"A FEW TIMES I HAVE KNOCKED ON DOORS AT PARTIES...": PEERS AS BYSTANDERS IN

PREVENTING AND RESPONDING TO DATING VIOLENCE AND

SEXUAL VIOLENCE ON A COLLEGE CAMPUS

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To Dorie, Katie, Annie and Maggie.

"Promise me you'll always remember: you're braver than you believe, and stronger than you seem, and smarter than you think."

-Christopher Robin to Pooh

To Grandma Dorothy.

Thank you for inspiring and encouraging me to be writer. Thank you for teaching me that "it's ok to fall, just so you bounce."

To my partner, Sarah.

You are the most brilliant and beautiful person I know. Thank you for your unwavering support and, of course, for the pivotal road trip conversation that inspired the focus of this dissertation.

"A FEW TIMES I HAVE KNOCKED ON DOORS AT PARTIES..."

PEERS AS BYSTANDERS IN PREVENTING AND RESPONDING TO DATING

VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL ASSAULT ON A COLLEGE CAMPUS

BY

Jane E. Palmer

Routine activities theory posits that for a crime to occur, there needs to be the convergence of a willing offender, a suitable target and the lack of a capable guardian (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Since the passage of the Clery Act, colleges and universities have primarily focused on how to make offenders less "willing" or targets less "suitable" (Potter, Krider & McMahon, 2000), while ignoring the third of these converging factors: increasing guardianship. Recent research indicates that increasing the capable guardianship of fellow students through bystander intervention education may be a promising way to utilize informal social control to prevent crimes against women on campus (Banyard, 2008; Coker et al., 2011).

This study reports on the findings of a mixed-methods cross-sectional survey conducted by the author in spring, 2011. A random sample of undergraduate students enrolled in a small private university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States was invited to complete an Internet-administered survey. The survey included both closed-ended and open-ended questions. A response rate of 56% was achieved. Structural equation modeling was used to answer the first research question, "What predicts whether a bystander will intervene?" Bivariate probit regression was used to answer the second research question, "Are the correlates of intervening in dating violence situations different from those associated with intervening in sexual violence situations?" The third research question, "What actions do respondents report undertaking and which actions do they believe are most successful or least successful?" was answered based on a content analysis of responses to three open-ended questions.

The findings of this study demonstrate that there are different factors that predict whether a bystander will intervene based on the timing of an intervention (proactive vs. reactive), the type of situation (violence-related or alcohol-related) and the type of crime (intimate partner violence vs. non-intimate partner sexual violence). In addition, there is a spectrum of beliefs about what strategies are successful to prevent sexual and intimate partner violence ranging from individualism (personal responsibility and avoidance), to interpersonal responsibility (one-onone communication; buddy system at parties), to community-wide responsibility (i.e., education, advocacy and activism). Finally, the results from the quantitative measure of rape myths acceptance were contradicted by the responses to the open-ended questions. Implications for future research, policy and practice are discussed.

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"In the end we will remember not the words of our enemies, but the silence of our friends." –Martin Luther King, Jr.

"We must not, in trying to think about how we can make a big difference, ignore the small daily differences we can make which, over time, add up to big differences that we often cannot foresee." -Marian Wright Edleman

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades, there has been a steady focus on the research of and policy response to victimization of women on college campuses¹ (Koss, Gidycz & Wisniewski, 1987; Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000; Fisher & Sloan, 2007; Fisher, Daigle & Cullen, 2010). The first national study, conducted in the mid-1980s, found that college women experienced sexual victimization² at a rate of 38 per 1,000 during a six-month period (Koss et al., 1987). The results of a second national study, conducted a decade later, estimated that between 20 – 25% of female students would experience sexual victimization during their college career (Fisher et al., 2000). Despite the Crime Awareness and Campus Security Act of 1990 (now known as the Clery Act), federal legislation that requires college campuses to implement policies and procedures to prevent and respond to crimes (Carter & Bath, 2007), sexual and dating violence³ among college-aged young people persists (O'Leary, Woodin & Fritz, 2006; Banyard, Moynihan & Plante, 2007). By focusing on the role of informal social control in the prevention and response to sexual and dating violence on campus, the current study seeks to provide a new direction for colleges seeking to prevent and respond to dating violence and sexual assault.

The risk of victimization in college is a social cost that has long-term consequences for female students and the institutions where they are enrolled (Fisher et al., 2010; Karjane, Fisher & Cullen, 2002). For students, sexual assault or dating violence may affect victims' academic

¹ Although victimization does occur against female students enrolled in commuter campus universities and much of this research applies to commuter college settings, the focus of the current study is residential campus universities.

² In Koss et al.'s (1987) study, sexual victimization is limited to "actual or attempted vaginal sexual intercourse through force or threat of harm" (p.168).

³ Intimate partner violence is a pattern of controlling, abusive or violent behaviors directed at an intimate partner. Sexual violence is forcing someone to engage in a sexual act against his or her will. Please refer to Appendix A for more comprehensive definitions. The terms dating violence and intimate partner violence or abuse are used interchangeably throughout this dissertation. Sexual assault and sexual violence are also used interchangeably.

outcomes, graduation rates and mental health (Bachar & Koss, 2001; Campbell, 2008). This type of trauma may also have ripple effects by affecting those close to the victim or offender and, more generally, the university community (Langford, 2004). For institutions, a publicized rape or violent incident may affect retention of current students, enrollment of new students and even endowments or donations by alumni (Langford, 2004).

Higher educational institutions have not sat idly by while victimization persists (Karjane et al., 2002; Potter et al., 2000). The Clery Act requires all postsecondary institutions that participate in federal financial aid programs to implement victim-centered policies and programs about the prevention of and the response to sexual assault on campus (Carter & Bath, 2007). Although Karjane et al.'s (2002) National Baseline Investigation of Campus Sexual Assault Policies study found that less than half of institutions surveyed provided sexual assault awareness education or acquaintance rape prevention education programming, they also found that 82% of four-year public and 70% of four-year private nonprofit institutions had implemented sexual assault policies. At these institutions, if a student is found responsible for violating the sexual assault policy, the most common punishments were expulsion or suspension (Karjane et al., 2002).

However, higher educational institutions have been criticized for failing to protect female students (Schmid, 2003; Lipka, 2011; Lombardi, 2010; Shapiro, 2010). A reason for the perceived ineffectiveness may be that an important component of crime prevention, informal social control, has been overlooked. Routine activities theory posits that for a crime to occur, there needs to be the convergence of a willing offender, a suitable target and the lack of a capable guardian (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Since the passage of the Clery Act, colleges and universities have primarily focused on how to make offenders less "willing" or targets less

"suitable" (Potter et al., 2000), while ignoring the third of these converging factors: increasing guardianship.

There are three ways to increase guardianship to prevent or deter crime: (1) formal social control, (2) target hardening and (3) informal social control (Bennett, 1991). To date, campus administrators have primarily relied on formal social control (e.g., implementing policies that include sanctions such as suspension or expulsion of a student who has been found to violate the sexual misconduct policy) or target hardening strategies (e.g., installing better lighting on campus, blue light emergency phones or "key card access" to dorms) (Karjane et al., 2002; Potter et al., 2000). Little is known about the effect of these efforts on student victimization⁴ (Fisher, 1995; Lonsway et al., 2009). Regardless, these strategies alone may be insufficient to combat victimization on college campuses. Formal social control strategies can only be implemented if the crime is reported. In two separate national studies of college women, fewer than 5% of victims reported being sexually assaulted (Koss et al., 1987; Fisher et al., 2000). Target hardening strategies are primarily intended to prevent crimes that are perpetrated by strangers (e.g., the stranger that jumps out of the bushes to rape a female student on her way home from a night class). Nine out of ten victims know the person who sexually assaulted them (Fisher et al., 2000). That is, perpetrators tend to be fellow students – who are likely to have the same "key card access" to dorms as the victim.

Many college campuses supplement these strategies by offering sexual and dating violence prevention programs⁵ (Cornelius & Resseguie, 2007; Lonsway et al., 2009; Karjane et al., 2002; Schwartz, Griffin, Russell & Frontaura-Duck, 2006). Many of these programs tend to

⁴ There is some evidence that these sorts of efforts have little effect on fear or perceived risk of crime on college campuses (Sloan, Fisher and Wilkins, 1996).

⁵ The Clery Act requires colleges and universities to implement sexual assault prevention and education programming. No such mandate exists for dating violence prevention programming.

be targeted to specific subgroups that are perceived to be high-risk while others are targeted at the general population of students (Lonsway et al., 2009; Schwartz et al., 2006). Some programs have shown promise but it is still unclear whether they are effective (Lonsway et al., 2009; Ullman, 2002). Many existing rape prevention education programs are criticized for explicitly or implicitly treating all men as potential offenders and all women as potential victims (or blaming victims), which can cause defensiveness among participants and may be counterproductive (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2004; Schewe, 2002).

The third source of guardianship, informal social control by peers, has been largely overlooked until recently. Since campus administrators, public safety officers or other college staff are rarely present before or during an incident of violence, they do not find out about these incidents until after they occur – and only if the incident is reported. Although fewer than 5% of rape victims in Fisher et al.'s (2000) study reported the incident to law enforcement or institutional officials, 70% of victims told someone other than law enforcement, such as a friend or family member (Fisher et al., 2000). This finding suggests that increasing the capable guardianship of fellow students through bystander intervention education may be a promising way to utilize informal social control to prevent crimes against women on campus.

Latané and Darley's (1970) model of bystander intervention outlines that an individual cannot intervene until she or he is aware of the event, identifies that the event is an emergency requiring an intervention and decides to take responsibility by intervening. Most early research on bystander intervention, however, was conducted to test whether bystanders who were complete strangers might intervene during an incident (such as coming upon a person having an epileptic seizure or witnessing a robbery) (e.g., Latané & Darley, 1970). Due to the overemphasis of this research on emergency situations and simple crimes among strangers, we

do not have sufficient information about whether their findings hold in situations of dating or sexual violence (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Powell, 2011). Intimate violence, such as sexual violence or dating violence, rarely happens in public or in front of strangers. Since fellow students are often present before an incident of intimate violence takes place, may be aware of an incident while it is taking place and are more likely than campus administrators to know about an incident after it takes place (Burn, 2009; Walsh, Banyard, Moynihan, Ward & Cohn, 2010), bystanders on college campuses may play a crucial role in preventing or responding to these crimes.

Therefore, researchers and practitioners have increasingly focused on bystander intervention in the context of sexual and dating violence on college campuses (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Coker et al., 2011; McMahon, Postmus & Koenick, 2011). However, there are still major gaps in this literature that the current study will address (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). First, the literature has not fully addressed the range of points for intervention (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). In order to intervene, bystanders need to know how to intervene and they need to know when to intervene (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). The literature in the public health field on the prevention of violence delineates three forms of prevention: primary (before an incident), secondary (during an incident) and tertiary (after an incident) (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002). To date, research has not focused on these separate opportunities to intervene. Much of the bystander intervention research has concentrated on what a bystander could or should do during an incident (Powell, 2011). As important, however, are the actions a bystander takes before or after an incident (McMahon & Banyard, 2012; Powell, 2011; Ullman, 2010). There is a lack of acknowledgment of the types of intervention bystanders undertake (i.e., reactive or proactive) (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Much of the literature on bystander

behaviors focuses on the role of reactive interventions *during* an incident. However, reactive interventions in the days, weeks or months *after* an incident may be necessary, especially if no one was present or intervened during an incident. Proactive interventions, such as attending a sexual assault awareness event on campus or joining a committee to change college policies, can also affect the prevalence of dating and sexual violence. Yet, little research has examined proactive versus reactive interventions in bystander behavior on college campuses.

Second, much of the college bystander intervention research has focused on sexual violence alone (e.g., Banyard et al., 2007a; Exner & Cummings, 2011) or treated sexual and dating violence as requiring the same interventions (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). Although these are both violent crimes against women, they have different attributes that may require different interventions. Non-intimate partner sexual violence can be a one-time occurrence whereas intimate partner violence is an ongoing pattern of behaviors, many of which are concerning but not illegal⁶ (McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

Third, qualitative methods have not been used extensively in existing studies on bystander intervention on college campuses. The students in the current study are a "source of knowledge" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). Therefore, it may be beneficial for other students, researchers, practitioners and policymakers to hear from college students about their subjective experiences and what strategies they think are most successful or least successful to prevent dating and sexual violence.

Therefore, the current study seeks to fill important gaps in the bystander literature (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Instead of solely focusing on how a bystander may intervene during an incident, this research focuses on the timing of the intervention (proactive or reactive)

⁶ Please see p.1-2 of Appendix A for definitions of sexual and dating violence.

and role of the bystander in relationship to the type of crime (intimate partner violence vs. nonintimate partner sexual violence). In addition, the qualitative component of the current study presents a range of interventions that the college students in the sample perceive to be successful and unsuccessful strategies to prevent sexual and dating violence. These areas of bystander intervention in intimate violence on college campuses are understudied and warrant serious attention.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study draws upon literature from several disciplines: criminology, sociology, social psychology, public health, social work and women/gender studies. This interdisciplinary focus is essential to advance our understanding of how to prevent and better respond to crimes against women (Lonsway et al., 2009; Powell, 2011). Section 1 of this chapter lays the foundation for the current study by presenting what is known about victimization of women on college campuses, followed by a presentation of the theoretical frameworks for the current study and the relevant research related to bystander intervention. Section 2 reviews the literature on factors associated with intervening as a bystander in dating or sexual violence on college campuses. Section 3 reviews the literature on timing and types of interventions bystanders choose.

Section 1

Empirical and Theoretical Background

Violence Against Women on College Campuses

The idyllic settings of college campuses in the United States would seem to be the opposite of where one might think violence against women takes place. A look at official statistics might also raise doubts that violence against women is a serious problem among undergraduate students. For example, according to data reported per the requirements of the Clery Act by all four-year colleges and universities, the annual average number of forcible rape offenses per campus was 0.76 in 2007, 0.68 in 2008 and 0.65 in 2009 (US Department of Education, 2007; 2008; 2009). Similarly, in the FBI's Uniform Crime Report (UCR) system, the annual average number of forcible rape offenses reported to college and university law

enforcement was 0.88 in 2007, 0.92 in 2008, 0.81 in 2009⁷ (US Department of Justice, 2007; 2008; 2009). That is, according to these data sources, there was an average of less than one rape per college reported to administration or law enforcement.⁸

However, victimization is systematically underreported in official statistics (Fisher, Hartman, Cullen & Turner, 2002; Stanko, 1988), and evidence suggests that this is particularly true for college women. Although it is estimated that approximately one-third⁹ of rapes in the United States are reported to the police (Rennison, 2002), two separate national surveys of college women found that fewer than 5% of rape victims reported the incidents to law enforcement (Koss et al., 1987; Fisher et al., 2000). Women are often reluctant to report sexual or dating violence to authorities out of fear of reprisal (by the offender or other community members), uncertainty that what occurred was a crime that would be taken seriously by authorities, self-blame, shame, embarrassment or stigma (Felson & Paré, 2005; Fisher et al., 2010).

Recognizing the limitations of official data, researchers utilize self-report victimization surveys to provide a different means of estimating the incidence, prevalence and nature of violence against college women (Fisher et al., 2010). A review of the literature on violence against college women finds that this is not a new topic of consideration. One study, conducted in the 1950s, found that 6.2% of female students reported that in one academic year they had

⁷ Clery and UCR statistics are included in this section for illustrative purposes. However, these data sources have serious limitations and should not necessarily be compared. The definition of forcible rape differs for each of these sources (i.e., the allowable definition for the UCR is more limited than it is for Clery) and while Clery reporting is required, reporting into the UCR system is voluntary. There were 3,678 higher educational institutions in the US Department of Education data and only an average of 566 law enforcement agencies reporting to the UCR system.

⁸ However, the range for Clery-reported sex offenses for all reporting institutions was 0 - 65 in 2007, 0 - 45 in 2008 and 0 - 21 in 2009.

⁹ This statistic is from an analysis of data from the National Crime Victimization Survey from 1992 – 2000. Rennison (2002) reports that 36% of completed rapes, 34% of attempted rapes and 26% of sexual assaults were reported to the police. The NCVS is criticized for underestimating rape so one might assume that the underreporting of rape is even lower than what is reported here (Clay-Warner and Burt, 2005; Fisher et al., 2010).

experienced "aggressively forceful attempts at sex intercourse in the course of which menacing threats or coercive infliction of physical pain were employed" and 20.9% experienced "forceful attempts at intercourse" (Kirkpatrick & Kanin, 1957, p.53). More recently, Koss et al. (1987) found that 27.5% of college women reported that they had been raped since the age of 14, and Fisher et al. (2000) found that over the course of a college career between one-fifth and one-quarter of female students experience an attempted or completed rape. Compared to adult women in the general population, Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti and McCauley (2007) found that college women are 3.4 times more likely to be raped and 8.5 times more likely to experience drug-facilitated or incapacitated rape.

Single-site victimization studies on college campuses have found that from 19 to 30% of female students report being victims of sexual assault¹⁰ (Banyard et al., 2007b; Brener, McMahon, Warren & Douglas, 1999; Crawford, Wright & Birchmeier, 2008; DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher & Martin, 2007; Marx, Calhoun, Wilson & Meyerson, 2001; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Three studies with nationally representative samples of college women have been conducted over the past three decades. The first was in the 1980s (see Koss et al., 1987), the second was in the 1990s (see Fisher et al., 2000) and the third was in the 2000s (see Kilpatrick et al., 2007). Each study found that 3 to 5% of college women are raped during an academic year. This "stable" estimate is not as stable as it seems, because the number of women attending college has consistently increased over the past four decades (Fisher, 2012; Schmidt, 2010).¹¹

¹⁰ Sexual assault and sexual violence are terms used to encompass all forms of unwanted sexual activity not limited to those that would be legally defined as rape. Koss et al. (1987) and Fisher et al. (2000) reported unwanted sexual activities that would legally be defined as rape while other studies used broader definitions of unwanted sexual activities when reporting their results (therefore the term used here is sexual assault not rape).

¹¹ According to Poe (2004), women's enrollment increased by 136% from 1970 to 2000.

The available studies on dating violence among college students identify that college students are also at high risk of experiencing this form of victimization. A recent survey found that 22% of college women experienced dating violence (including physical violence, sexual violence or threats of violence) (Knowledge Networks, 2011). Other studies estimate the rate of dating violence against college women to be from 20 to 50% (Arias, Samois & O'Leary, 1987; Jackson, 1999; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001; Makepeace, 1981; Pedersen & Thomas, 1992; White & Koss, 1991). One longitudinal study found that 66% of women reported having experienced at least one incident of severe dating violence during college (i.e., attempted rape, completed rape, hitting, pushing, throwing something) (Smith, White & Holland, 2003).

In sum, official statistics do not accurately reflect the extent of sexual and dating violence on college campuses due to a variety of issues including underreporting and limited statistical reporting. Results from single site and national victimization surveys have found that approximately 20 to 25% of female students will be sexually assaulted during college and between one-fifth and two-thirds of college students will experience some form of dating violence. Although victimization surveys are not without limitations, the extent of victimization on college campuses requires continued attention by researchers and policymakers. To this end, the following section will identify the theoretical frameworks that serve as a foundation for understanding the extent of victimization against female students on college campuses. The final section will review the extent to which bystanders can play a role in preventing and responding to dating and sexual violence on college campuses.

Theoretical Framework

There are three theoretical frameworks that help explain the extent of violence against women on college campuses and the role bystanders could play to prevent these crimes: routine

activities theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979), lifestyle theory (Hindelang, Gottfredson & Garofalo, 1978) and social norms theory (Berkowitz, 2003). Both routine activities theory and lifestyle theory are associated with a sub-field of criminology called situational crime prevention. This literature focuses on how situational factors can be manipulated to prevent offenders from having an opportunity to commit crimes (Clarke, 1997; Fisher et al., 2010). These complementary theories (also called lifestyle-routine activities theory or LRAT) are helpful in understanding how it is possible that victimization occurs on college campuses at the rate it does.¹² Social norms theory, on the other hand, is predominately used in the fields of social work or community psychology to understand the ways in which misperceptions or perceived norms influence individuals' prosocial or problematic behaviors (Perkins & Berkowitz, 1986). The sections that follow outline how these theories apply in the context of victimization against women on college campuses.

Routine activities theory. This theory posits that for a "direct contact predatory crime" to occur, a *willing offender* and a *suitable victim* must converge in a place conducive to crime – and this convergence must occur without intervention by a *capable guardian* (Clarke & Felson, 2011; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson & Boba, 2010; Garofalo, 1987). Cohen and Felson's (1979) paper that proposed routine activities theory analyzed aggregate crime rates from 1960 – 1975. After World War II, people's daily lives (i.e., "routine activities") changed in a way that meant they were increasingly away from their families and/or their households (e.g., women were increasingly working outside of the home; there was an increase in enrollment in college; and there was an increase in single people living in their own homes). These changes were

¹² To be clear, the current study is not testing LRAT. It is presented as a framework for understanding victimization on college campuses and to introduce the importance of "capable guardians" or bystanders in crime prevention.

associated with a 50% increase in the amount of unattended homes from 1960 – 1971 and, not surprisingly, a significant increase in residential burglaries (Cohen & Felson, 1979). They found evidence that personal victimization¹³ increased as well. For example, in their analysis of rape victimizations, they found that single people from the ages of 16 to 24 were more likely than non-single people or individuals in other age groups to experience rape (Cohen & Felson, 1979). Individuals who were unemployed or in school were particularly likely to be victimized (Cohen & Felson, 1979). They concluded from their research findings that people's risk of both property and personal victimization increased as the amount of time they spent out of the house or away from family increased.

