewed, and this scale needs further development. Furthermore, scales with four response categories would benefit from adding a midpoint or neutral response option; this improvement elicits maximum levels of discrimination from respondents.

Conclusion

Academic staff must respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence to not only help minimize the impact but also to avoid re-victimizing the student survivor. The goal of this research was to identify factors that impact academic staffs' capacity to respond appropriately to student disclosures of sexual violence. In many ways, those who volunteered to respond to this survey were the ideal educators: confident in the ability to respond, unsupportive of rape myths, and knowledgeable of campus resources and policies. Further, they had strong intentions to respond appropriately. These same educators highlighted the lack of support within

their workplace for responding to campus sexual violence. Thus, institutions of higher learning should engage in efforts to create a campus whereby academic staff and survivors of sexual violence feel supported. Institutions can demonstrate their commitment to creating a supportive environment by implementing a few practical solutions.

First, colleges and universities should provide regular mandatory trauma-informed response training for academic staff. Training should include information on positive responses and warnings of the potential harm of negative responses. Second, colleges and universities should maintain clear policies and reporting procedures for academic staff. Administrators should communicate these policies and procedures to academic staff through regular training. Third, colleges and universities should require that academic staff inform students of their reporting responsibilities. Failing to disclose reporting responsibilities to students can very likely lead to secondary victimization. The first day of classes or student orientation provides a prime opportunity for professors, instructors, and teaching assistants to inform students of their reporting responsibilities. Finally, colleges and universities should offer support resources available to student survivors, including counseling services and other confidential support services. Institutions that are unable to offer these services should provide referrals to providers in the community.

Colleges and universities have the power to create an educated and informed community of academic staff. Preparing academic staff on how to respond appropriately to a student disclosure of sexual violence can improve their self-efficacy, challenge attitudes that may support rape myths, and increase their knowledge of recourses. Moreover, ensuring adequate preparation of academic staff for student disclosures can increase the emotional safety of survivors. The long-term goal of this research is to prevent secondary victimization and to

alleviate negative related consequences of sexual violence. This research will play an essential role in helping to improve the physical wellbeing and psychological functioning of student survivors of sexual violence.

REFERENCES

- Abbey, A., Buck, P. O., Zawacki, T., & Saenz, C. (2003). Alcohol's effects on perceptions of a potential date rape. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 64(5), 669-677.
- Abbey, A., Zawacki, T., Buck, P. O., Testa, M., Parks, K., Norris, J., . . . Martell, J. (2002). How does alcohol contribute to sexual assault? Explanations from laboratory and survey data. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, 26(4), 575-581.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action-control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). New York: Springer.
- Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitudes, personality, and behavior*. Chicago, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (2010). *Predicting and Changing Behavior: The Reasoned Action Approach*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Ali, R. (2011). *Dear colleague letter*. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/letters/colleague-201104.pdf>
- American Association of University Professors. (2012). *Campus sexual assault: Suggested policies and procedures*. Retrieved from [https://www.aaup.org/file/Sexual Assault Policies.pdf](https://www.aaup.org/file/Sexual_Assault_Policies.pdf)
- American Association of University Professors. (2016). *The history, uses, and abuses of Title IX*. Retrieved from <https://www.aaup.org/file/TitleIXreport.pdf>

- American College Health Association. (2018). *Addressing sexual and relationship violence: A trauma-informed approach*. Retrieved from [https://www.acha.org/documents/resources/Addressing Sexual and Relationship Violence A Trauma Informed Approach.pdf](https://www.acha.org/documents/resources/Addressing_Sexual_and_Relationship_Violence_A_Trauma_Informed_Approach.pdf)
- Anderson, K. B., Cooper, H., & Okamura, L. (1997). Individual differences and attitudes toward rape: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23(3), 295-315. doi:10.1177/0146167297233008
- Armstrong, E. A., Hamilton, L., & Sweeney, B. (2006). Sexual assault on campus: A multilevel, integrative approach to party rape. *Social Problems*, 53(4), 483-499. doi:10.1525/sp.2006.53.4.483
- Association of Title IX Administrators. (2015). *Mandatory reporters: A policy for faculty, trustees and professional staff*. Retrieved from https://atixa.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2012/01/Mandatory-Reporters-Policy-Template_1215.pdf
- Bachman, R. (1998). The factors related to rape reporting behavior and arrest: New evidence from the national crime victimization survey. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 25, 8-29. doi:10.1177/0093854898025001002
- Baldwin-White, A., & Elias-Lambert, N. (2016). Rape myth acceptance among social work students. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 25(7), 702-720. doi:10.1080/10926771.2016.1190950
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist*, 44(9), 1175-1184. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.44.9.1175

- Basile, K., & Smith, S. G. (2011). Sexual violence victimization of women: Prevalence, characteristics, and the role of public health and prevention. *American Journal of Lifestyle Medicine*, 5(5), 407-417 doi:10.1177/1559827611409512
- Bogen, K. W., Leach, N. R., Meza Lopez, R. J., & Orchowski, L. M. (2018). Supporting students in responding to disclosure of sexual violence: A systematic review of online university resources. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, 1-18. doi:10.1080/13552600.2018.1509576
- Borja, S. E., Callahan, J. L., & Long, P. J. (2006). Positive and negative adjustment and social support of sexual assault survivors. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 19(6), 905-914. doi:10.1002/jts.20169
- Branch, K. A., Hayes-Smith, R., & Richards, T. N. (2011). Professors' experiences with student disclosures of sexual assault and intimate partner violence: How "helping" students can inform teaching practices. *Feminist Criminology* 6(1), 54-75. doi:10.1177/1557085110397040
- Breiding, M., Basile, K., Smith, S., Black, M., & Mahendra, R. (2015). *Sexual violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements, version 2.0*. Retrieved from https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/sv_surveillance_definitions-2009-a.pdf
- Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and supports for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(2), 217-230. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.38.2.217
- Burt, M. R., & Albin, R. S. (1981). Rape myths, rape definitions, and probability of conviction. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 11(3), 212-230. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1981.tb00739.x