Lifestyle theory. The lifestyle theory of victimization was developed around the same time as routine activities theory. It posits that some people are at higher risk of victimization due to their routine vocational and recreational activities (Hindelang et al., 1978; Garofalo, 1987).¹⁴ For example, one study found that "people whose frequency of going out during the evening was higher than the median frequency in the sample had a rate of violent personal victimization that was more than triple the rate of people whose frequency of going out was less than the median" (Corrado, Roesch, Glackman, Evans & Ledger, 1980 as cited in Garofalo, 1987, p.31). In another study, Smith (1982) analyzed victimization survey data and found that victims were more likely than non-victims to spend their spare time at "cinema/theater/dancing/bingo" or "frequenting pubs/cafes" (as cited in Garofalo, 1987, p.31). Other studies similarly found

¹³ Cohen and Felson (1979) did not consider domestic violence in their analyses, which often occurs within the home and is perpetrated by an intimate partner or family member.

¹⁴ This perspective is considered victim-blaming by some (Fisher et al., 2010). While it is true that one's activities may increase her (or his) risk of victimization, when victimization occurs, it occurs because an offender chose to victimize not because a victim chose to be victimized. See *Exploring a feminist routine activities approach to explaining sexual assault* by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) and *Male peer support and a feminist routine activities theory: Understanding sexual assault on the college campus* by Schwartz, DeKeseredy, Tait and Alvi (2001).

linkages between violent victimization and frequency of going out at night, drinking habits and

being young (Garofalo, 1987).

Lifestyle theory's propositions fit the characteristics of the college setting. Hindelang et

al. (1978) outlined eight primary elements of the theory:

- (1) The probability of personal victimization increases as the amount of time spent in public places, especially in the evening, increases.
- (2) One's lifestyle is associated with his or her probability of being in public places at night.
- (3) Individuals with similar demographic characteristics have similar lifestyles and tend to interact with one another.
- (4) Victims tend to share demographic characteristics with offenders.
- (5) One's lifestyle is associated with the amount of time spent with non-family members.
- (6) One's risk of personal victimization increases as the amount of time spent with non-family members increases.
- (7) One's ability to isolate him- or herself from offenders varies based on lifestyle.
- (8) Lifestyle can affect the offender's perception of the convenience, desirability and vincibility¹⁵ of the victim. That is, offenders tend to commit crimes close to their own homes at a time and place that they find convenient and conducive to the contemplated offense (Hindelang et al., 1978). Offenders see desirable targets as those who will be unlikely to report the crime and they seek vincible targets, that is victims who are "unaccompanied or under the influence of drugs or alcohol" (Hindelang et al., 1978, p.266).

The studies testing lifestyle and routine activities theories demonstrate that "victimization

is not distributed randomly across space and time – there are high-risk locations and high-risk

time periods... [and] high risk persons" (Garofalo, 1987, p.26). That is, on college campuses,

routine activities and lifestyles of students and a confluence of individual, situational and

¹⁵ The term "vincibility" is described by Hindelang et al. (1978) as "the extent that the potential victim is seen by the offender as less able to resist the offender successfully" (p.266).

community factors increase female student exposure to willing offenders (Fisher, Sloan, Cullen & Chunmeng, 1998; Fisher & Wilkes, 2003; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1994).

First, college students have predictable routines and similar lifestyles (Fisher et al., 2010; Miethe & Meier, 1994). Classes are at the same time every week, and outside class, students at residential colleges tend to eat their meals, study, engage in student activities and socialize in a regular tempo, pace and rhythm (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Miethe & Meier, 1994). Students tend to spend much of their time in public places (on and off-campus) engaging in these routine activities (proposition 1). Many of these activities occur at night (proposition 2) including class, study group meetings, campus organization meetings and parties.

Second, colleges tend to be homogeneous environments (Enger, 2006). Therefore college students tend to interact with people with similar demographic characteristics (propositions 3 and 4). Third, college is often the first time students are away from home without family members, in a context where they have more freedom to engage in risky behaviors (propositions 5 and 6). Fourth, the structure of residential colleges typically means that students are limited in their ability to isolate themselves (proposition 7). That is, housing choices are either restricted by the college's policies (e.g., on-campus dormitories) or if offcampus opportunities exist, options are often restricted by what the students can afford. Therefore, students cannot necessarily isolate themselves from willing offenders in this context.

There are several additional factors that affect the offender's perception of the levels of convenience, desirability and "vincibility" of potential victims (proposition 8). Incidents of sexual and dating violence on college campuses tend to occur among people who know each other and have similar demographic characteristics (Fisher et al., 2000; Koss et al., 1987). For example, in Fisher et al.'s (2000) National College Women Sexual Victimization Study,

offenders tended to be a classmate, friend or a current/former boyfriend. Relatedly, most incidents of dating and sexual violence among young people are not reported (Ashley & Foshee, 2005; Fisher et al., 2000; Pirog-Good & Stets, 1989), which means that offenders remain undetected and may re-offend (Lisak & Miller, 2002). In their study of college men, Lisak and Miller (2002) found that college men who admitted to behaviors that would be legally defined as rape remained undetected and tended to be "repeat rapists." They found that 6.4% of men had committed or attempted rape, and of these, two-thirds were multiple offenders, at an average of 5.8 rapes per offender. None of the 483 rapes identified in the study had been reported to authorities (Lisak & Miller, 2002).

Since the lifestyle of some college students includes risky behaviors such as using excessive alcohol (also called "binge drinking") or engaging in casual sex (also called "hooking up"), there may be an increase in the desirability and "vincibility" of college women within this context (Bogle, 2008; Fisher et al., 2010; Hingson, Heeren, Zakocs, Kopstein & Wechsler, 2002; Stinson, 2010). Both alcohol use and the "hook up" culture (also called the "party culture") have been shown to be associated with violence against women on college campuses (Abbey, Ross, McDuffie & McAuslan, 1996; Armstrong, Hamilton & Sweeney, 2006; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Koss, 1988; Krebs et al., 2007). For example, in a national study, Koss (1988) found three-fourths of offenders and more than half of victims of rape drank alcohol prior to the rape. Similarly, Abbey et al. (1996) found that "almost half of the most serious assaults involved alcohol consumption" (p.155). In his interviews with college men, Kimmel (2008) heard comments similar such as: "girls 'have to say no' to protect their reputations, they 'mean yes, even if they say no,' and 'if she's drunk and semiconscious, she's willing"" (p.218). Within this social context, victims of sexual violence are often "desirable" or "suitable" due to high levels of

intoxication (see Ullman, Karabatsos & Koss, 1999) and what Stewart (2002) calls the "complexity of acquaintance rape."¹⁶

Lifestyle and routine activities theories posit that an increase in capable guardianship could decrease property and personal victimization. Capable guardianship can be increased through strategies that utilize formal social control, target hardening or informal social control (Bennett, 1991). Table 2.1 displays examples of strategies to prevent or deter crime within each category of capable guardianship.

Table 2.1

Capable	Guardianship	Strategies to	Prevent or	Deter Crime
captione	Suchenentship	Shi chegies ie	1 / 0 / 0 / 0 /	Derer Crime

	Crime Category		
Crime prevention or			
control strategy	Household crime	Crime on college campuses	
Formal social control	Police or laws	Administrators or "misconduct policies"	
Target hardening	Alarms or locks	"Blue light phones" or "key card access" to dorms	
Informal social control	Neighbors and "block clubs"	Fellow students	

Until recently, efforts to prevent or deter crime on college campuses have primarily relied on formal social control (e.g., implementing policies that include sanctions such as suspension or expulsion of a student who has been found to violate the sexual misconduct policy) or target hardening strategies (e.g., installing better lighting on campus, blue light emergency phones or

¹⁶ Stewart (2002) posits that due to the sexual liberation movement, legalized abortion and birth control, women are more vulnerable to acquaintance rape because "the sexual revolution removed women's legitimate justifications for 'saving themselves'... women who refused sex were viewed as backward, stuck, regressed in some way" and since "the stakes were not so high as they once were, men felt that forcing sex was not such a major problem; she was not going to be ruined if she had sex with him, and he probably would not have to marry her." If she reported the rape, "she was contradicting her definition of self as free and equal and sexual [and instead would be seen as] being vindictive" (p.206).

"key card access" to dorms) (Karjane et al., 2002; Potter et al., 2000). These efforts are only applicable for a minority of cases of violence on college campuses. Sanctions could only be able to be applied if a crime is reported, and the majority of dating and sexual violence incidents on college campuses are not reported to authorities (Fisher et al., 2000). Target hardening strategies are designed to prevent crimes perpetrated by strangers - yet known offenders perpetrate the majority of dating and sexual violence (Fisher et al., 2000).

Colleges have only begun to explore how to use informal social control strategies (e.g., training fellow students to know how to proactively intervene to prevent or deter a crime). These strategies are promising (Banyard et al., 2007; Coker et al., 2011) because on college campuses, friends and peers of the victim or perpetrators are most likely to witness, if not the actual act of violence, the precursors or the aftermath (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Their shared routine activities and lifestyles may translate into an increased amount of intervention opportunities.

Early bystander intervention research primarily focused on the role bystanders could play during an incident requiring an intervention by a third party (see Latané & Darley, 1970). Unfortunately, for a majority of incidents of dating and sexual violence, potential interveners are not necessarily present during the actual incident (Hart & Miethe, 2008). According to data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (1993-1999), third parties were not present in 71% of rapes or sexual assaults and in 64% of violent crimes perpetrated by intimate partners (Planty, 2002). Of the third parties who were present, they were "more likely to help the situation than to make it worse, but more often they did neither" (Planty, 2002, p.1). Hart and Miethe's (2008) study of bystander intervention in nonfatal violent crimes also found that inactivity is a typical reaction. Intervening during an incident can be challenging; however, third parties that know

one another potentially have a range of opportunities to intervene (i.e., before, during or after a crime). The propensity to intervene, however, is affected by the perceived social norms within one's community and society.

Social norms theory. When understanding why a social problem persists and also why potentially capable guardians do not intervene, it is helpful to understand how individual behaviors are situated within, and influenced by, the social norms within a particular community (Berkowitz, 2003; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Social norms theory posits "that persons express or inhibit behavior in an attempt to conform to a perceived norm" (Berkowitz, 2003, p.60). However, conformity is often based on misperceptions of how those we interact with think about issues or would act in a given situation (Berkowitz, 2003).

This theory has been applied to understand the perpetration of violence against women on college campuses (Berkowitz, 2003). For example, Schwartz and DeKeseredy's (1997) hypothesis about male peer support contends that social norms within male peer groups "encourage the sexual objectification of women, as well as the narrow conception of masculinity, which includes male dominance, male sexual prowess, and the rejection of femininity" (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010, p.505). Past research has found that college men think their peers are more sexually active than they are, think other men would enjoy forcing a woman to have sex, although they personally would not, and think their peers believe in rape myths more than they do (Berkowitz, 2003). These factors may not only encourage men to be aggressive, but they are likely to silence victims and potential interveners (Berkowitz, 2003; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; McMahon, 2010; Kimmel, 2008; Powell, 2011; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

This theory has also been useful in understanding whether bystanders intervene in problematic situations (Berkowitz, 2003). Bystanders may not intervene in violence against

women due to what some scholars call "rape supportive culture" (Brownmiller, 1975) and the acceptance of rape myths (Burt, 1980). That is, there is a double standard for rape victims. On one hand,

we encourage and expect victims to come forward so we can catch and prosecute offenders and provide treatment to victims. On the other hand, rape is still effectively condoned, as evidenced by responses of institutions such as the criminal justice system and the media. We revictimize survivors who report rape by questioning their accounts, and we provide justice to only a few "legitimate" victims (Ullman, 2010, p.14).

Social norms dictate that "legitimate" victims are those that experienced "real rape" (Estrich, 1987). Rape is only "real" when it is perpetrated by a stranger, involves the use of a weapon, and results in visible physical injuries (Estrich, 1987). Also, victims of "real rape" could not have been engaging in any behavior that might blame them for being assaulted (e.g., they were not under the influence of alcohol) and should report the crime immediately (Ullman, 2010).

One way the social definition of "real rape" is measured empirically is by the extent to which individuals accept myths about rape as truth. According to Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994), "rape myths are attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p.134). These myths, such as "disbelief of rape claims," "victim responsibility for rape" and "rape reports as manipulation," are likely to encourage rape perpetration, discourage reporting of rape and inhibit bystander intervention (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; McMahon, 2010; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

On college campuses, the offenders tend to be non-strangers, tend not to use weapons, the assaults tend not to result in visible injuries, and often the victim and/or the offender are under the influence of alcohol or drugs (Abbey et al., 1996; Fisher et al., 2000; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Koss, 1988; Krebs et al., 2007; Lisak & Miller, 2002; Ullman et al., 1999). These incident

characteristics are not consistent with the "real rape" stereotype and have been found to be associated with non-reporting of sexual assault (Clay-Warner & Burt, 2005; Felson & Pare, 2005; Fisher et al., 2000). The social norms that perpetuate the stereotype of "legitimate" victims and "real rape" contribute to the acceptance of rape myths and silencing of acquaintance rape victims (Ullman, 2010).

In addition, during college, many students live in college dorms or multi-unit apartment buildings. Many of these buildings are quite large with high occupancy and structural density and residential mobility due to occupant turnover. Studies in neighborhoods within urban environments have shown that an increase in structural density and residential mobility is associated with a decrease in capacity for guardianship, due to reduced surveillance and residents' inability to keep track of the individuals who occupy other units in the building (Sampson, 1987).

Capable guardians could not only assist in preventing or deterring crime but they can also help to encourage victims to report crimes. The people in the lives of the willing offenders and the potential victims have the capacity to perpetuate norms associated with a "rape supportive culture" or they can implement and maintain new norms that have a positive impact on the campus community (Berkowitz, 2003; Sampson, 1987; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). However, within the United States, "the structural basis for creating and sustaining supportive social relations is weak" (Cullen, 1994, p.531). Our individualistic and self-interested culture often translates into a lack of social support among and within communities (Cullen, 1994). Yet, Cullen (1994) contends that if we were to focus our energies on enhancing our ability to support one another, social control would be more effective and stressful situations could be prevented or the consequences of such situations could be better alleviated.

In sum, the college setting is one where there is a confluence of individual, community and societal factors that provide opportunities for willing offenders to perpetrate dating or sexual violence. Students' routine activities and lifestyles, the social norms of male peer support and a "rape supportive culture" and the structural density and residential mobility inherent in many college campuses means that guardianship is reduced and victimization is less likely to be prevented. However, if social support and capable guardianship were to increase through bystander intervention, it may be possible to decrease or prevent crimes among college students.

Bystander Intervention Research

To enhance capable guardianship via informal social control strategies, many campuses are implementing various bystander intervention education programs (Ahrens, Rich & Ullman, 2011; Banyard et al., 2004; Coker et al., 2011; Gidycz, Orchowski & Berkowitz, 2011; McMahon et al., 2011; Potter & Stapleton, 2011). These programs draw on the decades of bystander intervention research that was initially spurred by the death of Kitty Genovese in 1964. Genovese was raped and stabbed to death while 38 of her neighbors did not intervene despite hearing her screams for help (Bar-On, 2001; Geis & Huston, 1983; Laner, Benin & Ventrone, 2001; Latané & Darley, 1970). Although the number of witnesses that actually heard the incident has been refuted, this incident has become an iconic example of "urban apathy" and bystander inaction (Krajicek, 2011).

Decades of research inspired by Genovese's death, primarily conducted by social psychologists, has identified several important predictors of bystander intervention in crisis situations (Austin, 1979; Darley & Latané, 1968; Latané & Darley, 1970; Piliavin & Piliavin, 1972). Through a series of controlled experiments, Latané and Darley (1970) found that before individuals will intervene, they must make a series of decisions. First, they must be aware of the event and identify that the event is an emergency requiring an intervention. In an experiment where someone stole money in front of a subject, 52% of subjects claimed to have not noticed the theft (Latané & Darley, 1970). When asked about it later, several of these subjects said they thought the thief was "making change" (Latané & Darley, 1970). It is often easier for bystanders to think of a reasonable explanation for what they witnessed than it is to assume the worst and confront someone who is violating a norm (Darley & Latané, 1968). In another experiment, subjects overheard (a tape recording of) a child bullying and physically abusing another child in an adjacent room (Darley & Latané, 1968). In the condition where subjects believed the children were alone, and they were the only ones overhearing the fight, 75% of subjects convinced themselves that it was not a real fight. However, when subjects believed an adult was in the adjacent room supervising the children, and therefore the onus of intervening was on someone else, 12% of the subjects reported they did not believe it was a real fight (Darley & Latané, 1968).

Once the bystander acknowledges that the situation requires an intervention, he or she must decide to take responsibility to intervene (Latané & Darley, 1970). In deciding whether to take responsibility and intervene, bystanders calculate the costs and benefits of action versus inaction (Austin, 1979; Darley & Latané, 1968; Piliavin & Piliavin, 1972). Often the costs of intervening outweigh the costs of not intervening (Darley & Latané, 1968). That is, if someone *does not intervene*, the individual's costs are somewhat limited to psychological costs.¹⁷ That is, a bystander may experience feelings of guilt or self-blame (Darley & Latané, 1968). However

¹⁷ A handful of states in the United States have passed statutes, called Duty-to-Assist statutes or Good Samaritan laws, requiring bystanders to intervene in crimes (Bagby, 2000; Hyman, 2005; Levit, 2000). In some states these statutes "require the rescue of one in peril in the absence of danger or the immediate reporting of crimes to the authorities" (e.g., MN, RI, VT and WI) (Bagby, 2000, p.574). Other states require that bystanders report certain enumerated crimes (e.g., MA, RI, WA and FL) or any crime they witness to authorities (e.g., CO, HI, NV and OH) (Bagby, 2000). According to Bagby (2000), "existing duty to intervene statutes' penalties range from a fine of \$100 to \$2,500 and/or jail time of up to six months" (p.591). In these states, the cost of non-intervention increases.

these feelings can be alleviated if the bystander can convince him or herself that he or she misinterpreted the situation and no intervention was actually necessary (Darley & Latané, 1968). On the other hand, there are numerous potential costs associated with *choosing to intervene* (Austin, 1979; Darley & Latané, 1968). Potential costs include the time it would take to intervene, the risk of physical injury, fear of being blamed for not choosing the right response or for harming the person that was in danger, and the potential for discomfort if the attempt to help is rejected or if others ridicule the bystander's choice to intervene (Austin, 1979; Darley & Latané, 1968).

Witnessing a violent crime, or the precursors or aftermath of a violent crime, can be shocking if not traumatic for a bystander. Many people, especially those who have been unaffected by violent crime, prefer to believe that we live in a "just world" where violence does not happen to people unless they deserve it (Lerner, 1980). In addition, given that we live in a society where we are expected to "mind our own business," where we are increasingly exposed to violence in the media, and where we have a tendency to blame the victim (Bar-On, 2001; Powell, 2011), it is not surprising that *inaction* is the most likely response (Hart & Miethe, 2008). This may be partially due to a need to "reduce one's own moral responsibility and psychological caring for the victims" (Bar-On, 2001, p.128). In this context, violent crimes are especially considered "indescribable and undiscussable" (Bar-On, 2001).

Latané and Darley (1970) also found that there are contextual factors that influence whether a bystander will intervene. First, due to a *diffusion of responsibility*, bystanders are less likely to intervene if there are other people around (Darley & Latané, 1968). For example, in one experiment, subjects overheard a man in another room having a seizure. The majority of subjects (85%) who thought they were the only person that could hear him having a seizure went

to find help for him (Darley & Latané, 1968). However, when subjects thought four other people could also hear him, only 31% of subjects sought help (Darley & Latané, 1968). In two later experiments where subjects witnessed someone steal money and in another where they witnessed beer being stolen, Latané and Darley (1970) found that subjects who were alone when they witnessed the theft were more likely to report the crime than if there were others who also witnessed it.

Second, bystanders rely on the reactions of those around them due to *evaluation apprehension* and *pluralistic ignorance*. They do not want to look silly if they misread the situation, so if others are not reacting as if something is wrong, they will not act (Latané & Darley, 1970). For example, in one experiment, a subject was in a waiting room completing some forms ostensibly before an interview with a researcher (Latané & Darley, 1970). Within several minutes, the experimenters put puffs of white smoke into the room from a vent in the wall (Latané & Darley, 1970). When alone, 75% of subjects left the room to find somebody to whom to report the smoke (Latané & Darley, 1970). In the second condition, when two people (non-subjects) present in the waiting room were not alarmed by the smoke, only 10% of subjects sought help (Latané & Darley, 1970). In the third condition, all three of the people in the room were subjects. In this situation, in only 38% of groups did one subject report the smoke (Latané & Darley, 1970). These experiments suggest that people need affirmation of an emergency before they will act to intervene.

Lastly, the bystander has to feel confident that he or she has the appropriate skills to intervene (Banyard et al., 2004; Banyard, 2008; Huston, Ruggiero, Conner & Geis, 1981; Latané & Darley, 1970). This confidence can come from several sources: internal self-esteem, past experience intervening in similar situations and having seen others model bystander behaviors

(Banyard et al., 2004; Bryan & Test, 1967; Rushton & Campbell, 1977). One study found that when compared to people who had not intervened, people who had intervened in dangerous situations such as street muggings, armed robberies and bank holdups tended to be physically stronger and heavier than non-interveners and interveners had considerably more life-saving, medical and police training (Huston et al., 1981).

Limitations of early bystander intervention studies. Despite the fact that this research was spurred by the violent death of Kitty Genovese, much of this and other early bystander intervention literature focused on the factors that predict whether a bystander intervenes in *simulated emergency situations* or *simple crimes*, such as theft or shoplifting among strangers (Geis & Huston, 1983; Latané & Darley, 1970; Levine, 2003; Staub, 2003a, 2003b). Although the subjects in the early studies were predominantly college students, the types of emergencies or crimes studied were not necessarily college-specific (Laner et al., 2001). As a result, it is difficult to know the extent to which these findings hold in situations of dating or sexual violence (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Powell, 2011), and researchers have begun to apply this literature to the area of sexual and dating violence on college campuses (see for example Banyard, 2008; Coker et al., 2011). This research has shown promise, but gaps remain (Banyard et al., 2007a; McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

The "bystander effect." Journalists often report on the "bystander effect," or the lack of intervention by bystanders when other people are around due to diffusion of responsibility (Darley & Latané, 1968). Three recent stories in the media have increased public attention to this phenomenon. In the first case, Brittany Norwood committed first-degree murder against co-worker Jayna Murray in a hallway of a Lululemon Athletica store. Two employees of the store next door admit that they could hear something was going on but they did not intervene

(Johnson, 2011; Morse & Zapana, 2011). In the second case, the former assistant football coach at Penn State University, Jerry Sandusky, was recently convicted of 45 counts of sexual abuse (Curry, Loyd & Avila, 2012). Several years ago, in 2002, a bystander witnessed what he perceived to be inappropriate sexual conduct between Sandusky and an underage boy and reported it to his superiors (Jenkins, 2012). However, until recently, Sandusky's actions were never reported to authorities outside the university, and the former Director of Athletics and the former Vice President of the university now face charges of failure to report child abuse and perjury (Jenkins, 2012).

The third case is particularly relevant to the current study. In May 2010, Yeardley Love, a senior at the University of Virginia, was found beaten to death in her off-campus apartment (Lyons, 2010). Her boyfriend, George Huguely, also a senior at the university at the time, has been convicted of second-degree murder (Flaherty, Johnson & Jouvenal, 2012). In the aftermath of her death, it became apparent that several bystanders had witnessed Huguely physically attacking her at a party three months earlier and that he sent Love threatening emails, that she showed to her teammates, in the days before the murder (de Vise & Nakamura, 2010; Lyons, 2010; Yanda, 2010).

These incidents are disturbing and shocking. However, Hyman (2005) believes that stories like these distort our perception of how often bystanders intervene. He argues that our awareness of bystander inaction is informed by "anec-data" and that bystanders intervene more often than they do not; we just do not hear about intervention as often as we hear about nonintervention (Hyman, 2005). The section that follows includes a review of the empirical literature on factors associated with bystander intervention, specifically in sexual violence and dating violence situations.

Section 2

Factors Associated with Intervening as a Bystander

In order to examine how to increase capable guardianship via informal social control, this section includes a review of existing research on the factors that affect the propensity of a bystander to intervene, especially in situations of dating or sexual violence (see Figure 2.1). Factors such as **history of victimization** (Chabot, Tracy, Manning & Poisson, 2009; Huston et al., 1981; Nabi & Horner, 2001), **observing others engage in bystander intervention** (Banyard et al., 2004; Batson, 1998; Bryan & Test, 1967), and increased **confidence in his or her skills** may make an individual more likely to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Burn, 2009; Huston et al., 1981; Laner et al., 2001; Powell, 2011). Also, low acceptance of **rape myths** (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Burn, 2009; McMahon, 2010; West & Wandrei, 2002) and demographic factors such as **sex** (Banyard, 2008; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Laner et al., 2001; McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011) or **sexual orientation** (Clear et al., 2012) of the bystander may play a role. In addition, **alcohol use** may increase the exposure a bystander has to opportunities to intervene in alcohol-related situations and may increase the risk of victimization.

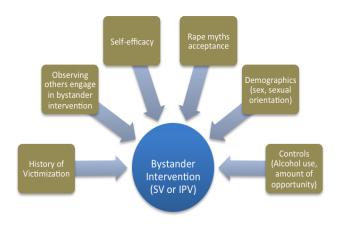


Figure 2.1. Factors that predict bystander intervention

History of victimization. Studies have found that exposure to crime, such as past personal experience with victimization or knowing someone who has been victimized positively affected the likelihood of intervening (Banyard, 2008; Beeble, Post, Bybee & Sullivan, 2008; Chabot et al., 2009; Huston et al., 1981; McMahon et al., 2011; Nabi & Horner, 2001; see Laner et al., 2001 for an exception). For example, in Banyard's (2008) study on a college campus, participants who knew a survivor of sexual violence were more likely to believe they could be effective as a bystander, have attitudes that were supportive of engaging as a bystander and report having engaged in bystander behaviors. In a study that retroactively compared a sample of interveners with non-interveners, Huston et al. (1981) found that those who reported intervening in crimes were "victims of serious crimes more than twice as often as the noninterveners" (p.19).

Chabot et al.'s (2009) study of the likelihood of undergraduate students to intervene in dating violence situations found that participants were more likely to intervene if they had experienced childhood abuse, but those who had experienced dating violence were not more likely to intervene. This finding conflicts with the findings of Nabi and Horner (2001) and Beeble et al. (2008). Nabi and Horner's (2001) community-based study found that past experience with intimate partner violence predicted likelihood to intervene (Nabi & Horner, 2001). However, the survivors in the Nabi and Horner (2001) study ranged in age from 18 - 65+, so they may have had more exposure to dating violence personally or among friends. They also may have had more opportunities to intervene in their lifetime and it may be that a greater length of time had passed since their victimization. Similarly, in another study with a random sample of adults, respondents with a history of intimate partner violence were 42% more likely to help a survivor of intimate partner violence (Beeble et al., 2008).

Observing others engage in bystander intervention. Peers can influence whether a bystander will intervene. Consistent with social norms theory and the male peer support hypothesis, discussed above, bystanders are more likely to intervene if they see their peers intervene or if they perceive that their peers would intervene if given the opportunity (Banyard et al., 2004; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Fabiano, Perkins, Berkowitz, Linkenbach & Stark, 2003; Stein, 2007). In a study with male students on one college campus, Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found that the respondents' perception of peers' attitudes about sexual aggression was a better predictor of the respondents' willingness to intervene than the respondents' personal attitudes regarding sexual aggression. However, social desirability may be a factor when considering self-reported attitudes. Stein (2007) found that the college men in his study reported that they were more willing than their friends to prevent rape. In addition, although these college men believed their friends held rape supportive attitudes, they personally did not also hold these beliefs (Stein, 2007). In a study by Fabiano et al. (2003), the "only significant predictor of males' actual willingness to intervene in a situation that might lead to sexual assault was their perception of other males' willingness to intervene" (p.109).

Therefore, a next logical step is to assess whether witnessing peers intervene influences one's willingness to intervene. However, most studies on college campuses to date have asked about hypothetical situations or intent to help, not about actual bystander behaviors of the respondents or their peers (for exceptions see Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Burn, 2009; Coker et al., 2011). Coker et al. (2011) found that students who received bystander intervention training were more likely to self-report engaging in bystander behaviors and observing others engage in such behaviors. It may be that a certain level of awareness is necessary to notice bystander behaviors and this is associated with engaging as bystanders, due

to an increase in the perception that peers are willing to intervene. That is, those students who perceive that it is a norm to engage in bystander behaviors (a norm that is reinforced by observing others intervene) may be more likely to intervene themselves (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011).

Self-efficacy. Building on the early studies that found that self-efficacy, or confidence in one's skills, is a key factor in whether someone will intervene (Huston et al., 1981; Latané & Darley, 1970), more recent studies have found that those bystanders who had higher confidence in their skills were more likely to express intent to intervene or to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). For example, in Banyard's (2008) review of the literature, she found that "participants who reported higher levels of perceived effectiveness as a bystander reported both more willingness to engage in pro-social behaviors... and greater numbers of actual behaviors, whether assessed cross-sectionally or over time" (p.94). Similarly, Christy and Voigt's (1994) study of intervening in child abuse situations found that those who intervened "felt certain about how to intervene" (p.841).

Rape myths acceptance. Burt's (1980) important study on rape myths found that rape myth acceptance is associated with tolerating interpersonal violence. This finding was reinforced in a recent meta-analysis of rape myths acceptance (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). In addition, studies have consistently found an association between an acceptance of rape myths and bystander behavior (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; McMahon, 2010; West & Wandrei, 2002; see Banyard & Moynihan, 2011 for an exception). For example, West and Wandrei (2002) found that those interveners who have lower levels of rape myths acceptance provided more helpful interventions. Another study found that on college campuses, men, those involved with fraternities or sororities, athletes, those who do not know a survivor of sexual

violence, and those who have never attended a rape education program are more likely to believe in rape myths (McMahon, 2010). Among athletes and those involved with fraternities or sororities, male athletes and fraternity members report significantly higher acceptance of rape myths than their female counterparts (McMahon, 2010). In McMahon's (2010) study, "for each additional score increase in rape myth acceptance, [there was] a 0.20 point decrease in bystander attitudes (p<0.001)" (p.9). That is, the more someone believes in rape myths, the less likely he or she is going to intervene in a situation of dating or sexual violence. This finding is consistent with similar findings in previous studies (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009).

Burn's (2009) study analyzed barriers to college students' intent to intervene in a sexual violence situation. One identified barrier was rape myths acceptance operationalized as "victim worthiness" (i.e., "less likely to intervene if potential victim made a choice that increased risk," "less likely to intervene if potential victim dressed provocatively or acted provocatively," "feel less responsible for intervening if potential victim is dressed provocatively, or acted provocatively" and "less likely to intervene if potential victim is intoxicated"). For the entire sample, "the perception that a potential victim made choices or behaved in ways that increased her sexual assault risk was found to reduce bystander intervention intentions, with this effect greater for men than women" (Burn, 2009, p.877). In another study, Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found that male college students who accepted rape myths were less likely to intervene against sexual violence.

Studies by Burn (2009) and Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) assessed the respondent's *willingness* to intervene (that is, they were asked "how likely is it that you would intervene if..."). Banyard and Moynihan (2011), on the other hand, asked respondents to report how likely they would be to intervene <u>and</u> how many times they have personally engaged in

actual bystander behaviors.¹⁸ When Banyard and Moynihan (2011) asked about *willingness* to intervene, they found that the respondents who endorsed fewer rape myths expressed a greater willingness to intervene (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). However, Banyard and Moynihan (2011) and a recent study by Clear et al. (2012) found, contrary to their expectations, that a higher level of rape myths acceptance was associated with more, not fewer, self-reported *actual* bystander behaviors.

Sex. The primary demographic variable of interest to researchers in this area has been the sex of the bystander. In a meta-analytic review of sex and helping behavior, Eagly and Crowley (1986) found that men were more likely to intervene than women, especially in highrisk situations. When women intervene, it tends to be in an indirect way like calling 911, whereas men tend to intervene in a more direct or "heroic" way (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; see also Chabot et al., 2009).

Laner et al. (2001) found that women were more likely to intervene to help children whereas men were more likely to intervene to help women (Laner et al., 2001). In addition, there is some empirical support that in cases of interpersonal violence, women may be more likely to intervene than men (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Beeble et al., 2008; McMahon et al., 2011; Nicksa, 2011; Powell, 2011). Also men are more likely to believe rape myths (Banyard, 2008; Bryant & Spencer, 2003; Burn, 2009; Chabot et al., 2009; McMahon, 2010; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; West & Wandrei, 2002), which may mean they are less likely to intervene in dating and sexual violence situations.

¹⁸ Such as "ask a friend who seems upset if he or she is okay or needs help," "walk a friend who has had too much to drink home from a party," "if I see someone at a party who has had too much to drink, I ask him or her if he or she needs to be walked home so he or she can go to sleep," "when I hear a sexist comment, I indicate my displeasure," etc. (Banyard, 2008).

Considering that self-efficacy is an important contributor to bystander intervention (Banyard et al., 2004; Banyard, 2008; Huston et al., 1981; Latané & Darley, 1970), it is important to note that compared to women, men are significantly less likely to believe they have the skills to "do something about sexual assault" (55.3% vs. 29.1%) (Exner & Cummings, 2011). Although women feel more strongly that they could do something about sexual assault, they are significantly more likely to be "concerned that intervening would make their friends angry with them (54.6% vs. 25.5%), …that they could get physically hurt by intervening (83.7% vs. 53.2%), or that they would make the wrong decision and intervene when nothing was wrong (83.0% vs. 66.0%)" (Exner & Cummings, 2011, p.656). Burn (2009) also found that women were more concerned than men about their ability to intervene effectively.

Sexual orientation. Research on bullying or harassment due to one's actual or perceived sexual orientation indicates that this type of bullying is "pervasive, insidious and starts early" (Mishna, Newman, Daley & Solomon, 2009, p.1599; see also Berlan, Corliss, Field, Goodman & Austin, 2010). At least one study on school bullying found that past experiences with bullying were associated with engaging in bystander behaviors (Oh, 2011). In addition, a recent study by Clear et al. (2012) found a significant association between not being heterosexual and being an active bystander in violence and alcohol-related situations on college campuses. The inclusion of this variable is exploratory because, to my knowledge, this is the second study on bystander intervention on college campuses that has included sexual orientation as an independent variable.

Alcohol use. As mentioned above, the lifestyle of some college students includes risky behaviors such as excessive alcohol use (also called "binge drinking") (Fisher et al., 2010; Hingson et al., 2002). Alcohol use has been shown to be associated with violence against women on college campuses (Abbey et al., 1996; Koss, 1988; Armstrong et al., 2006). In a

national study, Koss (1988) found three-fourths of offenders and more than half of victims of rape drank alcohol prior to the rape. Abbey et al. (1996) found that "almost half of the most serious assaults involved alcohol consumption" (p.155). This independent variable was included as a control variable for the alcohol-related bystander behaviors.

Section 3

Timing and Type of Interventions

This section briefly reviews the literature related to timing and type of bystander interventions. McMahon and Banyard (2012) propose a conceptual framework that recognizes that intervention as a bystander can occur at many points; that is, it can serve to prevent a crime from occurring, intervene in an already occurring crime or with the victim or offender after a crime has occurred. Also, bystanders can be reactive or proactive and the situations they become involved with can be high-risk or low-risk to a potential victim. There have been calls for a comprehensive approach to bystander intervention by incorporating the public health model of violence prevention (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002) into programs to prevent violence against women, including bystander intervention education programs (McMahon & Banyard, 2012; Powell, 2011; WHO, 2010). This model outlines three levels of prevention: primary (i.e., preventing violence before it occurs), secondary (i.e., immediate and emergency responses to violence during or directly after an incident) and tertiary (i.e., long-term care to reduce trauma and longterm effects for the survivor or to treat and/or rehabilitate the offender) (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002). Since friends and peers of the victim or perpetrators are most likely to witness at least some aspect of the incident (Burn, 2009; McMahon & Banyard, 2012), they are in a unique position to intervene at some point in this spectrum. For example, if they are concerned about a friend who they think might be in an abusive relationship, they can intervene early and do not have to wait for an act of physical violence to occur before trying to intervene. Friends and peers, as long as they know the warning signs, could have multiple opportunities to help prevent violence. If a friend discloses that she was raped, a friend can intervene by providing emotional

support or helping find the survivor the resources she needs for healing. The framework for the

range of opportunities for a bystander to intervene as proposed by McMahon and Banyard (2012)

is displayed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

McMahon and Banyard's (2012) Nomological Network of Bystander Opportunities for the

Prevention of Sexual Violence

	Primary Prevention (before the assault)	Secondary Prevention (during the assault)	Tertiary Prevention (after the assault)		
Reactive bystander opportunities	Low risk1High risk2• Friends make a sexist joke• A friend is bringing an intoxicated woman to his room	 Hearing cries for help or distress 	• A friend or classmate discloses that she or he is a survivor		
Proactive bystander behaviors	 Taking a course on gender Joining a peer education gender Volunteering at a local sex 	oup			

¹ i.e., low risk to the potential victim

² i.e., the potential victim faces imminent risk of harm

Note. This table lists fewer examples of each type of bystander opportunity than the table in the original article (see McMahon & Banyard, 2012, p.8).

To date, many bystander intervention educational programs have focused solely on the

role of a bystander during an incident or directly after an incident (Banyard et al., 2004; Powell, 2011). From the limited research available, it appears that students may be more likely to intervene *during* an actual incident of violence than they are willing to challenge a peer who makes a statement or joke that reflects a "rape supportive culture" (Bar-On, 2001; McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011). This may mean that students do not know the warning signs associated with dating violence or an impending sexual assault. Or, it may mean that they do not know how to intervene so they "mind their own business" and convince themselves that no intervention is necessary. Also, they may not see lower risk situations as worthy of the potential

costs of intervention (Darley & Latané, 1968; Piliavin & Piliavin, 1972). There is some evidence that as the perceived risk to the victim increases, the frequency of intervention also increases (Austin, 1979).

Banyard's (2008) study is an exception to this. The respondents in her study were less likely to intervene during serious emergencies and most likely to intervene in situations that could potentially prevent an incident (e.g., "walk a friend who has had too much to drink home from a party" or "make sure I leave the party with the same people I came with") or could potentially help someone after an incident (e.g., "ask a friend [or acquaintance] who seems upset if he or she is okay or needs help") (p.90). A follow-up study found that self-efficacy predicted the likelihood of a bystander intervening with peers who used language that "condoned a rape supportive culture" (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011).

Behaviors that fall under tertiary prevention are *reactive* behaviors such as helping a friend who has been victimized are also important to understand. Most survivors of sexual or dating violence rely on informal support systems such as friends or family for support and assistance (Ahrens, Campbell, Ternier-Thames, Wasco & Sefl, 2007; Beeble et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2000; Latta & Goodman, 2011; Ullman, 2001; Ullman, 2010; West & Wandrei, 2002). This is especially true for college students (Fisher et al., 2000). Therefore, it is important to understand the factors that predict the extent to which college students help friends after dating or sexual violence. In a study that looked at college students' propensity to report unwanted sexual activities among respondents with various levels of past sexual victimization (none, moderate or severe), each group indicated they were more likely to report unwanted sexual activities to a friend over reporting to police, counseling center or a resident assistant (Orchowski, Meyer & Gidycz, 2009). Interestingly, regardless of their victimization history,

respondents were most likely to say they would report victimization on a survey over friends, police, counseling center or a resident assistant (Orchowski et al., 2009).

Conclusion

In sum, routine activities theory, lifestyle theory and social norms theory help to explain the prevalence of violence against women on college campuses. The bystander intervention literature suggests that there are several factors that encourage, and many others that hinder, bystander intervention in crime. Gaps in this literature remain. Decades of research has demonstrated predictors of intervention among strangers in non-violent situations. Less is known about intervening in crimes of sexual assault and dating violence in a small community (such as a college campus) where the victim, offender and bystander are likely to know one another. To date, there is some evidence that informal social control, via bystander intervention, could be an important method of increasing capable guardianship in order to reduce college women's victimization. The pages that follow will examine the range of interventions bystanders take to prevent and respond to sexual assault and dating violence perpetrated by their peers.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study (henceforth "the current study") reports the findings of a mixed-methods cross-sectional survey conducted by the author in spring, 2011. A random sample of undergraduate students enrolled in a small private university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States was invited to complete an Internet-administered survey. The survey included both closed-ended and open-ended questions. A response rate of 56% was achieved. An online survey company called Zoomerang was used to administer the survey. The Institutional Review Board at American University approved this research project in February 2011.

The survey instrument¹⁹ (see Appendix C) and associated protocols (i.e., sampling design, recruitment and incentive protocols) were acquired from the developers: Dr. Bonnie Fisher (University of Cincinnati), Dr. Ann Coker (University of Kentucky), Dr. Corinne Williams (University of Kentucky) and Dr. Suzanne Swan (University of South Carolina). Fisher, Coker, Williams and Swan piloted and administered the survey at three large public universities in spring 2010 and spring 2011.

This chapter and the two chapters that follow describe the methods used in the current study. Chapter 3 describes the following: research questions, research design, contribution to the literature, sample and survey instrumentation and administration. Chapter 4 presents the hypotheses and describes the current study's data cleaning and data analysis strategies. Chapter 5 presents information on issues of non-response and non-normality and the treatment of missing data.

¹⁹ The current study's author edited two questions and added fifteen questions to the survey based on her personal research interests.