- Busch-Armendariz, N., Sulley, C., & Hill, K. (2016). The blueprint for campus police: Responding to sexual assault. In: Austin, TX: Institute on Domestic Violence & Sexual Assault, The University of Texas at Austin.
- Campbell, R. (2008). The psychological impact of rape victims. *American Psychologist*, 63(8), 702-717. doi:10.1037/0003-066x.63.8.702
- Campbell, R. (2012). The neurobiology of sexual assault: Implications for first responders, law enforcement, prosecutors, and victim advocates. Retrieved from <http://nij.gov/multimedia/presenter/presenter-campbell/pages/presenter-campbell-transcript.aspx>
- Campbell, R., Adams, A. E., Wasco, S. M., Ahrens, C. E., & Sefl, T. (2010). "What has it been like for you to talk with me today?":The impact of participating in interview research on rape survivors. *Violence Against Women*, 16(1), 60-83. doi:10.1177/1077801209353576
- Campbell, R., Dworkin, E., & Cabral, G. (2009). An ecological model of the impact of sexual assault on women's mental health. *Trauma Violence Abuse*, 10(3), 225-246. doi:10.1177/1524838009334456
- Campbell, R., & Sheela, R. (1999). Secondary victimization of rape victims: Insights from mental health professionals who treat survivors of violence. *Violence & Victims*, 14(3), 261.
- Campbell, R., Wasco, S. M., Ahrens, C. E., Sefl, T., & Barnes, H. E. (2001). Preventing the 'second rape': Rape survivors' experiences with community service providers. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 16(12), 1239-1259. doi:10.1177/088626001016012002
- Cantor, D., Fisher, B., Chibnall, S., Townsend, R., Lee, H., Bruce, C., & Thomas, G. (2015). *Report on the AAU campus climate survey on sexual assault and sexual misconduct.*

Retrieved from

[https://www.aau.edu/sites/default/files/%40%20Files/Climate%20Survey/AAU_Campus
_Climate Survey 12 14 15.pdf](https://www.aau.edu/sites/default/files/%40%20Files/Climate%20Survey/AAU_Campus_Climat%20Survey_12_14_15.pdf)

- Carey, K. B., Durney, S. E., Shepardson, R. L., & Carey, M. P. (2015). Incapacitated and forcible rape of college women: prevalence across the first year. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 56*(6), 678-680. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2015.02.018
- Carey, K. B., Durney, S. E., Shepardson, R. L., & Carey, M. P. (2015). Precollege predictors of incapacitated rape among female students in their first year of college. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs, 76*, 829-837.
- Carlson, B. E., McNutt, L.-A., & Choi, D. Y. (2003). Childhood and adult abuse among women in primary health care. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*(8), 924-941.
doi:10.1177/0886260503253882
- Chen, L. P., Murad, M. H., Paras, M. L., Colbenson, K. M., Sattler, A. L., Goranson, E. N., . . . Zirakzadeh, A. (2010). Sexual abuse and lifetime diagnosis of psychiatric disorders: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings, 85*(7), 618-629.
doi:10.4065/mcp.2009.0583
- Childress, S. (2015). Undocumented sexual assault victims face backlash and backlog. Retrieved from <https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/frontline/article/undocumented-sexual-assault-victims-face-backlash-and-backlog/>
- Conley, A. H., Overstreet, C. M., Hawn, S. E., Kendler, K. S., Dick, D. M., & Amstadter, A. B. (2017). Prevalence and predictors of sexual assault among a college sample. *Journal of American College Health, 65*(1), 41-49. doi:10.1080/07448481.2016.1235578

Deamicis, C. (2013). Which matters more: Reporting assault or respecting a victim's wishes? .

Retrieved from <http://www.theatlantic.com/national/archive/2013/05/which-matters-more-reporting-assault-or-respecting-a-victims-wishes/276042/>

DeCou, C. R., Cole, T. T., Lynch, S. M., Wong, M. M., & Matthews, K. C. (2017). Assault-related shame mediates the association between negative social reactions to disclosure of sexual assault and psychological distress. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice and Policy, 9*(2), 166-172. doi:10.1037/tra0000186

Devault, M. L. (1990). Talking and listening from women's standpoint: Feminist strategies for interviewing and analysis. *Social Problems, 37*(1), 96-116. doi:10.2307/800797

Edwards, K. M., Probst, D. R., Tansill, E. C., Dixon, K. J., Bennett, S., & Gidycz, C. A. (2014).

In their own words: A content-analytic study of college women's resistance to sexual assault. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29*(14), 2527-2547.

doi:10.1177/0886260513520470

Edwards, K. M., Sylaska, K. M., Barry, J. E., Moynihan, M. M., Banyard, V. L., Cohn, E. S., . . .