Research Questions

The research questions in the current study include:

- (1) What predicts whether a bystander will intervene?
 - a. What factors predict intervening as a bystander?
 - b. What factors predict intervening in dating and sexual violence situations specifically?
 - c. What factors predict intervening proactively versus reactively?
- (2) Are the correlates of intervening in dating violence situations different from those associated with intervening in sexual violence situations?
- (3) What actions do respondents report undertaking and which actions do they believe are most successful or least successful?
 - a. Do they mention intervening in dating or sexual violence situations?
 - b. Do they tend to list actions that would take place before, during or after an incident?
 - c. Do their answers tend to be proactive or reactive?
 - d. Do their answers tend to be high or low risk?

Research questions 1 and 2 are addressed with quantitative data analysis of responses to closed-ended survey questions. Research question 3 is answered using qualitative content analysis of responses to three open-ended questions.

Research Design

The current study uses a non-experimental cross-sectional design. The survey was implemented utilizing the Tailored Design Method for mail and Internet surveys (Dillman, 2007). Grounded in social exchange theory, this method seeks to increase the rewards of responding to a survey, reduce the costs associated with responding and promote trust that

ultimately the rewards will outweigh the costs (Dillman, 2007). The key features of this method are displayed in Table 3.1 below. According to Dillman (2007), higher response rates will be achieved if: (a) the questionnaire is respondent-friendly; (b) the respondent receives multiple contacts during the survey period; (c) all correspondence is personalized; and (d) respondents receive a financial incentive *before* they complete the survey. Each of these features was included in the current study, as will be explained further in the subsection on *Administration*.

Table 3.1

To establish trust	To increase rewards	To reduce social costs
 Provide token of appreciation in advance Sponsorship by legitimate authority Make the task appear important Invoke other exchange relationships 	 Show positive regard Say thank you Ask for advice Support group values Give tangible rewards Make the questionnaire interesting Give social validation Communicate scarcity of response opportunities 	 Avoid subordinating language Avoid embarrassment Avoid inconvenience Make questionnaire short and easy Minimize requests for personal information Emphasize similarity to other requests

Tailored Design Perspective (Adapted from Dillman, 2007, p.27)

Contribution to the Literature

The current study builds on past research in five ways (see Table 3.2 below for a summary of the methodological characteristics of past literature on bystander intervention in dating and sexual violence situations on college campuses). First, past research on bystander intervention in violent crime has tended to:

- (1) combine interventions in dating and sexual violence situations (i.e., has not separated these crimes based on relationship to the perpetrator as an intimate partner or non-intimate partner) (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011);
- (2) only include interventions in
 - a. sexual violence situations (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2005; Banyard et al., 2007a; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; McMahon et al., 2011);
 - b. dating violence situations (Chabot et al., 2009; Latta & Goodman, 2011;
 Weisz & Black, 2008);
 - c. intervention vs. non-intervention into general crime (Geis & Huston, 1983); or
- (3) compare violent crimes such as assault, robbery and rape without analyzing domestic assault separately (Hart & Miethe, 2008; Planty, 2002).

Since the type of crime may influence whether a bystander intervenes, the current study analyzes the factors that predict bystander intervention generally and analyzes intervention in intimate partner violence situations separately from intervention in nonintimate partner sexual violence situations.

Although both dating violence and sexual violence fall under the umbrella of violence against women, they have different attributes that may require different interventions

(McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Sexual violence can include attempted or completed abusive sexual contact (e.g., unwanted touching or fondling), attempted or completed oral, anal or vaginal sexual assault or non-contact sexual abuse (such as sexualized threats or verbal sexual harassment) (CDC, 2009b). Sexual violence can occur one time or more than once and be perpetrated by an intimate partner, an acquaintance, a family member, a friend, a person in authority or other people known to the victim (Fisher et al., 2000; McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

Dating violence, on the other hand, can include sexual violence; physical violence (e.g., pushing or punching); threats of violence; psychological abuse; coercive control; reproductive coercion and/or stalking (CDC, 2009a; Moore, Frohwirth & Miller, 2010; NCVC, 2007). The types of abusive behaviors that occur within a dating relationship are a cause for concern but not all of the behaviors (such as psychological abuse, coercive control or reproductive coercion) are illegal²⁰ (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). In the case of dating violence, friends and peers may have the opportunity to witness warning signs over the length of time the couple is dating. In the case of non-intimate partner sexual violence, the window of opportunity to identify warning signs may be significantly shorter (e.g., during a party). To date, no study has separated non-intimate partner sexual violence and intimate partner violence bystander behaviors to determine whether the correlates of bystander behavior for each type of violence differ (McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

Second, the majority of research on bystander intervention in dating and sexual violence situations on college campuses has been done with non-probability samples (see Coker et al., 2011; Fabiano et al., 2003 for exceptions) (see Table 3.2, column 3). Existing studies have used the following types of purposive samples:

²⁰ Please see p.1-2 of Appendix A for more comprehensive definitions of sexual and dating violence.

- college students considered to be high-risk, such as men, athletes and those involved with fraternities or sororities (Banyard, Moynihan & Crossman, 2009; Stein, 2007; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011);
- (2) first year students residing on campus (Gidycz et al., 2011);
- (3) undergraduates attending new student orientation (McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011);
- (4) entering freshman (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Foubert, Brasfield, Hill & Shelley-Tremblay, 2011);
- (5) samples of students enrolled in specific classes (Ahrens et al., 2011; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Nicksa, 2011; West & Wandrei, 2002) or
- (6) non-probability samples of the general student population (Banyard et al., 2007a; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Chabot et al., 2009; McMahon et al., 2011).

Probability sampling, also called random sampling, is an underutilized method in this area of research. Random sampling makes it possible to eliminate investigator bias in the selection of participants and to calculate sampling error (Singleton & Straits, 2010). Although both types of sampling suffer from non-response bias, the current study utilizes random sampling in order to generalize to the population enrolled at the university in the study instead of a targeted sub-group of students.

Third, much of this research has been done at public universities (Ahrens et al., 2011; Banyard et al., 2007a; Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; Coker et al., 2011; Fabiano et al., 2003; McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011; Stein, 2007) and at universities in the Northeastern part of the United States (Banyard et al., 2007a; Banyard et al., 2009; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Chabot et al., 2009; McMahon, 2010; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Stein, 2007) (see Table 3.2, columns 6 and 7). It is possible that findings from studies conducted with students who attend public universities or in the Northeast cannot be generalized to students in other regions of the United States due to the unique historical, socioeconomic and other characteristics of each region. Also, many students attending public universities are from the state where the university is located. Therefore, it is likely that some students will know one another from high school or some students may go home for the weekend, both of which are less common among students who attend universities far from home. There may be different factors that affect one's propensity to intervene in these diverse settings. The current study is unique because it was conducted at a small, private university in the Mid-Atlantic region.

Fourth, most studies have focused on a bystander's *willingness to intervene in a hypothetical situation* instead of asking bystanders about *actual bystander behaviors* (see Table 3.2, column 9). That is, most studies ask respondents to indicate how willing they are or how likely they would be to engage in certain behaviors to interrupt or prevent dating or sexual violence. Although there are limitations to any measure that includes self-report, the current study is concerned with college students' self-reported *behaviors*, instead of one's self-reported *willingness to intervene*. This distinction is important because one's self-reported *willingness* to engage in a behavior may not necessarily predict actual *behavior* (Powell, 2011). As Levine (2003) puts it: "if you ask people about the likelihood of intervention, they usually say that they will help – however, when actually confronted by an emergency situation, people tend to help much less than they think" (p.128).

Fifth, this is the first study to utilize confirmatory factor analysis in a structural equation modeling (SEM) framework to identify latent variables and then estimate

simultaneous regression equations in order to test the current study's hypotheses.²¹ This is an important contribution because while standard "regression models test hypotheses about the strength and direction of relationships between predictor variables and an outcome variable... SEM accommodates regression relationships among latent variables and between observed and latent variables" (Bowen & Guo, 2012, p.6).²² See Table 3.2, column 5, to review the types of analyses used in other studies on bystander intervention on college campuses.

²¹ This is not the first study to use SEM. Ahrens et al. (2011) used latent class analysis, which is a form of structural equation modeling. ²² Emphasis added.

Table 3.2

A Review of Dating and Sexual	Violence Bystander Inte	ervention Studies on C	College Campu	ses (in Chronological O	rder)

Column 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Author(s) (Year)	Sample size	Sample type (gender)	Study type ¹	Analysis type ²	School type ³	Geographic region	Crime type ⁴	Bystander measure
Fabiano et al. (2003)	n=618	Random sample (coed)	CS	FA	Public	Northwest	SV	Willingness
Stein (2007)	n=156	Convenience sample of freshman (males)	CS	3-step HR	Public	Northeast	SV	Willingness
Banyard et al. (2007a) & Banyard (2008)	n=389	Convenience sample randomly assigned to treatment or control (coed)	L, PE	MANOVA/M ANCOVA OLS reg.	Public	Northeast	SV	Willingness and actual behaviors
Chabot et al. (2009)	n=71	Convenience sample (coed)	CS	OLS reg.	NM	Northeast	DV	Willingness
Burn (2009)	n=588	Convenience sample (coed)	CS	MANOVA/ ANOVA	Public	West	SV	Willingness
McMahon (2010)	n=2338	Convenience sample of undergraduate students attending new student orientation (coed)	CS	OLS reg.	Public	Northeast	SV	Willingness
Brown & Messman-Moore (2010)	n=395	Convenience sample of students in introductory psychology classes (male)	CS	HR	Public	Midwest	SV	Willingness
Banyard & Moynihan (2011)	n=406	Convenience sample of fraternity and sorority members, intercollegiate athletes and students residing in first-year residence halls (coed)	CS	FA OLS reg.	Public	Northeast	SV & DV	Willingness and actual behaviors
Coker et al. (2011)	n=2,504	Random sample stratified by class year (coed)	CS, PE	MANOVA	Public	Midwest	SV & DV	Observed and actual behaviors
McMahon et al. (2011)	n=951	Convenience sample (coed)	CS	t-tests	Public	Northeast	SV	Willingness and actual behaviors
Exner & Cummings (2011)	n=188	Convenience sample from 4 undergraduate classrooms (coed)	CS	t-tests, X^2 , Fisher's	NM	Northeast	SV	Bystander efficacy and barriers

Author(s) (Year)	Sample size	Sample type (gender)	Study type ¹	Analysis type ²	School type ³	Geographic region	Crime type ⁴	Bystander measure
Gidycz et al. (2011)	n=635	Convenience sample recruited from randomly selected first-year student campus residence halls (males)	CS, PE	backward elimination log-linear	NM	Midwest	SV	Willingness of self and peers
Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2011)	n=179	Convenience sample of students enrolled in one of many freshman seminar courses (males)	CS, PE	MANOVA/ ANOVA	NM	Southeast	SV	Willingness and efficacy
Ahrens et al. (2011)	n=509	Convenience sample of students in two undergraduate Communication Studies classes (coed)	CS, PE	latent class growth models	Public	West	SV	Willingness
Nicksa (2011)	n= 299	Convenience sample of students in introductory courses in Sociology and Anthropology (coed)	CS	PCA OLS reg.	Private	Northeast	SV	Willingness

 1 CS = cross-sectional, L = longitudinal, PE = program evaluation 2 FA = factor analysis; HR = hierarchical regression; MANOVA = multivariate analysis of variance; MANCOVA = multivariate analysis of covariance; OLS reg. = Ordinary Least Squares regression; ANOVA = analysis of variance; PCA= principal components analysis; 3 NM = not explicitly mentioned 4 SV = sexual violence; DV = dating or intimate partner violence

Sample

The population from which the sample was drawn included all undergraduate students from the ages of 18 and 24 that were enrolled at the university in spring 2011. The registrar's office at the university provided the random sample stratified by class year (n=1100, or 275 per class year) to the author. Of the 1,099 students with useable contact information, 639 visited the website, 610 started the survey and 520 completed the entire survey. The overall response rate was 56% (n=610) and the completion rate was 47% (n=520). There are two analytic samples in the current study; the first includes 529 individuals and the second includes 533 individuals.²³ Only 5% of sampled participants who clicked the link did not enter the survey. Of those who clicked on the link and started the survey, 85% completed the survey. Four individuals who entered the survey but did not answer at least two questions were excluded from the final sample. The demographic characteristics of the entire sample and the analytic samples are presented in section one of chapter four.

Determination of the Sampling Strategy and Sample Size

The current study was conducted in spring of 2011 utilizing a random sample stratified by class year. The sample was stratified because the current study is a baseline survey for a longitudinal study to evaluate the effectiveness of a bystander intervention education program called Green Dot (Green Dot, 2010a). The university where the current study took place implemented the Green Dot program during the 2011-2012 academic year. During the 2013 Spring Semester, the current study's author will return to the university to conduct the first

²³ This discrepancy is due to the nature of the dependent variables. For each analysis, the sample was restricted to those respondents that did not have any dependent variable items missing. See the section in chapter 5 entitled "Adjusting for nonresponse and non-normality."

follow-up survey. The size of the stratified random sample that was requested from the registrar (n=1,100) was based on the assumption of a 50 – 60% response rate, as well as logistical and cost considerations. The smallest analytic sample for the current study includes 529 individuals. Based on the population size of the university, for a 95% confidence level, the confidence interval for the current study is 4.075 percentage points (Creative Research Systems, 2012).

Instrumentation

As mentioned, the survey instrument was acquired from and developed by Fisher, Coker,

Williams and Swan. The survey instrument contained the following sections:

- Demographics;
- History of victimization since the beginning of the 2010 Fall Semester (including stalking, cyber-harassment, sexual harassment, date rape drugging, unwanted sexual activities, dating violence and reproductive coercion);
- Help-seeking due to unwanted sexual activities or dating violence;
- Effect of dating or sexual violence victimization on academics or work;
- History of perpetration since the beginning of the 2010 Fall Semester (including stalking, cyber-harassment, sexual harassment, date rape drugging, unwanted sexual activities, dating violence and reproductive coercion);
- Past or current involvement in activities or discussions related to preventing dating or sexual violence;
- Self-reported actual bystander behavior (modified from the Bystander Behaviors Scale developed by Banyard, et al. (2005));
- Self-reported observed bystander behaviors (modified from the Bystander Behaviors Scale developed by Banyard, et al. (2005));
- Open-ended questions about strategies to prevent sexual and dating violence;
- Self-efficacy to prevent dating and sexual violence on campus;
- A reduced version of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999) (6 items);

- Depression and Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder;
- Alcohol use and abuse and exposure to alcohol education programming;
- Drug abuse;
- Knowledge and opinions of resources to help survivors of sexual violence at the university (adapted with permission from Evans and Lynberg (2010))

According to Coker, Fisher and Clear (personal communication):

The questions on demographics; stalking, cyber-harassment, sexual harassment, unwanted sexual activities, dating violence victimization and perpetration; help-seeking; and the impact of victimization were developed based on a review of measures used in national surveys such as the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey questions (see Black et al. 2011), the National Sexual Victimization of College Women Survey (see Fisher, et al., 2000), the National Violence Against Women Survey (see Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998) and the Sexual Experiences Survey (see Koss, et al. 1987). The questions on reproductive coercion were from measures developed by Miller, Jordan, Levenson & Silverman (2010). The research team (Swan, Coker, Fisher, and Williams) created the date rape drugging measures. The measures on bystander behaviors and self-efficacy were adapted from Banyard et al.'s (2005) Bystander Behaviors Scale. The measures on rape myths acceptance were from Payne, Lonsway and Fitzgerald's (1999) Illinois Rape Myths Acceptance Scale. The measures on post-traumatic stress, alcohol and drug use were from the Youth Behavior Surveillance System survey instrument (see CDC, 2012). The final section, added by the current study's author, was a replication of a study at George Washington University on sexual assault knowledge and awareness conducted by Evans and Lynberg (2010).

The entire instrument contained 144 questions. There were several skip patterns built into the instrument. Therefore, the number of questions a respondent was asked to answer was

dependent on his or her past history and experiences. The minimum number of questions presented to a respondent was 98. Additional questions were asked of respondents who reported a history of victimization; reported suspecting or being aware of the use of "date rape" drugs; reported attending a different university; reported attending training about preventing dating violence; and those who reported using alcohol. Also, respondents with no dating history were not asked questions about dating violence or reproductive coercion. The survey took approximately 20 - 25 minutes to complete.

Administration

After revisions were made to the instrument based on the results of the pilot test of the instrument in 2010 (conducted by Fisher, Coker, Williams and Swan) and the feedback of those involved in 2011, the final survey instrument was received from Dr. Williams on Thursday, March 24th. The random sample was received in a Microsoft Excel file from the registrar's office on Friday, March 25th. For the next two and half days, the current study's author and a staff member from the on-campus sexual assault program created letters and mailing labels in Microsoft Word, labeled envelopes, printed 1,100 letters and stuffed each labeled envelope with the pre-notice letter (see Appendix B), a list of community dating and sexual violence resources, and \$2 cash incentive for participation. On the afternoon of Monday, March 29, 2011 the letters were sent via campus and US mail.

By the afternoon of Tuesday, March 30th, the current study's author started to receive emails from sampled participants indicating that they received the letter and were willing to complete the survey. At that point, the current study's author concluded that the letters sent via campus mail had arrived. On the evening of Tuesday, March 30th, the email that included the

link to the web-based survey was sent to all students in the sample that had an on-campus address. The following day, the same email was sent to those students that lived off-campus. Reminder emails were sent every 2 - 3 days (on April 1, 3, 6, 9). A final email to notify students that the survey was ending was sent on April 10th. The survey ended on Sunday, April 10th at midnight. On-campus students had 13 days to complete the survey and off-campus students had 12 days to complete the survey.

As mentioned, the response rate was 56%. This rate was within the expected range due to the current study's adherence to Dillman's Tailored Design Method (Dillman, 2007). First, the questionnaire was respondent-friendly. That is, the questions were easy to comprehend, the instructions were clear, the order of questions was logical and the design was visually appealing and consistent (Dillman, 2007). Open-ended questions were kept to a minimum and the current study only asked about the past six months to make recall easier on the respondent. Also, since the survey was web-based, skip-patterns were used to reduce the burden on respondents and they could complete it at a time that was convenient for them within the 12 to 13 day survey period.

Second, Dillman's strategy for multiple contacts during the survey period was utilized in the administration of this survey. Prior to the survey, respondents received a pre-notice letter in an envelope with the university's name on it that informed them about the survey and included the \$2 cash incentive. Research has demonstrated that including a pre-notice letter in the design of a survey results in response rates that are 3 to 6% higher than studies without a pre-notice letter (Dillman, 2007). One to two days later, the respondent received the link to the survey instrument via email. Respondents were thanked for their participation and non-respondents (including respondents who started but did not finish the survey) received reminder emails every 2 to 3 days. Each contact included, as Dillman advises, the deadline for response, a reminder

why the survey is important, that their answers to the survey will be kept confidential, that participation is voluntary and whom to contact with questions (Dillman, 2007).

Third, the pre-notice letter and each email were personalized with the name or email address of the sampled party. The subject line and content was changed for each reminder email (see Appendix B to view the reminder emails). One reminder email was sent from a male staff member of the on-campus sexual assault program. Past research has demonstrated that personalizing correspondence and changing the mode of contact improves survey response rates (Dillman, 2007).

Fourth, respondents received a financial incentive before they were asked to complete the survey. According to Dillman (2007), "if a surveyor has made a goodwill gesture such as sending a dollar or two as a token of appreciation in advance, that produces a sense of reciprocal obligation" (p.153). Several studies have demonstrated that prepaying consistently improves response rates whereas promising payment afterwards does not (Dillman, 2007). For example, in a study of the effect of incentives on mail survey response rates by James and Bolstein (1992), one group received a prepaid incentive of \$1 - \$5, one group was promised a \$50 post-survey payment and the third group received no incentive. The first group had a response rate of 64 -71% (the response rate increased as the amount of money increased), the second group had a response rate of 57% and the no-incentive group had a response rate of 52%. Confirming these findings, a meta-analysis of 38 studies on the effect of incentives on mail survey response rates concluded: "only incentives provided with the initial mailing of the survey instrument had any significant or meaningful positive impact on response rates" (Church, 1993, p.73). A recent web-based survey conducted at a public university by Henson, Reyns and Fisher (2011) did not use any incentive for student participation. Henson, et al. (2011) emailed three waves of

invitations to participate to a random sample of 9,926 undergraduate students. The participation rate was 13.1% (Henson, et al. 2011; Reyns, Henson & Fisher, 2012). In a subsequent study on the same campus that included a \$2 pre-paid incentive with a random sample of 8,000 undergraduate students, the response rate was approximately 60% (Fisher, 2012).

Challenges in the Administration of the Survey

A large number (n=246 or 22%) of the sampled participants' contact information received from the university's registrar did not include a local address. Therefore, a good portion of pre-notice letters and incentives were sent to out-of-state,²⁴ or in some cases, international addresses (n=9).²⁵ Non-local addresses were most common for upper-class students, with 46% of juniors and 27% of seniors having out-of-state or international addresses. Of underclass students, only 14% of sophomores and 3% of freshmen had non-local addresses. A visual inspection of the address list also indicates that there were typographical errors that may have affected delivery.

Some sampled students contacted the current study's author to indicate that they had not received the letter or incentive that was mentioned in the email about the study. In these cases, the current study's author responded that the letter was sent to the address the registrar had on file and included the zip code associated with where the letter was sent. Also, two students contacted the current study's author to inform her that they were currently studying abroad and therefore were not going to complete the survey. A total of 41 letters were returned to sender. Surprisingly, 95% (39 of the 41) of the returned letters contained local, not out-of-state or

²⁴ The calculation of non-local addresses did not include "out-of-state" addresses that were in reasonable commuting distance to the university.

²⁵ It is unclear whether the international addresses were students studying abroad or home addresses for international students.

international, addresses. The two-step notification procedure that included a mailed introductory letter followed by an email invitation hopefully reduced the number of students that did not receive an invitation to complete the survey.

Limitations

The current study has several limitations of note. First, the current study relied on self-reports. This is a threat to validity because the accuracy of self-reports may be compromised due to social desirability, the sensitive nature of many of the questions and recall issues (Brener, Billy & Grady, 2003; Groves et al., 2004; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). The confidential, self-administered and web-based nature (as opposed to face-to-face) of this survey may have helped to mitigate inaccuracies due to social desirability and the sensitive nature of the questions (Fowler, 2009; Groves et al., 2004; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). To reduce social desirability bias, in the study design and correspondence with sampled participants about the survey, the study's author followed these steps as advised by Fowler (2009) on pages 108-109:

- 1. Minimize a sense of judgment; maximize the importance of accuracy
- 2. Use self-administered data collection procedures
- 3. Assure confidentiality and anonymity

In addition, asking respondents to "recall-and-count," i.e., consider a time period and tally the number of times they did something or something happened to them, is "prone both to omissions due to forgetting and false reports due to telescoping²⁶... Generally, the more events there are to report, the lower the accuracy of answers based on the recall-and-count strategy" (Groves et al., 2004, p.219). In addition, this survey asked respondents to recall unpleasant

²⁶ Telescoping occurs when respondents "erroneously report events that actually occurred before the beginning of the reference period" (Groves et al., 2004, p.217).

events (e.g., victimization of self or a friend) more than pleasant events. It may be that the nature of the questions helps to increase the validity of these responses because "memory plays tricks on us: we remember the time of infrequent unpleasant events (e.g., a visit to the hospital) differently than we remember the time of infrequent happy events (e.g., weddings)" (Langbein, 2006). In addition, the reference period was clear (since the beginning of the fall 2010 semester) and kept short (~7 months) to increase the accuracy of recall, reduce reporting error and prevent telescoping (Fowler, 2009; Groves et al., 2004; Langbein, 2006).

Second, the current study was cross-sectional and the data came from a single source at a single site. A major drawback of cross-sectional designs is that it is impossible to test causal effects or direction of causal relationships (Singleton & Straits, 2010). In the current study, the dependent variable measured self-reported bystander behaviors in the past six months. However, the temporal order is unknown, i.e., it is impossible to untangle whether covariates such as victimization or observing others engaging in bystander behaviors occurred before or after the respondent engaged in bystander behaviors. Longitudinal research may help to "untangle causal relationships" but "temporal order is not necessarily enhanced by the collection of longitudinal data" (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan & Moorman, 2008, p.264). In addition, data from a single source suffer from a common method bias or "systematic method error due to the use of a... single source" (Rindfleisch et al., 2008, p.261). That is, a third party did not verify the data reported by survey respondents. Third, the current study only included one private university, so the extent of external validity or generalizability, is limited (Singleton & Straits, 2010).

Despite these limitations that affect most, if not all, survey research, there are many strengths of the current study (as identified in the contribution to literature section above). The

results provide important insights into the roles bystanders on college campuses take and their thoughts and beliefs on how dating violence and sexual assault can be prevented.

CHAPTER 4

HYPOTHESES, DATA CLEANING AND ANALYSIS STRATEGIES Presentation of the Hypotheses

Each research question for the quantitative component of this analysis is listed below with its associated hypotheses.

- 1. What predicts whether a bystander will intervene?
 - a. What factors predict intervening as a bystander?
 - b. What factors predict intervening in dating violence and sexual violence situations specifically?
 - c. What predicts intervening proactively versus reactively?

Hypotheses H₁ – H₆:

H₁: Past experience with victimization will be positively associated with intervening as a bystander.

H₂: The observation of others intervening in bystander behaviors will be positively associated with intervening as a bystander.

H₃: Self-efficacy score will be positively associated with intervening as a bystander.

H₄: Rape myths acceptance score will be negatively associated with intervening as a bystander.

H₅: Female students, relative to male students, will be more likely to intervene.

H₆: Heterosexual students, relative to non-heterosexual students, will be less likely to intervene.

2. Are the correlates of intervening in dating violence (DV) situations²⁷ different from those associated with intervening in non-intimate partner sexual violence (SV) situations?

Hypotheses H₇ – H₁₃:

 H_7 : Past experience with victimization will be associated with intervening as a bystander in DV and SV situations. This is a two-tailed hypothesis (i.e., the direction of the association is not specified) because of a lack of empirical research in this area.

H₈: Observing others intervene in DV situations will be positively associated with intervening in DV situations but not SV situations.

H₉: Observing others intervene in SV situations will be positively associated with intervening in SV situations but not DV situations.

 H_{10} : Self-efficacy score will be positively associated with intervening as a bystander in DV and SV situations.

H₁₁: Rape myths acceptance will be negatively associated with intervening as a bystander in SV situations but not DV situations.

 H_{12} : Female students, relative to male students, will be more likely to intervene as a bystander in DV and SV situations.

 H_{13} : Heterosexual students, relative to non-heterosexual students, will be less likely to intervene as a bystander in DV and SV situations.

²⁷ As a reminder, dating or intimate partner violence can include sexual violence. The questions in the survey explicitly asked whether the act was perpetrated by a partner or someone other than a partner. For this section of the analysis, dating violence situations are those that were perpetrated by an intimate partner and sexual violence situations are those that were perpetrated by someone other than a partner.

Data Cleaning and Preparation

The data were downloaded from the Zoomerang²⁸ website in a Microsoft Excel file. As proposed by Long (2009), all files used in the current study were organized using a personalized directory structure, a research log was meticulously kept, a codebook was created, and "do files"²⁹ were used for the cleaning and recoding process in Stata. After the directory was created and a plan was written out in the research log, the next step was to create a codebook that included the complete wording of each survey question, its associated variable name, the assigned values and value labels for the response options. After some initial cleaning and recoding of open-ended responses (e.g., 'other' category for the race/ethnicity question) in Microsoft Excel, the data were exported from Microsoft Excel into Stata v11.2 using the software program StatTransfer v11. Then, the codebook was updated with columns that included frequencies and percentages for each variable, whether the survey question included a skip pattern, and if it did, the skip purpose (Long, 2009). Next, columns were added to indicate, based on the skip pattern, which population or sub-population answered that set of questions.

After the draft codebook was completed, a separate spreadsheet was created to assist with recoding of variables. Due to skip patterns, several questions were asked more than once to ensure all respondents were presented with the same questions. Therefore, these variables needed to be merged. A spreadsheet was created that included worksheets with the victimization, bystander, rape myths acceptance and self-efficacy measures for a one-stop reference while recoding.

²⁸ Zoomerang was the online survey software used to conduct this survey. Zoomerang merged with Survey Monkey in Fall 2012.

²⁹ In Stata, "do files" are text files that contain the syntax for the commands in Stata (Long, 2009).

Next, the "do files" necessary for cleaning and recoding were created, debugged and executed (Long, 2009). All variables and values were labeled consistently and logically. Then, after the recoding was complete, a Microsoft Word document was created that included the descriptive statistics for all cleaned and merged variables. After this process was completed, the data file was transferred to Mplus v7 for analyses via StatTransfer v11. The codebook was updated as needed.

Quantitative Data Analysis

To answer research question 1 and its subparts a - c, a multiple step structural equation modeling (SEM) approach, as recommended by Bowen and Guo (2012), was followed. First, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted. The EFA identified the latent factors associated with the 18 indicators on the self-reported bystander intervention scale.³⁰ That is, the "EFA is a data model that specifies the relations of latent factors to the manifest variables in an analysis" (Widaman, 2012, p.362). To allow for the factors to be correlated with one another, oblique rotation (geomin) was used (Widaman, 2012). Following the guidelines put forth by Worthington and Whittaker (2006), an appropriate factor solution was identified (see Chapter 6). Second, the EFA was followed by a more restrictive form of factor analysis: confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The CFA was a good fit, so the third step was to estimate a structural equation model (SEM) with the observed independent variables and each of the latent variables in order to identify the factors that predict engaging in the different types of bystander behaviors. This method is considered superior to running separate ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions

³⁰ MPlus used tetrachoric correlations due to the nature of the binary categorical indicator variables.

because CFA and SEM are able to "estimate the relationships among variables [while] adjusting for measurement error" (Brown, 2006, p.50).

Research question 2 was addressed by running a bivariate probit regression to estimate the factors associated with being a bystander in intimate partner violence situations versus nonintimate partner sexual violence situations. This method allows for the estimation of two regression equations simultaneously (H. Park, 2009), which improves the efficiency of the estimators (Cameron & Trivedi, 2010). That is, given that the likelihood of intervening as a bystander in an intimate partner violence situation is likely to be correlated with the likelihood of intervening as a bystander in a sexual violence situation, it would be inappropriate to estimate two separate regression equations to answer this research question.

Variables and Measurement

Demographic Variables for Research Question 1 and Research Question 2

Sex. In the demographics section of the survey, respondents indicated whether they identified as male, female or transgender. Only two respondents identified as transgender. This analysis is limited to those who identified as male or female. Approximately two-thirds (66.4%) of the individuals in the analytic sample identified as female.³¹

Sexual orientation. Another question in the demographics section of the survey asked:

- People are different in their sexual attraction to other people. Which best describes you?
 - Only attracted to females
 - Mostly attracted to females
 - Equally attracted to females and males
 - Mostly attracted to males
 - Only attracted to males

³¹ The demographic characteristics of the sample are compared to the university population in chapters 6 and 7.

• Not sure

Participants' responses were matched with their sex to create a "sexual orientation" variable that ranged from exclusively attracted to the opposite sex to exclusively attracted to the same sex. Three-fourths (75.1%) of the analytic sample identified as exclusively attracted to the opposite sex.

Dependent Variables for Research Question 1

A factor analysis of survey respondents' self-reported bystander behaviors was conducted to identify the latent factors,³² which "represent sources of individual difference that have influences in common across two or more manifest variables" (Widaman, 2012, p.362). The self-reported bystander behavior scale was adapted by Coker et al., (2011) from the Bystander Behaviors Scale developed by Banyard et al. (2005). This scale, as received from Coker et al., contained 15-items. Three items were added by the current study's author based on the focus of the current study, resulting in an 18-item scale. The items are presented in Table 4.1 in the order they appeared in the survey. Fifteen of the items (#4 - #18) had a preface that read: "Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall Semester, how many times have YOU done the following..." and respondents were asked to indicate how many times they did each item since fall 2010 or if they had not engaged in the behavior since fall 2010 but had engaged in the behavior before fall 2010 or, for 13 items, if they did not have the opportunity to witness this behavior. Prior to the factor analysis, the indicator variables were recoded by the current study's author to be binary variables (0 = did not intervene since fall 2010 or did not have the opportunity to intervene; 1 = intervenedsince fall 2010).

 $^{^{32}}$ I.e., "measures of hidden or unobserved phenomena" or "complex social and psychological phenomena... which are best measured with multiple observed items" (Bowen & Guo, 2012, p.16-17).

Table 4.1

Self-reported Bystander Behavior Survey Items

Jues	tion (VARIABLE NAME)	Re	sponse options
1.	Have you and your friends talked about activities or things you could do that might help	٠	0 times
	prevent sexual or dating violence at your university or in your community? (PREVENT)	٠	1 time
		٠	2 times
		٠	3-5 times
		٠	6-9 times
		٠	10 or more times
		٠	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 fall terr
		٠	Choose not to answer.
2.	Have you and your friends blogged, emailed each other or used other technology to discuss activities or things you could do to prevent sexual or dating violence? (TECH)	•	Same as question 1
3.	Have you talked with your friends about what you can do to keep yourself or others safe from sexual or dating violence? (SAFE)	•	Same as question 1
	e the beginning of the 2010 Fall Semester, how many times have YOU done the following Expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting very jealous and trying to control him or her. (CONTROL)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with no friend had a jealous partner.
5.	Spoke up if I heard somebody say that someone deserved to be raped or to be hit by their partner. (DESERVEIPV)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with didn't hear someone say this.
6.	Spoke up if I heard somebody say that someone deserved to be raped by someone other than a partner.* (DESERVESV)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with didn't hear someone say this.
7.	Talked to a friend who was raped or hit by their partner. (TALKIPV)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with no friend had this happen.
8.	Talked to a friend who was raped by someone other than a partner.* (TALKSV)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with no friend had this happen.
9.	Asked someone that looked very upset if they were okay or needed help. (UPSET)	•	Same as question 1 except choose not to answer w replaced with didn't see anyone upset.

Question (VARIABLE NAME)	Response options
10. Asked a friend if they needed to be walked or driven home to keep them safe. (WALKED)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with no opportunity .
11. Spoke up to someone who was bragging or making excuses for forcing someone to have sex with them. (SPOKEUP)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with didn't hear somebody say this.
12. Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt by a partner. (HELPIPV)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with no friend had this happen.
13. Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone other than a partner.* (HELPSV)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with no friend had this happen.
14. Discussed the possible dangers of drinking too much with friends. (DANGERS)	 0 times 1 time 2 times 3 - 5 times 6 - 9 times 10 or more times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 fall term.
15. Told someone I was concerned about their drinking. (CONCERN)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with never concerned about a friend's drinking.
16. Told someone that getting drunk puts them at risk for being a victim of violence. (RISK)	• Same as question 14.
17. Expressed my concern when someone was talking about how they got "so wasted." (WASTED)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with didn't hear somebody say this.
18. Made sure someone who had too much to drink got home safely. (GOTHOME)	• Same as question 1 except choose not to answer was replaced with never saw someone who had too much to drink.

Note. Items with an asterisk (*) were added by the current study's author.

Independent Variables for Research Question 1

History of victimization. The first independent variable cluster, history of victimization, includes three composite variables (sexual victimization, emotional intimate partner abuse victimization and physical intimate partner abuse victimization). The questions used to construct the **sexual victimization** composite variable were:

- 1. How many times have you had unwanted sexual activities with someone because they threatened to end your relationship if you didn't, or you felt pressured by the other person's arguments or begging?
- 2. How many times have you had unwanted sexual activities with someone because you were too drunk or high on drugs to stop them?
- 3. How many times have you had unwanted sexual activities because the other person threatened to use or used physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.)?

For the purposes of this analysis, the sexual victimization composite variable indicates whether a respondent *ever* experienced unwanted sexual activities (1 = if a respondent answered that any of the above items ever happened, 0 = none of the above items ever happened). Almost one-quarter (23.3%) of respondents reported experiencing at least one type of unwanted sexual activity in their lifetime.³³

There were nine items in the survey that measured experiences with **intimate partner abuse**:

1. My partner shouted, yelled, insulted or swore at me.

³³ 19.9% of respondents indicated that they experienced unwanted sexual activities *since fall 2010* (i.e., in the current academic year).

- 2. My partner posted mean insulting or humiliating comments about me either online (for example, Facebook page or blog) or in emails, texts or instant messages, or voicemails.
- 3. My partner threatened to hit, throw something at, or otherwise physically hurt me.
- 4. My partner destroyed something that belongs to me on purpose.
- 5. My partner tried to control me by always checking up on me, telling me who I could be friends with or telling me what I could do and when.
- 6. My partner pushed or shoved me.
- 7. My partner threw something at me that could hurt.
- 8. My partner punched or beat me up.
- 9. My partner used a knife, gun or something that could hurt me.

Two binary composite variables were created to indicate experience with intimate partner abuse. The first variable, **emotional abuse by an intimate partner**, was based on whether the respondent experienced items #1, #2 or #5. The second variable, **physical abuse by an intimate partner**, included the items related to physical abuse or threats of physical abuse (#3, #4, #6 - #9). More than one-third (39.8%) of respondents had experienced at least one form of emotional abuse by an intimate partner and 12.3% of respondents had experienced at least one form of physical abuse by an intimate partner in their lifetime.³⁴

Observing others engage in bystander intervention. The second cluster, observing others engage in bystander behaviors, includes 15 items. These questions were worded similarly to those used in the dependent variable (see Table 4.1) except respondents were asked "Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall Semester, how many times DID YOU SEE OR HEAR SOMEONE AT YOUR UNIVERSITY do any of the following:" (emphasis in original). These variables

³⁴ 35.6% of respondents indicated they experienced emotional intimate partner abuse and 10.8% of respondents indicated they experienced physical intimate partner abuse *since fall 2010* (i.e., in the current academic year).

were recoded (0 = 'did not observe since fall 2010', 1 = '1-2 times', 2 = '3-5 times', 3 = '6 or more times') and two 'observation of bystander behavior since fall 2010' composite variables were created. The first variable, **observed SV/DV related bystander behaviors** <u>since fall 2010</u>, was created by summing the number of times the respondent observed one of the eight SV/DVrelated bystander behaviors.³⁵ The average number of SV/DV bystander behaviors observed since fall 2010 was 1.8 (s.d.: 3.5, range 0 - 24). The second variable, **observed other helping behaviors** <u>since fall 2010</u>, was created by summing the number of times the respondent observed 1 of the remaining 7 bystander behaviors.³⁶ The average number of other bystander behaviors observed since fall 2010 was 7.5 (s.d.: 5.7, range 0 - 21).

Self-efficacy. The self-efficacy composite variable includes three Likert items, each with a four-point scale (1 =strongly disagree, 2 =disagree, 3 =agree, 4 =strongly agree).

- 1. I have the skills to help prevent dating violence and sexual violence on my campus.
- 2. I believe my peers will listen to me if I speak out against dating violence and sexual violence.
- 3. I feel that my personal efforts can make a difference in reducing dating violence and sexual violence.

To calculate the **self-efficacy** score, answers to these items were averaged.³⁷ A lower score indicated disagreement and a higher score indicated agreement. The alpha for these three items was 0.69.³⁸ The average self-efficacy score was 2.8 (s.d.: 0.56, range: 1-4).

Rape myths acceptance. The fourth cluster, rape myths acceptance, includes seven items³⁹ from the Illinois Rape Myths Acceptance Scale (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999),

³⁵ Items # 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12 and 13 in Table 4.1.

³⁶ Items # 9, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 in Table 4.1.

³⁷ Five individuals skipped one of the three items, so their average score is based on the two items they did answer.

 $^{^{38}}$ As cited in Stein (2007): "according to Bishop (2000), the magnitude of the coefficient is directly related to the number of items in the scale. He noted that shorter scales are acceptable with alpha coefficients in the high .60s or 70s" (p.82)

each with a four-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree). The full scale includes 45 items⁴⁰ with seven subscales: *she asked for it; it wasn't really rape; he didn't mean to; she wanted it; she lied; rape is a trivial event*; and *rape is a deviant event* (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999). The short form version includes 20 items.⁴¹ The seven items included in the current study are all included on the short form version. These seven items are listed below in the order they were presented on the survey. They included three "*she asked for it* (SA)" items, two "*she lied* (LI)" items, one "*rape is a trivial event* (TE)" item and one "*rape is a deviant event* (DE)" item.

- 1. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men. (LI)
- 2. It is usually only women who dress suggestively that are raped. (DE)
- 3. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them. (TE)
- 4. A lot of women lead a man on and then they claim rape. (LI)
- 5. Women that "tease" men deserve anything that might happen. (SA)
- 6. When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear. (SA)
- 7. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex. (SA)

To create the **rape myths acceptance** (RMA) variable, answers to these items were averaged (McMahon, 2010). A lower score RMA score indicated less acceptance of rape myths. The alpha coefficient for these seven items was 0.87. The average RMA score was 1.6 (s.d.: 0.51; range 1-4).

³⁹ This scale was reduced by the instrument's authors to minimize the length of the survey (Coker et al., 2011).

⁴⁰ Only 40 of the 45 items are scored because five items are "filler items." (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999).

⁴¹ Only 17 of the 20 items are scored because three items are "filler items." (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999).

Control Variables for Research Question 1

Two control variables were included in this analysis. The first control variable was included to indicate the amount of opportunity a respondent had to intervene as a bystander. One complication in the measurement of bystander intervention is how to measure whether the potential bystander even had the opportunity to be an intervening bystander. This issue remains unresolved among researchers that focus on bystander intervention on college campuses (V. Banyard, A. Coker, C. Gidycz, S. Nicksa & others, personal communication, July 10, 2012). In the current study, most of the bystander intervention questions used for the construction of the dependent variable included a response option related to whether the respondent had the opportunity to intervene. Some researchers have begun to use a two-step questioning procedure in order (A. Coker, personal communication, August 30, 2012; C. Gidycz, personal communication, August, 28, 2012; M. Murphy, personal communication, August 29, 2012; S. Nicksa, personal communication, August 29, 2012). That is, they first ask whether the respondent had the opportunity to intervene. Next, if the respondent indicated they had an opportunity, they are presented with additional questions about whether or how the individual intervened.