Ward, S. K. (2015). Physical dating violence, sexual violence, and unwanted pursuit victimization: a comparison of incidence rates among sexual-minority and heterosexual college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 30*(4), 580-600.

doi:10.1177/0886260514535260

Edwards, K. M., Turchik, J. T., Dardis, T., Reynolds, N., & Gidycz, C. A. (2011). Rape myths:

History, individual and institutional-level presence, and implications for change. *Sex Roles, 65*, 761-773. doi:10.1007/s11199-011-9943-2

End Rape On Campus. (n.d.). Title IX. Retrieved from <http://endrapeoncampus.org/title-ix/>

- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Filipas, H. H., & Ullman, S. E. (2001). Social reactions to sexual assault victims from various support sources. *Violence and Victims, 16*(6), 673-692.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.
- Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2000). *The sexual victimization of college women*. Retrieved from Washington, DC: <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/182369.pdf>
- Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2002). Being pursued: Stalking victimization in a national study of college women. *Criminology & Public Policy*. doi:10.1111/j.1745-9133.2002.tb00091
- Flack, W. F., Jr., Caron, M. L., Leinen, S. J., Breitenbach, K. G., Barber, A. M., Brown, E. N., . . . Stein, H. C. (2008). "The red zone": Temporal risk for unwanted sex among college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(9), 1177-1196.
doi:10.1177/0886260508314308
- Flaherty, C. (2015). Endangering a trust. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2015/02/04/faculty-members-object-new-policies-making-all-professors-mandatory-reporters-sexual>
- Gidycz, C. A., Orchowski, L. M., King, C. R., & Rich, C. L. (2008). Sexual victimization and health-risk behaviors: A prospective analysis of college women. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(6), 744-763. doi:10.1177/0886260507313944

Giorgis, H. (2015). Many women of color don't go to the police after sexual assault for a reason.

Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2015/mar/25/women-of-color-police-sexual-assault-racist-criminal-justice>

Golding, J. M., Siegel, J. M., Sorenson, S. B., Burnam, M. A., & Stein, J. A. (1989). Social support sources following sexual assault. *Journal of Community Psychology, 17*(1), 92-107. doi:10.1002/1520-6629(198901)

Graham, L. M., Jensen, T. M., Givens, A. D., Bowen, G. L., & Rizo, C. F. (2016). Intimate partner violence among same-sex couples in college: A propensity score analysis. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi:10.1177/0886260516651628

Gray, M. J., Hassija, C. M., & Steinmetz, S. E. (2017). *Sexual assault prevention on college campuses*. New York: Routledge.

Hammond, E. M., Berry, M. A., & Rodriguez, D. N. (2011). The influence of rape myth acceptance, sexual attitudes, and belief in a just world on attributions of responsibility in a date rape scenario. *Legal and Criminological Psychology, 16*(2), 242-252. doi:10.1348/135532510x499887

Hannon, R., Kuntz, T., Van Laar, S., Williams, J., & Hall, D. S. (1996). College students' judgments regarding sexual aggression during a date. *Sex Roles, 35*(11), 765-780. doi:10.1007/BF01544091

Hassija, C. M., & Gray, M. J. (2012). Negative social reactions to assault disclosure as a mediator between self-blame and posttraumatic stress symptoms among survivors of interpersonal assault. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 27*(17), 3425-3441. doi:10.1177/0886260512445379

- Hatch, A. E. (2017). *Campus sexual assault: A reference Handbook*. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO.
- Hayes-Smith, R., & Levett, L. M. (2010). Student perceptions of sexual assault resources and prevalence of rape myth attitudes. *Feminist Criminology*, 5(4), 335-354.
doi:10.1177/1557085110387581
- Hayes-Smith, R., Richards, T. N., & Branch, K. A. (2010). 'But I'm not a counsellor': The nature of role strain experienced by female professors when a student discloses sexual assault and intimate partner violence. *Enhancing Learning in the Social Sciences*, 2(3), 1-24. doi:10.11120/elss.2010.02030006
- Heppner, P. P., Wampold, B. E., Owen, J., Thompson, M. N., & Wang, K. T. (2015). *Research design in counseling* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Holmes, M. M., Resnick, H. S., Kilpatrick, D. G., & Best, C. L. (1996). Rape-related pregnancy: Estimates and descriptive characteristics from a national sample of women. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 175(2), 320-324.
- Institute of Medicine. (2002). *Speaking of health: Assessing health communication strategies for diverse populations*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- Jewkes, R., Sen, P., & Garcia-Moreno, C. (2002). Sexual violence. In E. G. Krug, J. A. Mercy, L. L. Dahlberg, & A. B. Zwi (Eds.), *The world report on violence and health* (Vol. 360, pp. 213–239). Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Jordan, C. E., Combs, J. L., & Smith, G. T. (2014). An exploration of sexual victimization and academic performance among college women. *Trauma Violence Abuse*, 15(3), 191-200.
doi:10.1177/1524838014520637
- Kanin, E. J. (1984). Date rape: Unofficial criminals and victims. *Victimology*, 9(1), 95-108.

- Kaukinen, C. (2014). Dating violence among college students: The risk and protective factors. *Trauma Violence Abuse, 15*(4), 283-296. doi:10.1177/1524838014521321
- Kaura, S. A., & Lohman, B. J. (2007). Dating violence victimization, relationship satisfaction, mental health problems, and acceptability of violence: A comparison of men and women. *Journal of Family Violence, 22*(6), 367-381. doi:10.1007/s10896-007-9092-0
- Khantzian, E. J. (2003). The self-medication hypothesis revisited: The dually diagnosed patient. *Primary Psychiatry, 10*(9), 47-48, 53-54.
- Kilpatrick, D., Resnick, H., Ruggiero, K., Conoscenti, L., & McCauley, J. (2007). *Drug-facilitated, incapacitated, and forcible rape: A national study*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice
- Kimble, M., Neacsiu, A. D., Flack, W. F., Jr., & Horner, J. (2008). Risk of unwanted sex for college women: Evidence for a red zone. *Journal of American College Health 57*(3), 331-338. doi:10.3200/jach.57.3.331-338
- Koss, M. P., Dinero, T. E., Seibel, C. A., & Cox, S. L. (1988). Stranger and acquaintance rape: Are there differences in the victim's experience? *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 12*(1), 1-24. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.1988.tb00924.x
- Koss, M. P., Gidycz, C. A., & Wisniewski, N. (1987). The scope of rape: Incidence and prevalence of sexual aggression and victimization in a national sample of higher education students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55*(2), 162-170.
- Krahé, B. (1988). Victim and observer characteristics as determinants of responsibility attributions to victims of rape. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 18*(1), 50-58. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1988.tb00004.x