Due to the "no opportunity" option being included in the current study as a bystander behavior response option, controlling for it as an independent variable was determined to be the best solution. Questions #4 - #13, #15, #17 and #18 included a response option related to whether the respondent had the opportunity to intervene in the situation (see bolded items in Table 4.1). To control for the amount of opportunity of a given respondent, a **no opportunity** variable was created to indicate the number of times the "no opportunity" option was selected.

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The mean number of times the "no opportunity" option was selected was 3.9 (s.d.: 4.1, range 0 - 13).⁴²

The second control variable was included in one of the three regression equations, **alcohol use**. One of the latent dependent variables included three items that measured the extent to which bystanders intervened in alcohol-related situations (e.g., 'told someone I was concerned about their drinking'). Therefore, whether the respondent reported using alcohol was included as a control variable for this model. The majority of respondents (85%) reported using alcohol.

Table 4.2 (below) presents information on the measurement of each variable and the predicted direction for research question 1 (i.e., the hypothesized impact each independent variable will have on the dependent variables).

⁴² If a respondent indicated the 'no opportunity' option in the items that are used in the dependent variables, it was coded as zero.

Table 4.2

Measurement of Variables and Predicted Direction (Research Question 1)

riable Measurement		Predicted direction	
Dependent variables (Research question 1) All bystander behaviors in the past six	Exploratory factor analysis		
months	followed by confirmatory factor analysis based on an 18-item scale		
Independent variables	· · · · ·		
History of victimization			
Sexual violence	Binary variable based on 3 item scale (1 = experienced any item, 0 = experienced no item)	Positive	
Intimate partner abuse	Two binary variables for emotional abuse $(1 = yes, 0 = no)$ and physical abuse $(1 = yes, 0 = no)$ in an intimate relationship	Positive	
Observation of other people engaging in bystar	nder behavior in the past six months		
Observed sexual violence or dating violence bystander behaviors	Summed variable based on number of times observed each item on an 8-item scale	Positive	
Observed other bystander behaviors	Summed variable based on number of times observed each item on a 7-item scale	Positive	
Self-efficacy	Average score on a 3-item scale	Positive	
Rape myths acceptance	Average score on a 7-item scale	Negative	
Demographic variables			
Sexual orientation	Self-reported Recode based on response to sexual attraction question and self-reported sex	Female students more likely to intervene Non-heterosexual students more likely to intervene than heterosexual students	
Control variables			
No opportunity	# of items respondent did not have an opportunity to intervene		
Alcohol use	Binary variable $(1 = yes, 0 = no)$		

Dependent Variables for Research Question 2

To answer the second quantitative research question (i.e., are the correlates of intervening in dating violence situations different from those associated with intervening in sexual violence situations?), two binary dependent variables were created to indicate whether a bystander *ever* intervened in a non-intimate partner sexual violence situation vs. an intimate partner violence situation. The first variable, **SV bystander** (1 = yes, 0 = no), was created to indicate whether a bystander intervened in any of the following three non-intimate partner sexual violence situations (emphasis added):

- Spoke up if I heard somebody say that someone deserved to be raped by someone <u>other</u> <u>than a partner</u>.
- Talked to a friend who was raped by someone *other than a partner*.
- Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone <u>other than a</u> <u>partner</u>.

The second variable, **DV bystander** (1 = yes, 0 = no), was created to indicate whether a

bystander intervened any of the following three dating violence situations (emphasis added):

- Spoke up if I heard somebody say that someone deserved to be raped or to be hit <u>by their</u> partner.⁴³
- Talked to a friend who was raped or hit *by their partner*.
- Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt *by a partner*. Almost one-third (31.4%) of respondents were SV bystanders and almost one-third

(32.7%) of respondents were DV by standers. The majority of DV by standers were also SV

bystanders and vice versa (73.5% and 70.5%, respectively).

⁴³ Improper grammar was used in the survey in order to be gender neutral.

Independent Variables for Research Question 2

Six of the independent variables from the SEM model were also included in the bivariate probit regression model. These were:

- History of sexual victimization
- History of intimate partner abuse (emotional or physical)
- Self-efficacy score
- Rape Myth Acceptance score
- Sex
- Sexual orientation

The observation of others engaging in bystander behavior variables were replaced by two newly created variables to indicate whether SV- or DV-specific bystander behaviors were observed. Like the observed bystander behaviors variables in the SEM, each item used to create both variables was recoded (0 = 'did not observe since fall 2010', 1 = '1-2 times', 2 = '3-5 times', 3 = '6 or more times'). The first variable, **observed sexual violence bystander behaviors since fall 2010**, was created by summing the number of times the respondent observed someone at the university engage in one of the following three sexual violence related bystander behaviors (emphasis added):

- Speak up if somebody said that someone deserved to be raped by someone <u>other than a</u> <u>partner</u>.
- Talk to a friend who was raped by someone *other than a partner*.
- Get help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone <u>other than a</u> <u>partner</u>.

One-fourth (24.9%) of respondents indicated observing someone intervene as an SV bystander. The mean amount of observations of *someone else <u>speaking up</u>* in an SV situation

was 0.23 (s.d: 0.60, range: 0 - 3). The mean amount of observations of someone else <u>talking to a</u>

<u>victim</u> of SV was 0.23 (s.d.: 0.58, range: 0 - 3). The mean amount of observations of *someone* else <u>helping a victim</u> of SV was 0.08 (s.d.: 0.32, range: 0 - 3). After summing, the average amount of observed sexual violence bystander behaviors was 0.58 (s.d.: 1.4, range: 0 - 9).

The second, **observed dating violence bystander behaviors since fall 2010**, was created to indicate whether the respondent indicated ever witnessing another person:

- Speak up if somebody said that someone deserved to be raped or to be hit <u>by their</u> partner.⁴⁴
- Talk to a friend who was raped or hit *by their partner*.

Get help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt <u>by a partner</u>. Similarly, almost one-fourth (23.9%) of respondents indicated observing someone intervene as an DV bystander. The mean amount of observations of *someone else <u>speaking up</u> in an DV situation* was 0.29 (s.d: 0.66, range: 0 – 3). The mean amount of observations of *someone else talking to a victim of DV* was 0.20 (s.d.: 0.55, range: 0 – 3). The mean amount of observations of *someone else <u>helping a victim</u> of DV* was 0.07 (s.d.: 0.30, range: 0 – 3). After summing, the mean amount of observed dating violence bystander behaviors was 0.54 (s.d.: 1.4; range: 0 – 9). For interpretation purposes, these two variables were also categorized as "low," "medium" or "high" in descriptive statistics and the description of the results.

Control Variable for Research Question 2

In addition, the **no opportunity** variable was replaced by a **SV/DV no opportunity** variable that was restricted to the number of times respondents did not have the opportunity to intervene in the six items of interest listed above. The average number of SV/DV no opportunity items was 2.6 (s.d.: 2.7, range 0 - 6).

⁴⁴ ImpRoper grammar was included in the survey in order to be gender neutral.

Table 4.3

Measurement of Variables and Predicted Direction (Research Question 2)

Variable	Measurement	Predicted direction	
Dependent variables			
Bystander behaviors related to dating violence and sexual violence only	Two binary variables: DV bystander (1 = DV bystander; 0 = non-DV bystander) and SV bystander (1 = SV bystander; 0 = non-SV bystander)		
Independent variables	• • • • •		
History of victimization			
Sexual violence	Binary variable based on 3-item scale (1 = experienced any item, 0 = experienced no item)	Positive	
Intimate partner abuse	Two binary variables for emotional abuse (1 = yes, 0 = no) and physical abuse (1 = yes, 0 = no) in an intimate relationship	Positive	
Observation of other people engaging in S Observed sexual violence bystander behaviors	V & DV bystander behavior in the past six months Summed variable based on number of times observed each item on an 3-item scale	Positive	
Observed dating violence behaviors	Summed variable based on number of times observed each item on an 3-item scale	Positive	
Self-efficacy	Average score on a 3-item scale	Positive	
Rape myths acceptance	Average score on a 7-item scale	Negative	
Demographic variables			
Sex	Self-reported	Females more	
Sexual orientation	Recode based on response to sexual attraction question and self-reported sex	likely to intervene Non-heterosexual students more likely to intervene than heterosexual students	
Control variables No opportunity to observe SV or DV bystanders	# of items respondent did not have an opportunity to intervene in an SV or DV situation		

Table 4.3 (above) presents information on the measurement of each variable and the

predicted direction for research question 2 (i.e., the hypothesized impact each independent

variable will have on the dependent variables).

Multicollinearity

Two tests were conducted to check for multicollinearity for each model. First, a check of the variance-inflating factor (VIF) of all independent variables for both models indicated that the average VIF was 1.17. The range was 1.04 - 1.44. This indicates little to no collinearity (Gujarati & Porter, 2009, p.328). Second, the correlation matrix produced by Mplus was examined. There were no bivariate correlations were greater than 0.50.

Qualitative Content Analysis

To examine research question 3, the current study applied a qualitative content analysis approach, which is defined as "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In the survey, respondents were asked the following open-ended questions:

- 1. What things to prevent sexual and dating violence have you done, other than those listed above?
- 2. Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been most successful and why?
- 3. Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been least successful and why? The analysis of participant responses to these questions used a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Specifically, Glaser & Strauss' (1967) "constant comparison method" was used. Each response to each question was coded "into as many categories of analysis as possible" (p.105) and constantly compared to "previous incidents in the same and different groups coded in the same category" (p.106). Then, as categories (or codes and code families) began to accumulate, connections were made among categories and, when necessary, integrated

with one another. This integration aided in the reduction of the number of categories and the organization of the qualitative chapter.

The grounded theory approach views research participants as a "source of knowledge" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). This method was selected because it is an inductive rather than deductive approach. That is, it "allows for the generation of ideas through the research process, rather than the confirmation of ideas developed a priori" (Latta & Goodman, 2011, p.978). In the context of the current study, bystanders' opinions about what strategies are most or least successful may shed light on important areas that researchers have not yet explored. Although the primary focus was on the categories that emerged from the data (Glaser, 1992), the following guiding questions were also used:

- a. Do they mention intervening in dating or sexual violence situations?
- b. Do they tend to list actions that would take place before, during or after an incident?
- c. Do their answers tend to be proactive or reactive?
- d. Do their answers tend to be high or low risk?

CHAPTER 5

NON-RESPONSE, NON-NORMALITY AND TREATMENT OF MISSING DATA Survey Nonresponse

All surveys suffer from missing data (Heeringa, West & Berglund, 2010). In survey research, especially web-based surveys, missing data tends to be due to survey nonresponse (Särndal & Lundström, 2005). There are two types of survey nonresponse: unit nonresponse and item nonresponse (Lessler & Kalsbeek, 1992). Unit nonresponse refers to the extent to which someone who is invited to take the survey chooses not to do so (Lessler & Kalsbeek, 1992). Item nonresponse refers to the number of questions not completed by someone who chooses to take the survey (Lessler & Kalsbeek, 1992).

Unit Nonresponse

As mentioned above, 56% of those invited to take the survey began the survey (response rate) and 47% of those invited completed the survey (completion rate). According to Vehovar, Batagelj, Lozar Manfreda and Zaletel (2002), partial nonresponse can range from 5 - 37% depending on solicitation strategies and the length of the survey, so the rate for the current study is within the normal range.

Reasons for unit nonresponse vary widely. For web-based surveys with an email invitation, unit nonresponse could occur because the respondent did not receive or did not open the email (Dillman, Eltinge, Groves & Little, 2002). In addition, it is possible that the university registrar had erroneous or out-of-date contact information. As mentioned, many of the "local" addresses on file with the registrar were out-of-state, or in some cases international, which may have affected receipt of the introductory letter and the incentive. The universe of reasons for unit nonresponse in the current study is impossible to know but some possibilities are: the sensitive nature of the survey topic, the length of the survey or the timing of the survey (i.e., towards the end of the semester).

Item Nonresponse

The item nonresponse rate for the current study is displayed in Table 5.1. The table includes select variables that are presented in the order they appeared on the survey. Since "item nonresponse rates... are often higher for questions dealing with private or sensitive issues and those requiring the respondent to recall facts or past events that might be confused or unknown" (Lessler & Kalsbeek, 1992, p.118), sensitive questions, non-sensitive questions and the variables of interest in the current study's questions were included in the table to assess the extent of item nonresponse and overall survey attrition. Although the survey included skip patterns, the table below only includes questions that were not subject to a skip pattern (i.e., a respondent had to respond a certain way to a previous question in order to be presented with the question).

For the full sample, the overall item nonresponse rates ranged from 0.3% to 17.1%. The question "Were you a student at a different college or university before coming to [this university]?" was used as an anchor to establish the extent of survey attrition at that point in the survey. This question appeared after sections containing the most sensitive questions (i.e., those that asked about victimization and perpetration of stalking, harassment, sexual harassment, sexual victimization and dating violence). Assuming that respondents did not see the transfer student question as sensitive and therefore chose not to answer it, overall attrition at this point in the survey was low (4.1%). However, after this question, the full sample's item nonresponse rate doubled to an average of 9.0% in the section on self-reported bystander behaviors, then increased to an average of 16.3% in the section on witnessing others engaging in bystander

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behaviors.⁴⁵ In the bystander intervention question sections, respondents were asked to indicate the number of times they personally have engaged in a bystander behavior and the number of times they have witnessed somebody else engage in the same behavior. These questions may fall into what Lessler and Kalsbeek (1992) referred to as "those requiring the respondent to recall facts or past events that might be confused or unknown" (p.118). This task may have been difficult or too labor intensive for an already fatigued respondent, so they may have left the survey or skipped these sections. Since the last two questions on the survey had a nonresponse rate of 14.8%, some respondents chose to skip questions in this and other sections but did not leave the survey.

The problem of item nonresponse becomes clearer when the item nonresponse is analyzed by gender of the respondent. Female respondents were less likely to skip items and more likely to complete the survey. By the end of the survey female respondents had an item nonresponse rate of about 10% while male respondents had an item nonresponse rate of about 22%. By the time the respondents were asked the "transfer student" question, almost four times the amount of male respondents did not answer this question compared to female respondents. This is likely due to the victimization questions that appeared right before this question. Another sensitive set of questions, those that asked the extent to which the respondent accepted rape myths, had an average item non-response rate of 16.2 - 17.1%. However, the item non-response rate for these questions for male respondents was 25.1 - 26.1%.

 $^{^{45}}$ In between the section on self-reported bystander behaviors and the section on witnessing others engage in bystander behaviors were three open-ended questions. The item nonresponse rate for the open-ended questions ranged from 68.4% - 80.2% (an average of 75.0%). Therefore, these questions may have attributed to attrition at this point in the survey.

Table 5.1

Item Nonresponse Rate Total and by Gender

		Women	Men
	Item	Item	Item
	Nonresponse	Nonresponse	Nonresponse
	Rate	Rate	Rate
	(percent)	(percent)	(percent)
	n=610	n=391 ⁴⁶	n=215 ⁴⁶
<u>Demographics</u>			
Gender	0.3	0.0	0.0
Race/ethnicity	1.2	1.5	0.0
Highest education level of parent	0.5	0.3	0.5
Sexual attraction/orientation	1.3	1.0	0.5
<u>Victimization</u>			
Stalking/harassment (3 items)	0.7 - 1.2	0.8 - 1.0	0.5 - 1.4
Sexual harassment (2 items)	3.3 - 3.4	1.8 - 2.1	6.1
Unwanted sexual activities (3 items)	3.1 - 3.3	1.5 - 1.8	6.1
Dating violence (9 items)	14.1 - 15.1	14.3 - 15.1	13.5 – 14.9
Reproductive coercion (5 items)	15.9 - 16.6	15.1 – 15.9	17.2 - 17.7
Transfer student	4.1	2.1	7.9
Bystander Intervention			
Self-reported bystander behaviors	8.0 - 9.5	4.9 - 6.4	13.5 – 16.3
(15 items)			
Witnessed others engage in	15.3 – 16.9	11.0 - 12.8	23.3 - 25.1
bystander behaviors (15 items)			
Rape myths acceptance (7 items)	16.2 - 17.1	11.3 - 12.5	25.1 - 26.1
Depression	14.8	10.2	23.3
Alcohol use	11.0	7.9	16.7
Drug use	12.8	9.5	19.1
Additional Demographics			
School affiliation (within the	14.6	10.5	22.3
university)			
Fraternity/sorority involvement	14.9	11.0	22.3
Living arrangement	14.8	10.2	22.3

 $^{^{46}}$ The total of female students and male students does not equal the total number in column 1 due to missing data (n=2) and two respondents who identified as transgender.

Missing Data

Missing data are typically characterized as missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR) and/or not missing at random (NMAR) (Little & Rubin, 2002). When data is MCAR, the pattern of missingness is not affected by observed or unobserved variables; whereas missingness is assumed to be MAR if it is associated with both dependent and independent variables (Little & Rubin, 2002). For example, data are considered MCAR if "a printing error results in some pages of a testing booklet being missing for a subset of study participants" or "a researcher is collecting a short-term daily diary data from the residents of an island accessible only by a ferry that does not run in foggy weather" (Davey & Salva, 2010, p.49). In these examples, data resulting from a misprint or the weather is completely random. On the other hand, data are MAR if, for example, "students with higher math and verbal performance scores... are more likely to be in class on the day of testing" or "individuals with lower household incomes as measured at baseline are more likely to be lost to follow-up" (Davey & Salva, 2010, p.50). In these examples, characteristics of the sample predict their participation and/or attrition in the survey. In the case of the third category, missingness is assumed to be NMAR if it is associated with the values that are missing (Little & Rubin, 2002). For example, "individuals with higher (or lower) household incomes are less likely to provide income data" (Davey & Salva, 2010, p.50). Recently, Asparouhov and Muthén (2010) identified a fourth type of missingness called missing at random with respect to the dependent variable (MARX). That is, data that are missing due to the independent variables but not the dependent variables.

Since "there may be selective (i.e., systematic) processes that determine the probability that a particular value will be observed or missing" (Davey & Salva, 2010, p.48) in the current

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study, such as who is likely to complete a survey on dating and sexual violence or who is likely to skip a question of a sensitive nature, it is realistic to assume the missing data in the current study are not MCAR. Therefore, the assumption is that the missing data in the current study are likely to be MAR, or more likely to be MARX. That is, the *independent* variables, such as past victimization experiences, are more likely to be associated with the rates of item nonresponse than the *dependent* variable, bystander behaviors.

Non-Normality

To determine whether the data were non-normal, each variable was examined for skewness and kurtosis. According to Curran, West and Finch (1996), distributions are considered normal with skewness = 0 and kurtosis = 3. These scholars contend that "distributions begin to depart substantially from normality" when skewness >= 2 and kurtosis >= 7 (West, Finch & Curran, 1995, p.74). Table 5.2 displays the skewness and kurtosis for the dependent and independent variables in the current study. For the dependent variables used in the analyses, the original intent was to utilize ordinal variables, however a decision was made to utilize binary coded dependent variables due to the slight improvement in skewness/kurtosis and the marked floor effects of these variables (i.e., most of the sample selected 0). That is, although the ordinal variables are included in the table below they were not included in the analyses. They are in the table to demonstrate the improvements in skewness/kurtosis after recoding the variables to be binary. An analysis of the independent variables identified non-normality in the variables associated with observation of others engaging in SV or DV-related bystander interventions. The "Adjusting for non-response and non-normality" section of this chapter

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(below) explains the adjustments were made to minimize the problems associated with the non-

normality of the variables.

Table 5.2

Univariate Analysis for Non-normality of the Dependent and Independent Variables

	Ordi	nal	Bina	ary	Contir	uous
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
Dependent Variables (Research	Question 1	- EFA/CFA	/SEM mode	el)		
CONTROL	1.1	3.4	0.0	1.0		
DESERVEIPV	2.5	9.1	1.5	3.1		
DESERVESV	2.8	10.8	1.9	4.6		
TALKIPV	3.2	13.7	2.0	5.1		
TALKSV	2.9	11.6	1.8	4.1		
UPSET	0.0	1.6	-1.2	2.4		
WALKED	0.5	1.9	-0.4	1.1		
SPOKEUP	5.3	32.8	3.9	16.3		
HELPIPV	5.2	34.7	3.8	15.7		
HELPSV	4.8	29.5	3.6	13.6		
DANGERS	0.3	1.8	-1.0	1.9		
CONCERN	1.0	3.2	-0.1	1.0		
RISK	1.9	6.1	0.8	1.7		
WASTED	1.0	2.8	0.1	1.0		
GOTHOME	0.1	1.6	-1.0	1.9		
Dependent Variables (Research	Question 2	- Bivariate	Probit mode	1)		
SV bystander			0.8	1.6		
DV bystander			0.7	1.5		
Independent Variables (Researc	h Question	1 - SEM mo	odel)			
History of						
Sexual victimization			1.3	2.6		
Emotional DV			0.4	1.2		
Physical DV			2.3	6.3		
Observed SV/DV					3.3	15.9
bystanders						
Observed other bystanders					0.4	2.2
Self-efficacy score					-0.2	3.6
Rape myths acceptance					1.2	5.2
Female			-0.7	1.5		
Heterosexual			-1.2	2.5		
Additional Independent Variabl	es (Research	n Question	2 - Bivariate	Probit mod	lel)	
Observed SV bystanders					3.3	15.8
Observed DV bystanders					3.4	16.1

Note. **Bolded** items have a skewness>=2 or kurtosis>=7 (indicating non-normality).

Adjusting for Non-Response and Non-Normality

Due to concerns about non-normality and that the presence of missing data may lead to biased parameter estimates and incorrect standard errors (Davey & Salva, 2010), adjustments were made. First, the analytic sample was restricted to cases with no missing data on the dependent variables (N=529 for research question 1; N=533 for research question 2). Second, all multivariate analyses were run in the structural equation modeling (SEM) software program Mplus v7 using robust weighted least square (WLS) estimation.⁴⁷ This is also referred to as a pairwise available-case (Little & Rubin, 2002) or pairwise present method (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). That is, in the current study "only missing values on the two variables under consideration are ignored, not the entire case" (Tobler, 2009, p.64-65). The WLS estimator was selected over maximum likelihood because of its appropriateness for non-normal and categorical data (Brown, 2006; Bowen & Guo, 2012) and its ability to yield consistent estimates under the MARX assumption (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2010).

⁴⁷ Specifically, the mean and variance-adjusted weighted least squares (WLSMV) estimator offered in Mplus was used (as recommended in Bowen & Guo, 2012).

CHAPTER 6

FACTORS THAT PREDICT INTERVENING AS A BYSTANDER

This chapter is the first of three results chapters. Chapter 6 presents the descriptive statistics the results of the exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and full structural equation model that were conducted to examine research question 1: "What predicts whether a bystander will intervene?" Chapter 7 presents the results of the bivariate probit regression analysis that was conducted to examine research question 2. Chapter 8 presents the results of the content analysis that was conducted to examine research question 3.

Descriptive Statistics

Sample

All participants were full-time undergraduate students at a small private university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Table 6.1 displays the demographic characteristics of the analytic sample and Table 6.2 compares the analytic sample, full sample and the university population. The analytic sample for research question 1 includes 529 individuals.⁴⁸ The average age of the sample was 20.1. The sample participants were 29% freshman, 25% sophomore, 18% junior and 28% senior.⁴⁹ Two-thirds of the individuals in the analytic sample were female. In addition, 18% of the sample reported the highest parental level of education to be vocational, some college or less, one-fourth reported the highest parental level of education to be a college diploma and an additional 33% had a least one parent with a master's degree. The remaining 25% had at least one parent with a doctorate or professional degree. Three-fourths (75%) of the

⁴⁸ For each analysis, the sample was restricted to those respondents that did not have any dependent variable items missing. See the section in chapter 5 entitled "Adjusting for nonresponse and non-normality."

⁴⁹ This is close to what was expected because the original sample was stratified by class year. The lower number of juniors may be due to students being away from campus on study abroad programs.

sample reported they were exclusively heterosexual.⁵⁰ A little more than half (56%) of the sample lived on-campus. Approximately one-fifth (20%) of the sample were involved with a fraternity or sorority.

⁵⁰ Participants were not asked to identify their sexual orientation. Instead, they were asked to indicate which best describes their sexual attraction to other people: only attracted to females, mostly attracted to females, equally attracted to females and males, mostly attracted to males, only attracted to males and not sure. This variable was recoded with the participant's sex. Females who indicated they were only attracted to males and males who indicated they were only attracted to females were put in the "exclusively heterosexual" category.

Table 6.1

	Ana	Analytic sample 1		
	%	n	% missing	
Class Year			0.3	
Freshman	29.4	155		
Sophomore	25.2	133		
Junior	17.7	93		
Senior	27.7	146		
Gender			0.3	
Male	33.2	175		
Female	66.4	350		
Transgender ^a	0.4	2		
Race/Ethnicity			1.1	
White only	79.9	417		
Non-white or multiracial	20.1	105		
Highest level parental education			0.5	
High school/GED diploma or less	5.1	27		
Vocational or some college	12.7	67		
College graduate	24.3	128		
Master's degree	33.3	175		
Doctorate	9.1	48		
Professional degree	15.4	81		
Sexual attraction			1.0	
Exclusively attracted to same sex	3.6	19		
Mostly attracted to same sex	2.5	13		
Equally attracted to both sexes	1.9	10		
Mostly attracted to oppposite sex	15.7	82		
Exclusively attracted to opposite sex	75.1	393		
Not sure	1.2	6		
Living arrangement ^b			6.6	
On-campus	55.8	273		
Off-campus	44.2	216		
Greek involvement ^b	. –	-	6.7	
Fraternity	9.6	47		
Sorority	10.3	50		
Neither	80.1	391		

Demographic Characteristics of the Analytic Sample for Research Question 1 (n = 529)

^a Due to the low number of individuals identifying as transgender (n=2), this analysis is limited to individuals that identified as male or female.

^b Living arrangement and Greek involvement questions were asked at the end of the survey, so the relatively higher percentage missing is due to attrition.

Data on sex, age and race/ethnicity of the university population were received from the university. Table 6.2 displays the demographic information for the analytic sample and the university population. For these variables, one sample t-tests were conducted to determine if the sample means were significantly different from the population means. Results indicated that female students were over-represented in the sample. Age and average age were included for comparison purposes but should not be considered in an analysis of the representativeness of the sample due to the stratified nature of the random sample and that the sample was restricted to 18 - 24 year old students.

There were also statistically significant differences based on race or ethnicity. However, these results should be viewed with caution due to methodological differences in data collection. For the university's statistics, "students selecting Hispanic are counted as such, provided they are not International, regardless of whether they also select another race... After that, students are able to select all that apply and would then be coded as multiracial" (University administrator, personal communication, October 12, 2012). In the survey, respondents could check all races or ethnicities that apply. Also, students were not asked to indicate whether they were an international student. When answering the race/ethnicity question in the survey, a total of 29 students entered information into the open-ended 'other' option. The majority of responses to the open-ended 'other' option indicated the student was multi-racial. Ten participants (1.7%) in the full sample indicated they were of Arab or Middle Eastern descent, so a new category was created for this group of students.

Table 6.2

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample and Respondents

	Analytic	Survey	University
	Sample 1	Respondents	Undergraduate
			Population ^a
		(Spring 2011)	(Fall 2010)
	<i>n</i> = 529	n = 603 - 610	<i>N</i> = 6,466
% Female*	66.4%	64.3%	59.7%
		(<i>n</i> =608)	
Age			
18	14.6%	13.6%	21.1% ^b
19	24.4%	24.4%	24.2% ^b
20	22.3%	22.1%	$26.8\%^{b}$
21	22.3%	23.1%	$18.8\%^{b}$
22	12.9%	12.8%	3.9% ^b
23	2.8%	2.6%	1.3% ^b
24	1.3%	1.3%	$1.0\%^{b}$
Average age	20.1	20.1	19.7
		(<i>n</i> =610)	
Race/ethnicity ^{c, d}			
International ^b			7.0%
Hispanic	5.9%	6.1%	6.0%
Non-Hispanic ^{c, d}			
American Indian/Native	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
American only			
Asian American/Pacific Islander	3.5%	3.6%	6.3%
only			
Black	4.3%	4.1%	4.1%
White only**	79.9%	79.1%	58.9%
Multiracial ^e **	7.7%	7.6%	3.2%
Middle eastern ^f	1.3%	1.7%	
		(<i>n</i> =603)	
Unknown (missing)	1.3%	1.2%	14.1%

^a Includes all full-time, undergraduate degree-seeking students in fall, 2010.

^b International-student status was not asked in the survey. Therefore the race/ethnicity categories may include international students.

^c Race or ethnicity as provided to the Registrar's office in the student's admission application or later. ^d Self-reported race or ethnicity. Total adds up to more than 100% because respondents could check all that apply.

^e Self-reported in open-ended 'other' option or if respondent selected more than one race/ethnicity category.

^f Self-reported in the open-ended 'other' option.

*sample mean significantly different from population mean (p<0.05).

**sample mean significantly different from population mean (p<0.001) (interpret with caution).

Independent Variables

Table 6.3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the independent variables used to examine research question 1. This information on how each variable was constructed was also presented in chapter 4. The descriptive statistics presented in chapter 4 included all study participants whereas the table below is restricted to the sample used in this analysis. Percentages are presented for the binary variables (i.e., those who have experienced victimization, female, heterosexuals and those who reported they use alcohol). The remaining variables are continuous, therefore the mean, standard deviation (S.D.) and range are presented for each variable.

Table 6.3

	Variable type	%	mean (S.D.)	Range
History of sexual victimization	binary	23.3		
History of intimate partner abuse (emotional)	binary	39.9		
History of intimate partner abuse (physical)	binary	12.3		
Amount of observed sexual violence or dating violence bystander behaviors	continuous		1.8 (3.4)	0-24
None	categorical	51.7		
Low $(1-5)$	categorical	38.2		
Medium (6 – 13)	categorical	8.1		
High (14 – 24)	categorical	2.0		
Amount of observed other bystander	continuous		7.5	0 - 21
behaviors			(5.7)	0 - 21
None	categorical	17.8		
Low $(1 - 5)$	categorical	21.5		
Medium (6 – 12)	categorical	38.7		
High $(13 - 21)$	categorical	22.0		
Self-efficacy score	continuous		2.8	1 /
-			(0.6)	1 - 4
Rape myths acceptance score	continuous		1.6 (0.5)	1-4
Sex (female)	binary	66.4		
Sexual orientation (heterosexual)	binary	75.1		
Uses alcohol	binary	85.4		

Number of times responded 'No	continuous 4.	0 0 12
opportunity'	(4.1) 0 - 15

Seven items from the Illinois Rape Myths Acceptance Scale were used (1=strongly disagree, 4=strongly agree) to measure acceptance of rape myths. The average score of all items was low: 1.6. Table 6.4 displays the average scores for each item for the full sample and by sex. Similar to the findings of Suarez and Gadalla's (2010) meta-analysis of studies on rape myths acceptance, male respondents scored higher than female respondents on each item. This difference between the groups for each item was statistically significant (p<0.001).

Table 6.4

Rape Myths Acceptance

Item (i	in the order presented on the survey)	Full Sample	Women	Men	Two sample t-test
		Average	Average	Average	p<0.001
		(SD)	(SD)	(SD)	
1.	Rape accusations are often used as a	1.8	1.7	2.1	*
	way of getting back at men.	(0.76)	(0.72)	(0.76)	
2.	It is usually only women who dress	1.5	1.4	1.6	*
	suggestively that are raped.	(0.63)	(0.56)	(0.69)	
3.	Women tend to exaggerate how	1.4	1.3	1.6	*
	much rape affects them.	(0.62)	(0.56)	(0.69)	
4.	A lot of women lead a man on and	1.7	1.6	2.0	*
	then they claim rape.	(0.76)	(0.72)	(0.78)	
5.	Women that "tease" men deserve	1.3	1.2	1.5	*
	anything that might happen.	(0.54)	(0.43)	(0.65)	
6	When women are raped, it's often	1.6	1.5	1.8	*
0.	because the way they said "no" was unclear.	(0.70)	(0.64)	(0.75)	
7.	A woman who dresses in skimpy	1.5	1.4	1.8	*
	clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	(0.72)	(0.64)	(0.80)	

Note. 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, 4=strongly agree.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables for this analysis are based on responses to the 18 items from the self-reported bystander behaviors scale (see Table 4.1 in chapter 4). Factor analysis (FA) was used to identify the latent variables, or factors, associated with bystander behaviors. This process is useful to analyze whether the observed variables (i.e., the 18 items on the scale) can be "grouped into a smaller set of underlying factors or theoretical constructs" (Bowen & Guo, 2012, p.73). Two types of factor analysis were utilized to identify the dependent variables for the current study: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The latter confirms the findings of the former, as will be described in more detail below. The WLSMV estimator was used in both factor analyses.

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

As a first step, EFA was used to identify the types of bystander behaviors within the 18 items. The procedures followed were based on the recommendations for best practices put forth by DeVellis (2003), Worthington and Whittaker (2006) and Widaman (2012). As mentioned in chapter 4, oblique rotation (geomin) was used. Oblique rotation was chosen over orthogonal rotation methods because it allows for the factors to be correlated. Geomin, in particular, has been shown to be superior to other oblique rotation techniques, especially when items cross-load on more than one factor (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009).

The number of factors retained was based on substantive and empirical criteria, the scree test and Eigenvalues. First, factors were retained with Eigenvalues greater than 1 and based on an examination of the scree plot to confirm the existence of three factors (DeVellis, 2003,

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Worthington & Whittaker, 2006; Widaman, 2012). Second, items were deleted if they crossloaded (i.e., with a factor loading greater than 0.32) on more than one item (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Third, items were retained if the factor loading was greater than 0.40 (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003).⁵¹

The first EFA included all 18 items. The results of the first EFA indicated that three items (#5, #6 and #10 in Table 4.1 in chapter 4) should be removed due to high cross-loadings (i.e., factor loadings were greater than 0.60 on two factors). In the second EFA, three more items (i.e., #9, #14 and #18 in Table 4.1 in chapter 4) were removed due to cross-loadings greater than 0.32 on two factors. The third and final EFA resulted in a three-factor solution with 12 items (see Table 6.6). The Eigenvalues for each factor were 6.1, 1.5 and 1.4 respectively. Also, the Chi-Square of 40.58 (df: 33, p=0.1708), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.02; comparative fit index (CFI) of 0.997 and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) of 0.994 all indicate a good model fit (Brown, 2006; Widaman, 2012).⁵²

This process resulted in a three-factor solution containing 12 of the 18 items from the self-reported bystander behavior scale. Factor 1, "Proactive SV/DV bystander behaviors," consisted of three items. Factor 2, "Reactive SV/DV bystander behaviors," consisted of six items. Factor 3, "Alcohol-related bystander behaviors," consisted of three items. These three factors are the three dependent variables used in the subsequent analyses. Table 6.5 displays the correlations between the factors. Table 6.6 displays the factor loadings (i.e., unstandardized coefficients). Due to the categorical nature of the indicator variables, these coefficients are

⁵¹ Some researchers recommend a cut-off of 0.50 (see DeVellis, 2003). Only one retained item that was retained had a loading that was less than 0.50. Its loading was 0.477 in the first EFA.

⁵² General guidelines for model fit are a relatively low X^2 that is not statistically significant; RMSEA \leq .05, TLI>0.95, CFI > 0.95 and for CFA models, WRMR <0.90 (see Hu & Bentler, 1999; Yu, 2002; Brown, 2006; Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora & Barlow, 2006). The X^2 is considered the "classic goodness-of-fit index" but suffers from many criticisms – so readers are encouraged to refer to the alternative fit indices such as RMSEA, TLI and CFI to assess overall model fit (Brown, 2006).

interpreted as logit or probit coefficients (Muthén, 2005). Table 6.7 displays the descriptive

statistics for each of these items.

Table 6.5

Geomin Factor Correlations

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1.000		
Factor 2	0.565*	1.000	
Factor 3	0.378*	0.593*	1.000
* p<0.05			

Table 6.6

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results (Geomin Rotated Loadings) (n=572)

Survey question (VARIABLE NAME)	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Have you and your friends talked about activities or things you could do that might help prevent sexual or dating violence at your university or in your community? (PREVENT)	0.976*	-0.088	0.013
Have you and your friends blogged, emailed each other or used other technology to discuss activities or things you could do to prevent sexual or dating violence? (TECH)	0.606*	0.188	-0.012
Have you talked with your friends about what you can do to keep yourself or others safe from sexual or dating violence? (SAFE)	0.840*	0.019	0.060
Expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting very jealous and trying to control him or her. (CONTROL)	0.025	0.593*	0.103
Talked to a friend who was raped or hit by their partner. (TALKIPV)	0.197*	0.660*	-0.107
Talked to a friend who was raped by someone other than a partner. (TALKSV)	-0.005	0.917*	-0.150
Spoke up to someone who was bragging or making excuses for forcing someone to have sex with them. (SPOKEUP)	0.018	0.609*	0.285*
Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt by a partner. (HELPIPV)	-0.122	0.958*	0.032
Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone other than a partner. (HELPSV)	-0.193	1.066*	0.003
Told someone I was concerned about their drinking. (CONCERN)	0.007	0.008	0.790*
Told someone that getting drunk puts them at risk for being a victim of violence. (RISK)	0.168	0.019	0.668*
Expressed my concern when someone was talking about how they got "so wasted." (WASTED)	-0.006	-0.200	0.995*

Note. *p<0.05. Unstandardized coefficients are presented.

Table 6.7

Descriptive Statistics for 12 Items Retained in the EFA

Factors and items	% who reported "engaging in this behavior since fall 2010"	п	% Missing
Factor 1: Proactive SV/DV bystander behaviors. Have you and your friends talked about activities or things you could do that might help prevent sexual or dating violence at your university or in your community? (PREVENT)	36.9	566	7.2
Have you and your friends blogged, emailed each other or used other technology to discuss activities or things you could do to prevent sexual or dating violence? (TECH)	17.8	566	7.2
Have you talked with your friends about what you can do to keep yourself or others safe from sexual or dating violence? (SAFE)	48.9	568	6.9
Factor 2: Reactive SV/DV bystander behaviors. Expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting very jealous and trying to control him or her. (CONTROL)	49.0	561	8.0
Talked to a friend who was raped or hit by their partner. (TALKIPV)	14.5	557	8.7
Talked to a friend who was raped by someone other than a partner. (TALKSV)	16.9	555	9.0
Spoke up to someone who was bragging or making excuses for forcing someone to have sex with them. (SPOKEUP)	5.9	556	8.9
Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt by a partner. (HELPIPV)	5.8	554	9.2
Got help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone other than a partner. (HELPSV)	6.3	553	9.3
Factor 3: Alcohol-related bystander behaviors. Told someone I was concerned about their drinking. (CONCERN)	51.5	552	9.5
Told someone that getting drunk puts them at risk for being a victim of violence. (RISK)	31.0	555	9.0
Expressed my concern when someone was talking about how they got "so wasted." (WASTED)	48.1	553	9.3

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

After the EFA was completed, the next step was to enter the findings of the EFA into a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). It is essential to test the fit of the measurement model (i.e., the results of the EFA displayed in Table 6.6) with a CFA before proceeding to testing hypotheses in subsequent analyses (Bowen & Guo, 2012).

The procedures followed in the CFA were based on best practices put forth by Brown (2006) and Bowen and Guo (2012). All three factors were specified to be correlated with one another (see Table 6.5) and cases with missing data on all 12 dependent variables were excluded from the analysis (L.K. Muthén, personal communication, October 25, 2012). The model fit the data well⁵³ (X^2 : 78.6, df: 51; p=0.0077; RMSEA: 0.032, 90% CI: 0.017-0.045; p=0.988; CFI: 0.988; TLI: 0.984; WRMR: 0.866) so the model was not respecified.⁵⁴ Table 6.8 displays the unstandardized (B) coefficients with their standard errors, the standardized (β) coefficients, the item communalities and statistical significance.

⁵³ The X^2 test is significant, which indicates an inadequate fit. However, according to Byrne (2012), "although the X^2 statistic is always reported, decisions regarding adequacy of model fit are typically based on alternate indices of fit" (p.69). See footnote 4 to confirm that these alternate indices (RMSEA, CFI, TLI and WRMR) all indicate good model fit (Brown, 2006; Byrne, 2012; Bowen & Guo, 2012).

⁵⁴ The SRMR fit statistic is not reported in the CFA or the EFA model fit description because Yu (2002) demonstrated that the "SRMR does not perform well with binary indicators" (Brown, 2006, p.394).

Table 6.8

Observed Variable	Factor	B^{55}	SE	β	Communality ⁵⁶	p<0.001
PREVENT	Proactive	1.00		0.86	0.73	*
TECH	Proactive	0.87	0.08	0.75	0.56	*
SAFE	Proactive	1.05	0.08	0.90	0.81	*
CONTROL	Reactive	0.74	0.06	0.70	0.49	*
TALKIPV	Reactive	0.76	0.06	0.72	0.52	*
TALKSV	Reactive	0.84	0.05	0.79	0.63	*
SPOKEUP	Reactive	0.89	0.07	0.84	0.71	*
HELPIPV	Reactive	0.95	0.05	0.90	0.82	*
HELPSV	Reactive	1.00		0.95	0.90	*
CONCERN	Alcohol-related	1.05	0.09	0.82	0.67	*
RISK	Alcohol-related	1.06	0.08	0.82	0.68	*
WASTED	Alcohol-related	1.00		0.78	0.61	*

CFA Results (n=529)

Note. Due to the categorical nature of the indicator variables, the unstandardized coefficients are interpreted as logit or probit coefficients (Muthén, 2005). For factor loadings, please refer to the standardized coefficients (β).

In structural equation modeling (SEM), CFA is used as a precursor to multivariate

regressions that include the latent constructs (or factors) as dependent variables (Brown, 2006). The CFA component, which specifies how "the various indicator variables are related to the latent factors" (Brown, 2006, p.51), is called the *measurement model*. Figure 6.1 displays this model as a path diagram.⁵⁷ In the diagram, the circles indicate latent variables and the squares indicate observed variables (Bowen & Guo, 2012). Greek notation is used to represent the factor loadings (λ), the factor variances and covariances (ϕ) and the error variances and covariances (δ) (Albright & Park, 2009).

⁵⁵ By default Mplus makes the first variable the "reference" or "anchor" variable by setting the coefficient to 1.0 (Brown, 2006). However, this default was overridden based on a recommendation to make the variable with the highest factor loading in the EFA the reference variable (Brown, 2006).