- Krebs, C., Lindquist, C., Berzofsky, M., Shook-Sa, B., & Peterson, K. (2016). *Campus climate survey validation study final technical report*. Retrieved from <https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/ccsvsfr.pdf>
- Krebs, C., Lindquist, C., Warner, T., Fisher, B., & Martin, S. (2007). *The campus sexual assault study*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/221153.pdf>
- Krebs, C., Lindquist, C. H., Warner, T. D., Fisher, B. S., & Martin, S. L. (2009). College women's experiences with physically forced, alcohol- or other drug-enabled, and drug-facilitated sexual assault before and since entering college. *Journal of American College Health, 57*(6), 639-647. doi:10.3200/jach.57.6.639-649
- LeCompte, M. D. (2000). Analyzing qualitative data. *Theory Into Practice, 39*(3), 146-154. doi:10.1207/s15430421tip3903_5
- Lisak, D., Gardinier, L., Nicksa, S. C., & Cote, A. M. (2010). False allegations of sexual assault: An analysis of ten years of reported cases. *Violence Against Women, 16*(12), 1318-1334. doi:10.1177/1077801210387747
- Littleton, H. L. (2010). The impact of social support and negative disclosure reactions on sexual assault victims: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation, 11*(2), 210-227. doi:10.1080/15299730903502946
- Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1994). Rape myths: In review. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18*(2), 133-164. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.1994.tb00448.x
- Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1995). Attitudinal antecedents of rape myth acceptance: A theoretical and empirical reexamination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*(4), 704-711. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.68.4.704

- Mancini, C., Pickett, J. T., Call, C., & Roche, S. P. (2016). Mandatory reporting (mr) in higher education: College students' perceptions of laws designed to reduce campus sexual assault. *Criminal Justice Review*, *41*(2), 219-235. doi:10.1177/0734016816634787
- Martin, P. Y., & Hummer, R. A. (1989). Fraternities and rape on campus. *Gender and Society*, *4*(5), 457-473. doi:10.1177/089124389003004004
- Marx, B. P., Forsyth, J. P., Gallup, G. G., Fusé, T., & Lexington, J. M. (2008). Tonic immobility as an evolved predator defense: Implications for sexual assault survivors. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, *15*(1), 74-90. doi:doi:10.1111/j.1468-2850.2008.00112.x
- Maurer, T. W., & Robinson, D. W. (2008). Effects of attire, alcohol, and gender on perceptions of date rape. *Sex Roles*, *58*(5-6), 423-434. doi:10.1007/s11199-007-9343-9
- Maxwell, J. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- McFarlane, J., Malecha, A., Watson, K., Gist, J., Batten, E., Hall, I., & Smith, S. (2005). Intimate partner sexual assault against women: Frequency, health consequences, and treatment outcomes. *Obstetrics & Gynecology*, *105*(1), 99-108. doi:10.1097/01.AOG.0000146641.98665.b6
- Mendenhall, W., & Sinich, T. (2012). *A second course in statistics: Regression analysis* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Prentice Hall.
- Meuleman, B., Loosveldt, G., & Emonds, V. (2015). Regression analysis: Assumptions and diagnostics. In H. Best & C. Wolf (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of regression analysis and causal inference* (pp. 83-110). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Mohler-Kuo, M., Dowdall, G. W., Koss, M. P., & Wechsler, H. (2004). Correlates of rape while intoxicated in a national sample of college women. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 65(1), 37-45.
- Montaño, D. E., & Kasprzyk, D. (2015). Theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and the integrated behavioral model. In K. Glanz, B. K. Rimer, & K. V. Viswanath (Eds.), *Health behavior and health education: Theory, research, and practice* (5th ed., pp. 95-124). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Muehlenhard, C. L., & MacNaughton, J. S. (1988). Women's beliefs about women who "lead men on". *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 7(1), 65-79.
doi:10.1521/jscp.1988.7.1.65
- Nikulina, V., Bautista, A., & Brown, E. J. (2016). Negative responses to disclosure of sexual victimization and victims' symptoms of PTSD and depression: The protective role of ethnic identity. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi:10.1177/0886260516676475
- Ong, A. S. J., & Ward, C. A. (1999). The Effects of Sex and Power Schemas, Attitudes Toward Women, and Victim Resistance on Rape Attributions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(2), 362-376. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb01391.x
- Orchowski, L. M., & Gidycz, C. A. (2015). Psychological consequences associated with positive and negative responses to disclosure of sexual assault among college women: a prospective study. *Violence Against Women*, 21(7), 803-823.
doi:10.1177/1077801215584068
- Orchowski, L. M., Untied, A. S., & Gidycz, C. A. (2013). Social reactions to disclosure of sexual victimization and adjustment among survivors of sexual assault. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 28(10), 2005-2023. doi:10.1177/0886260512471085

- Osman, S. L., & Davis, C. M. (1999). Belief in token resistance and type of resistance as predictors of men's perceptions of date rape. *Journal of Sex Education and Therapy*, 24(3), 189-196. doi:10.1080/01614576.1999.11074300
- Payne, D. L., Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999). Rape Myth Acceptance: Exploration of Its Structure and Its Measurement Using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 33(1), 27-68.
- Petrocelli, J. V. (2003). Hierarchical multiple regression in counseling research: Common problems and possible remedies. *Measurement & Evaluation in Counseling & Development*, 36(1), 9-22.
- Reinharz, S. (1982). *Feminist methods in social research*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Relyea, M., & Ullman, S. E. (2013). Unsupported or turned against: Understanding how two types of negative social reactions to sexual assault relate to postassault outcomes. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 39(1), 37-52. doi:10.1177/0361684313512610
- Richards, T. N., Branch, K. A., & Hayes, R. M. (2013). An exploratory examination of student to professor disclosures of crime victimization. *Violence Against Women*, 19(11), 1408-1422. doi:10.1177/1077801213514861
- Roulston, K. (2010). *Reflective interviewing: A guide to theory and practice*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publication.
- Sable, M. R., Danis, F., Mauzy, D. L., & Gallagher, S. K. (2006). Barriers to reporting sexual assault for women and men: Perspectives of college students. *Journal of American College Health*, 55(3), 157-162.

- Sales, J., & Krause, K. (2017). Schools must include faculty and staff in sexual violence prevention efforts. *Journal of American College Health, 65*(8), 585-587.
doi:10.1080/07448481.2017.1349133
- Sampson, R. (2002). Acquaintance rape of college students. [Non-fiction Electronic document]. *Problem-oriented guides for police series: Guide no. 17*. Retrieved from https://cops.usdoj.gov/html/cd_rom/inaction1/pubs/AcquaintanceRapeCollegeStudents.pdf
- Santaularia, J., Johnson, M., Hart, L., Haskett, L., Welsh, E., & Faseru, B. (2014). Relationships between sexual violence and chronic disease: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health, 14*(1), 1286. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-14-1286.
- Schroeder, L. D., Sjoquist, D. L., & Stephan, P. E. (2016). *Understanding regression analysis: An introductory guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schwartz, M. D., & Leggett, M. S. (1999). Bad dates or emotional trauma?:The aftermath of campus sexual assault. *Violence Against Women, 5*(3), 251-271.
doi:10.1177/10778019922181211
- Shotland, R. L., & Goodstein, L. (1983). Just because she doesn't want to doesn't mean it's rape: An experimentally based causal model of the perception of rape in a dating situation. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 46*(3), 220-232. doi:10.2307/3033793
- Sims, C. M., Noel, N. E., & Maisto, S. A. (2007). Rape blame as a function of alcohol presence and resistance type. *Addictive Behaviors, 32*(12), 2766-2775.
doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2007.04.013

- Sinozich, S., & Langton, L. (2014). *Rape and sexual assault victimization among college-age females, 1995-2013*. Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics
- Smith, S. G., Zhang, X., Basile, K. C., Merrick, M. T., Kresnow, M., & Chen, J. (2018). *The national intimate partner and sexual violence survey (NISVS): 2015 data brief - updated release*. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/ViolencePrevention/pdf/NISVS_Report2010-a.pdf
- Snyder, J. A., Scherer, H. L., & Fisher, B. S. (2018). Interpersonal violence among college students: Does sexual orientation impact risk of victimization? *Journal of School Violence, 17*(1), 1-15. doi:10.1080/15388220.2016.1190934
- Sommers, M. S. (2007). Defining patterns of genital injury from sexual assault: A review. *Trauma Violence Abuse, 8*(3), 270-280. doi:10.1177/1524838007303194
- Straight, E. S., Harper, F. W. K., & Arias, I. (2003). The impact of partner psychological abuse on health behaviors and health status in college women. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*(9), 1035-1054. doi:10.1177/0886260503254512
- Suarez, E., & Gadalla, T. M. (2010). Stop blaming the victim: A meta-analysis on rape myths. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 25*(11), 2010-2035. doi:10.1177/0886260509354503
- Swanson, R. A., & Holton, E. F. (2005). *Research in organizations: Foundations and methods of inquiry*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.
- Triandis, H. C. (1980). Values, attitudes, and interpersonal behavior. *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 27*, 195-259.

- Turchik, J. A., & Hassija, C. M. (2014). Female sexual victimization among college students: Assault severity, health risk behaviors, and sexual functioning. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29*(13), 2439-2457. doi:10.1177/0886260513520230
- U.S. Department of Education. (2014). *Questions and answers on Title IX and sexual violence*. Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/qa-201404-title-ix.pdf>
- Ullman, S. E. (1996). Do social reactions to sexual assault victims vary by support provider? *Violence and Victims, 11*(2), 143-157.
- Ullman, S. E. (1997). Review and critique of empirical studies of rape avoidance. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 24*(2), 177-204. doi:10.1177/0093854897024002003
- Ullman, S. E. (1999). Social support and recovery from sexual assault: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 4*(3), 343-358. doi:10.1016/S1359-1789(98)00006-8
- Ullman, S. E. (2000). Psychometric characteristics of the social reactions questionnaire. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24*(3), 257-271. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2000.tb00208.x
- Ullman, S. E. (2007). A 10-Year Update of "Review and Critique of Empirical Studies of Rape Avoidance". *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 34*(3), 411-429. doi:10.1177/0093854806297117
- Ullman, S. E. (2010). *Talking about sexual assault: Society's response to survivors*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- van der Bruggen, M., & Grubb, A. (2014). A review of the literature relating to rape victim blaming: An analysis of the impact of observer and victim characteristics on attribution of blame in rape cases. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 19*(5), 523-531. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2014.07.008>

- Wampold, B. E., & Freund, R. D. (1987). Use of multiple regression in counseling psychology research: A flexible data-analytic strategy. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34*(4), 372-382. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.34.4.372
- Wyer, R. S., Bodenhausen, G. V., & Gorman, T. F. (1985). Cognitive mediators of reactions to rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48*(2), 324-338. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.48.2.324
- Yuan, N., Koss, M., & Stone, M. (2006). The psychological consequences of sexual trauma. Retrieved from http://www.vawnet.org/applied-research-papers/print-document.php?doc_id=349External
- Zinzow, H. M., Amstadter, A. B., McCauley, J. L., Ruggiero, K. J., Resnick, H. S., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (2011). Self-rated health in relation to rape and mental health disorders in a national sample of college women. *Journal of American College Health, 59*(7), 588-594. doi:10.1080/07448481.2010.520175

APPENDIX A: PHASE 1 INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interviewer's introduction

Hi, my name is Brooke Douglas; I am a doctoral student at the University of Georgia. As part of my research, I am interested in gathering feedback on the content of a hypothetical vignette developed for this study, as well as the survey questions. The scenario described in the vignette depicts an intimate encounter between a college-aged female student and a college-aged male student. The content of the vignette was manipulated to create a set of four vignettes. In each of the vignettes, we manipulated 2 variables with two levels each: resistance strategy (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs “freezing” or being unable to respond) and alcohol use (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use).

Even if you have not received a student disclosure of sexual violence, I am interested in hearing your feedback and your point of view on the topic. If some of these topics become difficult to talk about, we can stop the interview at any time, or move on to a different question.

Vignette Questions

- How realistic is this situation?
- Does the scenario create some level of uncertainty?
- What would you add or change?
- Do you have any other comments or thoughts that you would like to share about any of your experiences with students disclosing sexual violence?

Survey Questions

- Do these questions measure the constructs correctly?
- What would you add or change?

Closing Remarks

Thank you so much for doing this interview. If I have any more questions, would it be alright to contact you? Please don't hesitate to contact me if you have any questions.

APPENDIX B: PHASE 1 INTERVIEW CONSENT

Responses of Academic Staff to Sexual Violence Disclosure

The goal of this study is to identify factors that influence academic staffs' responses to student disclosures of sexual violence. Results generated from this research study will be used to inform campus training and programming for academic staff. In the first phase of this research, we are interested in your feedback on the content of a hypothetical vignette developed for this study and the survey questions.

If you are a professor (any rank), instructor, teaching assistant, resident assistant or student affairs professional working in the United States, we invite you to participate in this first phase of this research study. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to participate in an interview (approximately 45 minutes) to provide expert feedback on the vignette and the survey. The interview will not be recorded; the interviewer will take note of your feedback.

There are no risks associated with the interview. At any point, you may refuse to participate, skip any questions, or withdraw from the study. Your participation is voluntary. No personal information will be recorded, other than your academic position at the university and number of years of experience. No personal information will be ever linked to any report or publication.

This study is conducted by Brooke Douglas, MPH (678-xxx-xxxx) brooke.douglas25@uga.edu) under the direction of Pamela Orpinas, PhD (porpinas@uga.edu) at the Department of Health Promotion and Behavior, University of Georgia. Please contact them if you have any questions. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to the Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia: Phone 706-xxx-xxxx, Email IRB@uga.edu.

By signing this form, I acknowledge that:

- I am a professor, instructor, teaching assistant, resident assistant, or student affairs professional working in the United States.
- I have read the above information, and I agree to participate in this interview.
- I have received a copy of this consent form.

Participant signature _____ Date _____
Researcher signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX C: RECRUITMENT MATERIALS

Listservs:

Please help us understand how academic staff respond to student disclosures of sexual violence.

If you are a professor, instructor, teaching assistant, resident assistant, or student affairs professional working in the United States, Brooke Douglas (from the University of Georgia) invites you to participate in a research study titled “*Responses of Academic Staff to Sexual Violence Disclosure*.” The goal of the study is to identify factors that influence academic staffs’ responses to student disclosures of sexual violence.

Even if you have not received a student disclosure of sexual violence, you are still eligible to participate.

What will I do? You will complete a survey that takes about 15-20 minutes. Your participation is voluntary; you can stop or skip questions at any time. No names or any identifying information is asked.

Ready to take the survey? You can take the survey online at: <Will link to consent form>

Your participation is really important. The information that you give will be used to inform campus training and programming for academic staff.

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!

Email:

My name is Brooke Douglas, a doctoral student at University of Georgia. I am currently working on my dissertation and beginning data collection. The goal of the study is to identify factors that influence academic staffs’ responses to student disclosures of sexual violence. In this email is the link to a survey that I am using for data collection. The only information that I receive is the survey results; I cannot see who completed the survey or any identifying information. The survey should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete. If you could complete the survey, I would greatly appreciate it! Please do not hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns. I really appreciate you taking the time to complete this survey and being a part of my dissertation research!

Survey Link to Survey for Academic Staff: <Will link to consent form>

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!

APPENDIX D: PHASE 2 SURVEY CONSENT FORM

Responses of Academic Staff to Sexual Violence Disclosure

The goal of the study is to identify factors that influence academic staffs' responses to student disclosures of sexual violence. Results generated from this research study will be used to inform campus training and programming for academic staff.

Who should complete the survey? If you are a professor (any rank), instructor, teaching assistant, resident assistant, or student affairs professional working in the United States, we invite you to participate in this research study. Even if you have not received a student disclosure of sexual violence, you are still eligible to participate.

What will I do? You will complete an online survey (15 to 20 minutes). The survey contains questions on what you think about the topic, how you have handled a disclosure (if any), and what you would do based on a hypothetical scenario depicting an intimate encounter between a female and a male student. The survey also contains three questions on sexual harassment.

Are there any risks? Some people may experience discomfort with the topic. Remember that you can refuse to participate, skip any questions, or finish the survey at any time; your participation is voluntary. Because you are completing the survey online, there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed due to the technology itself, and some people may feel embarrassed if there were a breach of confidentiality. To minimize this problem, please complete the survey on your personal computer. You will not need to disclose any identifying information. In open-ended questions, do not disclose information that could identify you, other persons, or your workplace.

Who should I ask if I have questions? Please contact Brooke Douglas, MPH (706-xxx-xxxx); brooke.douglas25@uga.edu) or Pamela Orpinas, PhD (porpinas@uga.edu) at the Department of Health Promotion and Behavior, University of Georgia. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to the Chairperson, Institutional Review Board, University of Georgia: Phone 706-xxx-xxxx, Email IRB@uga.edu.

By clicking the SUBMIT button, I acknowledge that:

- I am a professor, instructor, teaching assistant, resident assistant, or student affairs professional working in the United States.
- I have read the above information, and I agree to participate in this survey.
- I can print a copy of this consent form.

- SUBMIT (You will start the survey)
- DO NOT SUBMIT (This will end the survey)

APPENDIX E: MEASUREMENT MANUAL

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Prompt: The following questions ask about you and your work.

1. What is your current primary role or position? (Professor, Instructor, Teaching Assistant, Student Affairs Professional, Academic Advisor, Resident Assistance, Other)
2. How many years have you been in this position? (2 years or less, 3-5 years, 5-10 years, 11 years or more)
3. Years of working with or teaching students? (2 years or less, 3-5 years, 5-10 years, 11 years or more)
4. What is your teaching area? (Business/law, Math/sciences, Sports/recreation, Education, Liberal arts, Health/nutrition, Social sciences, I do not teach)
 - a. Define your type of contact to students. (Advisement, Student affairs, Other)
5. Type of student you primarily interact with: (Undergraduate, Graduate, Professional)
6. Type of academic institution: (Community, Public university, Private university)
7. What region of the country do you currently work in? (South, Northeast, Midwest, West)
8. What is your gender identity? (Female, Male, Transgender man, Transgender woman, Gender Queer/Gender Non-Conforming)
9. What is your age? (18-24 years old, 25-34 years old, 35-44 years old, 45-54 years old, 55-64 years old, 65-74 years old, 75 years or older)
10. What is your race/ethnicity? (Latinx, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian Indian, Other Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other, Pacific Islander, White, some other race: select all that apply)

KNOWLEDGE OF CAMPUS POLICIES AND RESOURCES

Response categories: *Yes* (1), *No* (0), *Unsure* (2); *Not familiar at all* (1), *Slightly familiar* (2), *Moderately familiar* (3), *Very familiar* (4), *Extremely familiar* (5)

Prompt: The following questions ask about what you know about your university policy on sexual violence and campus resources for victims and survivors of sexual violence.

1. Does your university have a policy on dealing with sexual violence? (*Yes, No, Unsure*)
 - a. [If responded yes] How familiar are you with this policy? (*Not familiar at all, Slightly familiar, Moderately familiar, Very familiar, Extremely familiar*)
2. Are you a mandated reporter of an incident of sexual violence? (*Yes, No, Unsure*)
3. Do you know where to report an incident of sexual violence? (*Yes, No, Unsure*)
 - a. If yes, where would you report? Select any or all apply.
 - Campus law enforcement
 - Local police
 - Title IX

- Other
- 4. How familiar are you with Title IX? (*Not familiar at all, Slightly familiar, Moderately familiar, Very familiar, Extremely familiar*)
- 5. Do you know what student rights Title IX protects? (*Yes, No, Unsure*)
- 6. Does your university have campus resources available to assist students who experience sexual violence? (*Yes, No, Unsure*)
 - a. [If responded yes] Select any or all that apply:
 - Victim advocacy
 - Campus law enforcement
 - Title IX coordinator
 - Police investigation
 - Conduct investigation
 - Medical clinic
 - Counseling center
 - Other
 - b. How familiar are you with these campus resources? (*Not familiar at all, Slightly familiar, Moderately familiar, Very familiar, Extremely familiar*)

ORGANIZATIONAL CONSTRAINTS (UNSUPPORTIVE WORKPLACE)

Response categories: *Not at all true (1), A little true (2), Pretty much true (3), Very much true (4), Unsure (5)*

Prompt: The following questions ask about your work environment. We use the term *organizational unit* to refer to where your appointment is housed (e.g., academic department, clinic, human resources, etc.). Select the answer that best describes how you feel about each statement.

1. There is an open dialogue in my organizational unit about the possibility of faculty and staff receiving a student disclosure of sexual violence.
2. My organizational unit has a specific protocol for responding to student disclosure of sexual violence.
3. My organizational unit has provided trauma-informed training on how to respond to student disclosures of sexual violence.
4. Addressing campus sexual violence is a priority for my organizational unit.
5. Supporting students who are victims or survivors of sexual violence is a large priority for my organizational unit.
6. My organizational unit has created a normative environment that does not tolerate sexual violence.

Open-ended Question

7. What would you like to see as far changes in the workplace?

PERSONAL AGENCY (SELF-EFFICACY)

Response categories: *Not at all true (1), A little true (2), Pretty much true (3), Very much true (4)*

Prompt: The following questions ask about your personal confidence in responding to a student disclosure. Select the answer that best describes how you feel about each statement.

1. I am confident in my ability to guide a student through the disclosure process.
2. I am confident in my ability to provide emotional support to students who have experienced sexual violence.
3. I am confident in my ability to avoid re-traumatizing students who have experienced sexual violence (*Re-traumatizing occurs when a situation or interaction replicates events of prior trauma, triggering feelings associated with the original trauma.*)
4. I am confident in my ability to provide victims and survivors appropriate campus and community resources.
5. I am confident in my ability to appropriately report an incident of campus sexual violence.

VIGNETTE

Note: The content of the vignette was manipulated to create a set of four vignettes. In each of the vignettes, we manipulated 2 variables with two levels each: resistance strategy (verbal or physical resistance strategy vs “freezing” or being unable to respond) and alcohol use (excessive alcohol use vs no alcohol use).

Prompt: Please read the following vignette and respond to survey questions based on the situation described in the vignette.

Nicole, a student you are familiar with, sends you an email to schedule a time to meet with you to share something that has been bothering her. Nicole discloses the following:

Last weekend, Nicole attended an off-campus party with her friend Brandon who she recently started dating. Nicole spent the entire night [*dancing with Brandon at the party/playing drinking games with Brandon and friends at the party*]. Toward the end the night, Nicole became tired and was ready to leave the party. Brandon asked Nicole if she would stay over with him at his apartment. Nicole agreed.

Once they arrived at Brandon’s apartment, they began to kiss. Brandon is assertive, and he starts to remove Nicole’s clothing. Nicole tries to explain to Brandon that she doesn’t want to have sex at this stage of their relationship and that she is tired and ready to go sleep, but Brandon persists. Nicole expresses concern, but Brandon tells her it’s not a big deal and that it will be okay. *Nicole insists and tells him she doesn’t want to have sex tonight and tries to push him away/Nicole stops responding*]. As Brandon initiates sex, Nicole begins to cry but embraces Brandon.

In the weeks after, Brandon sent Nicole several text messages asking to meet. She deleted them without responding. Nicole is having difficulty processing what happened that night.

Open-Ended Questions

1. What might you say to Nicole?
2. What would you avoid saying to Nicole?

INTENTION

Response categories: *Not likely* (1), *A little likely* (2), *Pretty likely* (3), *Very likely* (4)

Prompt: The following statements are possible responses to Nicole’s disclosure. Please specify how likely you would use each response (or a similar response).

1. I believe you. I believe that your experience happened as you say it did.
2. I’m not sure what to say or how to help you.
3. I am so sorry.
4. Don’t worry; it happens to a lot of young women.
5. I think he is just in love; he wants to see you again.
6. You need to report what happened to campus police or law enforcement.
7. I support you and whatever decisions you make moving forward.
8. Tell me about how much alcohol you consumed that night
9. Thank you for trusting me and sharing this with me.
10. Most likely it was just a miscommunication.
11. Explain to me why you didn’t fight Brandon off.
12. What happened was not your fault. You are not to blame.
13. Try your best not to think about what happened so that you can move on with your life.
14. If you are interested, I can share with you information about campus and community resources that can help you through this process.
15. I would like to understand why didn’t you leave Brandon’s apartment.

LEVEL OF CERTAINTY

Response categories: *Yes* (1), *No* (0), *Unsure* (2)

1. Did Brandon sexually assault Nicole? (*Sexual assault* is defined as a sexual act that is committed or attempted by another person without freely given consent of the victim or against someone who is unable to consent or refuse.)
2. How certain are you of your response? (Responses range from completely certain to not at all certain, in a sliding scale from 0% to 100%.)

ATTITUDES (RAPE MYTH ACCEPTANCE)

Response categories: *Strongly disagree* (1), *Disagree* (2), *Neither agree nor disagree* (3), *Agree* (4), *Strongly agree* (5)

Prompt: Please select the answer that best describes how you feel about each statement. We used the terms *girl* and *guy* to refer to a person 18 years of age or older.

1. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.
2. When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.
3. If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.
4. If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
5. When girls get raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was unclear.
6. If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.
7. When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.
8. Guys don’t usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
9. Rape happens when a guy’s sex drive goes out of control.
10. If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.

11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.
12. If both people are drunk, it can't be rape.
13. If a girl doesn't physically resist sex—even if protesting verbally—it can't be considered rape.
14. If a girl doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.
15. A rape probably doesn't happen if a girl doesn't have any bruises or marks.
16. If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.
17. If a girl doesn't say "no" she can't claim rape.
18. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.
19. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.
20. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.
21. A lot of times, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.
22. Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.

STUDENT DISCLOSURE

Response categories: (*Yes, No*)

Prompt: The following questions ask you about your experience with receiving a disclosure of sexual violence.

1. Have you ever received a student disclosure of sexual violence? Yes, no
 - a. If yes, did you report the incident?
 - b. Who did you report to?
2. Have you ever overheard or received information about a student and an incident of sexual violence? (If *no*, the survey will skip to the next question on sexual harassment.)
 - a. If yes, did you report the incident?
 - b. Who did you report to?
3. [If responded yes to any of the two questions] Could you describe the situation(s)?

OPEN-ENDED