³⁶ This column displays the "proportion of variance of the indicator that is explained by the latent factor" (Brown, 2006, p.131).

⁵⁷ Figure 6.1 is based on the components and notation of the path diagram as described by Albright & Park (2009). Figure 6.2 is based on the notation used at http://www2.gsu.edu/~mkteer/sem2.html

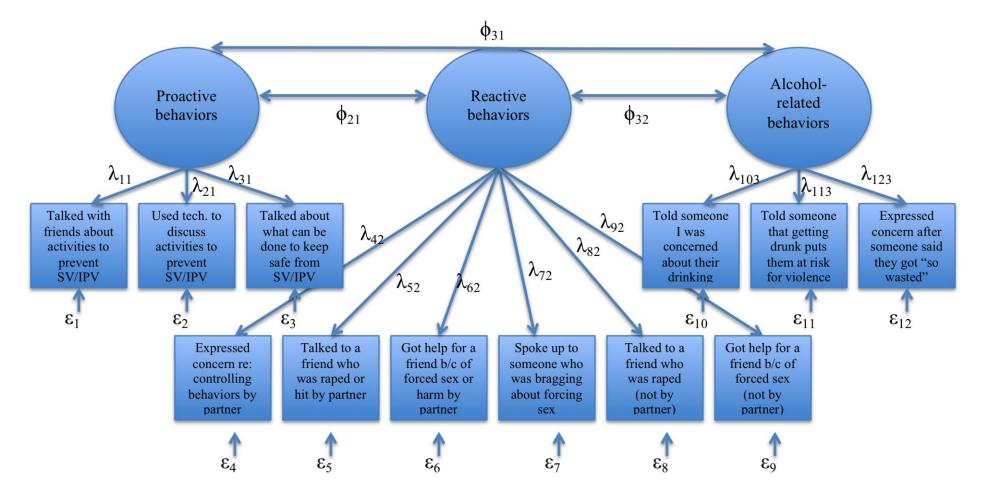


Figure 6.1. CFA path diagram (Measurement Model)

The Structural Equation Model

The *structural model* in SEM "specifies how the various latent factors are related to one another" (Brown, 2006, p.51) or how covariates (i.e., independent variables) are related to the latent factors (i.e., dependent variables) from the measurement model (Brown, 2006). The SEM includes multiple types of covariates to "estimate and test direct and indirect effects in a system of regression equations for latent variables without the influence of measurement error" (Muthén & Muthén, 2009, p.229). Based on the findings of the EFA and the CFA, the structural model contains three latent variables (1. proactive, 2. reactive and 3. alcohol-related bystander behaviors) and based on past empirical research, eleven observed (independent) variables (see Table 4.2 in chapter 4). Figure 6.2 displays the path diagram for the structural equation model. The "No opportunity" and "uses alcohol" variables have arrows that point toward (instead of away from) the latent variable because they are control variables (Bowen & Guo, 2012).

The model fit for the SEM is good ($X^2 = 215.0$, df: 153, p=0.0007; **RMSEA: 0.028**, 90% C.I.: 0.018 – 0.036; **CFI: 0.979**; **TLI: 0.966**; **WRMR: 0.728**). Each indicator, except for the X^2 , is within the range of acceptable model fit (see footnotes 4 and 5). Table 6.9 displays the unstandardized (B) coefficients with their standard errors and the standardized (β) coefficients with their level of significance.

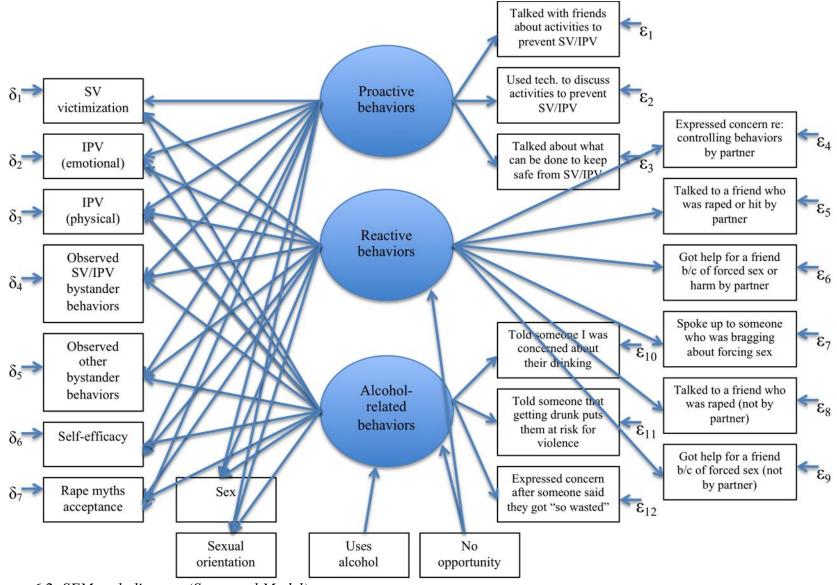


Figure 6.2. SEM path diagram (Structural Model)

Table 6.9

Regression Results (n=529)

	_	Proa	active			Reactive				Alcohol-related			
Variable	В	SE	β	р	В	SE	β	р	В	SE	β	р	
History of sexual violence	0.17	0.10	0.09	0.077	0.33	0.10	0.15	0.002	0.07	0.09	0.04	0.464	
History of intimate partner abuse (emotional)	-0.08	0.10	-0.05	0.394	-0.03	0.12	-0.01	0.830	-0.02	0.09	-0.01	0.837	
History of intimate partner abuse (physical)	-0.04	0.14	-0.02	0.755	0.25	0.16	0.09	0.125	0.29	0.14	0.12	0.037	
Amount of observed sexual violence or dating violence bystander behaviors	0.05	0.01	0.22	0.000	0.09	0.01	0.34	0.000	0.04	0.01	0.17	0.002	
Amount of observed other bystander behaviors	0.03	0.01	0.21	0.000	0.02	0.01	0.12	0.037	0.07	0.01	0.48	0.000	
Self-efficacy score	0.27	0.08	0.19	0.000	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.211	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.352	
Rape myths acceptance score	-0.31	0.09	-0.20	0.000	-0.14	0.10	-0.08	0.164	0.04	0.08	0.03	0.595	
Sex (female)	0.31	0.09	0.18	0.000	-0.02	0.12	-0.01	0.855	0.26	0.09	0.16	0.002	
Sexual orientation (heterosexual)	-0.12	0.09	-0.06	0.190	-0.05	0.11	-0.02	0.634	0.00	0.09	0.00	0.981	
Uses alcohol									-0.24	0.10	-0.11	0.020	
Number of times responded "no opportunity"					-0.07	0.01	-0.32	0.000	-0.02	0.01	-0.10	0.034	
R^2		32	.7%			40	.4%			42.	.7%		

Note. p<0.05 are in **bold**.

Predictors of the latent variable representing *proactive bystander behaviors* included observing other people engage in bystander behaviors in sexual violence, dating violence and other situations, the respondent's self-efficacy score, low rape myths acceptance and being female. Meanwhile, predictors of *reactive bystander behaviors* included having a history of sexual violence and observing other people engage in sexual violence, dating violence and other helping behaviors. Finally, predictors of *alcohol-related bystander behaviors* included having a history of physical abuse in an intimate relationship, observing others engage in sexual violence, dating violence, dating violence, dating violence, and other helping behaviors and being female. In addition, using alcohol was significantly but negatively associated with being a bystander in alcohol-related situations. Moreover, as expected, not having the opportunity to intervene was significantly and negatively associated with intervening. Figure 6.3 displays the results of the SEM graphically with different colors indicating the significant associations between the observed independent variables and each latent variable.

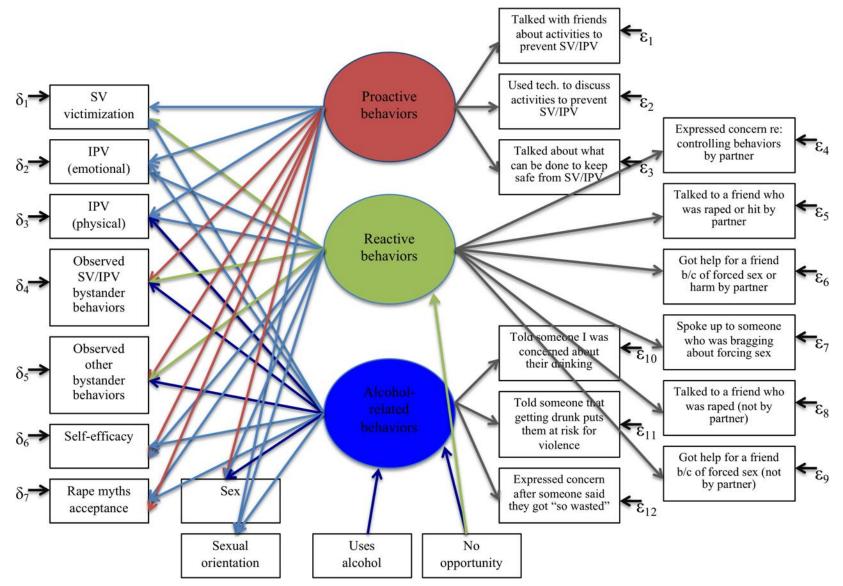


Figure 6.3. SEM path diagram (Structural Model results without coefficients)

CHAPTER 7

CORRELATES OF INTERVENING IN INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE AND NON-INTIMATE PARTNER SEXUAL VIOLENCE SITUATIONS

This chapter presents the results for research question 2: "Are the correlates of intervening in intimate partner violence situations different from those associated with intervening in non-intimate partner sexual violence situations?" Since intervening in sexual violence is correlated with intervening in dating violence situations, bivariate probit regression was used to address this question. This method allows for the estimation of two equations simultaneously (H. Park, 2009), which improves the efficiency of the estimators (Cameron & Trivedi, 2010). This chapter presents the descriptive statistics of the sample and the variables used in the analyses. It also presents the results of the bivariate probit regression model.

Descriptive Statistics

Sample

All participants were full-time undergraduate students at a small private university in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Table 7.1 displays the demographic characteristics of the analytic sample⁵⁸ and Table 7.2 compares the analytic sample, full sample and the university population. The analytic sample for research question 2 includes 533 individuals.⁵⁹ The average age of the sample was 20.1. The sample participants were 29% freshman, 25% sophomore, 18% junior and 28% senior.⁶⁰ Two-thirds of the individuals in the analytic sample were female. In

⁵⁸ The analytic sample used in this analysis is almost exactly the same as the analytic sample used in the previous analysis.

⁵⁹ For each analysis, the sample was restricted to those respondents that did not have any dependent variable items missing. See the section in chapter 5 entitled "Adjusting for nonresponse and non-normality."

⁶⁰ This is close to what was expected because the original sample was stratified by class year. The lower number of juniors may be due to students being away from campus on study abroad programs.

addition, 18% of the sample reported the highest parental level of education to be vocational, some college or less, one-fourth reported the highest parental level of education to be a college diploma and an additional 33% had a least one parent with a master's degree. The remaining 25% had at least one parent with a doctorate or professional degree. Three-fourths (75%) of the sample reported they were exclusively heterosexual.⁶¹ A little more than half (56%) of the sample lived on-campus. Approximately one-fifth (20%) of the sample were involved with a fraternity or sorority.

⁶¹ Participants were not asked to identify their sexual orientation. Instead, they were asked to indicate which best describes their sexual attraction to other people: only attracted to females, mostly attracted to females, equally attracted to females and males, mostly attracted to males, only attracted to males and not sure. This variable was recoded with the participant's sex. Females who indicated they were only attracted to males and males who indicated they were only attracted to females were put in the "exclusively heterosexual" category.

Table 7.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Analytic Sample for Research Question 2 (n = 533)

	Analytic Sample 2			
	%	n	% missing	
Class Year			0.3	
Freshman	29.4	156		
Sophomore	24.9	132		
Junior	17.9	95		
Senior	27.9	148		
Gender			0.3	
Male	33.0	175		
Female	66.7	354		
Transgender ^a	0.4	2		
Race/Ethnicity			1.1	
White only	80.0	421		
Non-white or multiracial	20.0	105		
Highest level parental education			0.5	
High school/GED diploma or less	5.1	27		
Vocational or some college	12.7	67		
College graduate	24.5	130		
Master's degree	33.2	176		
Doctorate	8.9	47		
Professional degree	15.7	83		
Sexual attraction			1.0	
Exclusively attracted to same sex	3.6	19		
Mostly attracted to same sex	2.5	13		
Equally attracted to both sexes	1.9	10		
Mostly attracted to oppposite sex	16.3	86		
Exclusively attracted to opposite sex	74.6	393		
Not sure	1.1	6		
Living arrangement ^b			6.4	
On-campus	55.7	275		
Off-campus	44.3	219		
Greek involvement ^b			6.6	
Fraternity	9.7	48		
Sorority	10.3	51		
Neither	80.0	394		

^a Due to the low number of individuals identifying as transgender (n=2), this analysis is limited to individuals that identified as male or female.

^b Living arrangement and Greek involvement questions were asked at the end of the survey, so the relatively higher percentage missing is due to attrition.

Data on sex, age and race/ethnicity of the university population were received from the university. Table 7.2 displays the demographic information for the analytic sample and the university population. For these variables, one sample t-tests were conducted to determine if the sample means were significantly different from the population means. Results indicated that females were over-represented in the sample. Age and average age were included for comparison purposes but should not be considered in an analysis of the representativeness of the sample due to the stratified nature of the random sample and that the sample was restricted to 18 – 24 year old students.

There were also statistically significant differences based on race or ethnicity. However, these results should be viewed with caution due to methodological differences in data collection. For the university's statistics, "students selecting Hispanic are counted as such, provided they are not International, regardless of whether they also select another race... After that, students are able to select all that apply and would then be coded as multiracial" (University administrator, personal communication, October 12, 2012). In the survey, respondents could check all races or ethnicities that apply. Also, students were not asked to indicate whether they were an international student. When answering the race/ethnicity question in the survey, a total of 29 students entered information into the open-ended 'other' option. The majority of responses to the open-ended 'other' option indicated the student was multi-racial. Ten participants (1.7%) in the full sample indicated they were of Arab or Middle Eastern descent, so a new category was created for this group of students.

Table 7.2

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample and Respondents

	Analytic	Survey	University
	Sample 2	Respondents	Undergraduate
			Population ^a
		(Spring 2011)	(Fall 2010)
	<i>n</i> = 533	n = 603 - 610	<i>N</i> = 6,466
% Female*	66.7%	64.3%	59.7%
		(<i>n</i> =608)	
Age			
18	14.8%	13.6%	21.1% ^b
19	23.6%	24.4%	24.2% ^b
20	22.3%	22.1%	26.8% ^b
21	22.5%	23.1%	18.8% ^b
22	13.1%	12.8%	3.9% ^b
23	2.3%	2.6%	1.3% ^b
24	1.3%	1.3%	1.0% ^b
Average age	20.1	20.1	19.7
a d		(<i>n</i> =610)	
Race/ethnicity ^{c, d}			
International ^b			7.0%
Hispanic	6.1%	6.1%	6.0%
Non-Hispanic ^{c, d}			
American Indian/Native American	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
only	2 (1)	0	
Asian American/Pacific Islander	3.4%	3.6%	6.3%
only	4.00/	4 10/	4.10/
Black	4.2%	4.1%	4.1%
White only**	80.0%	79.1%	58.9%
Multiracial ^e **	7.4%	7.6%	3.2%
Middle eastern ^f	1.3%	1.7%	
	1 20/	(<i>n</i> =603)	1 / 10/
Unknown (missing)	1.3%	1.2%	14.1%

^a Includes all full-time, undergraduate degree-seeking students in fall, 2010.

^b International-student status was not asked in the survey. Therefore the race/ethnicity categories may include international students.

^c Race or ethnicity as provided to the Registrar's office in the student's admission application or later. ^d Self-reported race or ethnicity. Total adds up to more than 100% because respondents could check all that apply.

^e Self-reported in open-ended 'other' option or if respondent selected more than one race/ethnicity category.

^f Self-reported in the open-ended 'other' option.

*sample mean significantly different from population mean (p<0.05).

**sample mean significantly different from population mean (p<0.001) (interpret with caution).

Independent Variables

Table 7.3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the independent variables used in the bivariate probit model. This information on how each variable was constructed was also presented in chapter 4. The descriptive statistics presented in chapter 4 included all study participants whereas the table below is restricted to the sample used in this analysis. Percentages are presented for the binary or categorical variables. The remaining variables are continuous, therefore the mean, standard deviation (S.D.) and range are presented for each variable.

Dependent Variables

As mentioned in chapter 4, the dependent variables for this analysis are **SV bystander** (1 = yes, 0 = no) and **DV bystander** (1 = yes, 0 = no). Almost a third (31.4%) of respondents were SV bystanders and almost a third (32.7%) of respondents were DV bystanders. The majority of DV bystanders were also SV bystanders and vice versa (73.5% and 70.5%, respectively).

Table 7.3

Descriptive Statistics of the Independent Variables for Research Question 2 (n=533)

	Variable type	%	Mean (S.D.)	Range
History of sexual victimization	binary	22.9		
History of intimate partner abuse (emotional)	binary	39.7		
History of intimate partner abuse (physical)	binary	11.8		
Amount of observed sexual violence bystander behaviors	continuous		0.58 (1.4)	0-9
None	categorical	77.5		
Low (1-2)	categorical	12.8		
Medium (3-5)	categorical	7.7		
High (6-9)	categorical	2.0		
Amount of observed dating violence bystander behaviors	continuous		0.54 (1.4)	0-9
None	categorical	78.6		
Low (1-2)	categorical	13.1		
Medium (3-5)	categorical	6.3		
High (6-9)	categorical	2.0		
Self-efficacy score	continuous		2.8 (0.6)	1 - 4
Rape myths acceptance score	continuous		1.5 (0.5)	1 - 4
Sex (female)	binary	66.9		
Sexual orientation (heterosexual)	binary	75.4		
Number of times responded "no opportunity"	continuous		2.7 (2.7)	0-6

Note. Alcohol use was not included in this model.

Bivariate Probit Regression Results

For this analysis, the sample was restricted to include only observations without missing values on the six items⁶² that were used to construct the two dependent variables. Table 7.4 displays the unstandardized (B) coefficients with their standard errors and the standardized (β) coefficients with their level of significance.

Table 7.4

Bivariate Probit Regression Results $(n=533)$

	SV by	stander		DV bystander			
В	SE		р	В	SE	β	р
0.31	0.11	0.13	0.006	0.42	0.11	0.18	0.000
-0.07	0.12	-0.03	0.557	-0.12	0.11	-0.06	0.280
0.25	0.16	0.08	0.127	0.22	0.16	0.07	0.175
0.44	0.04	0.62	0.000	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.972
-0.17	0.05	-0.22	0.001	0.32	0.03	0.43	0.000
-0.01	0.09	-0.00	0.951	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.180
-0.31	0.10	-0.16	0.003	-0.19	0.10	-0.10	0.060
0.11	0.12	0.05	0.339	0.15	0.11	0.07	0.171
-0.19	0.11	-0.08	0.094	-0.11	0.11	-0.05	0.323
-0.11	0.02	-0.30	0.000	-0.13	0.02	-0.35	0.000
	0.31 -0.07 0.25 0.44 -0.17 -0.01 -0.31 0.11 -0.19	B SE 0.31 0.11 -0.07 0.12 0.25 0.16 0.44 0.04 -0.17 0.05 -0.01 0.09 -0.31 0.10 0.11 0.12 -0.19 0.11	B SE β 0.31 0.11 0.13 -0.07 0.12 -0.03 0.25 0.16 0.08 0.44 0.04 0.62 -0.17 0.05 -0.22 -0.01 0.09 -0.00 -0.31 0.10 -0.16 0.11 0.12 0.05 -0.19 0.11 -0.08	0.31 0.11 0.13 0.006 -0.07 0.12 -0.03 0.557 0.25 0.16 0.08 0.127 0.44 0.04 0.62 0.000 -0.17 0.05 -0.22 0.001 -0.31 0.10 -0.16 0.003 0.11 0.12 0.05 0.339 -0.19 0.11 -0.08 0.094	B SE β p B 0.31 0.11 0.13 0.006 0.42 -0.07 0.12 -0.03 0.557 -0.12 0.25 0.16 0.08 0.127 0.22 0.44 0.04 0.62 0.000 0.00 -0.17 0.05 -0.22 0.001 0.32 -0.01 0.09 -0.00 0.951 0.11 -0.31 0.10 -0.16 0.003 -0.19 0.11 0.12 0.05 0.339 0.15 -0.19 0.11 -0.08 0.094 -0.11	B SE β p B SE 0.31 0.11 0.13 0.006 0.42 0.11 -0.07 0.12 -0.03 0.557 -0.12 0.11 0.25 0.16 0.08 0.127 0.22 0.16 0.44 0.04 0.62 0.000 0.00 0.04 -0.17 0.05 -0.22 0.001 0.32 0.03 -0.01 0.09 -0.00 0.951 0.11 0.08 -0.31 0.10 -0.16 0.003 -0.19 0.10 0.11 0.12 0.05 0.339 0.15 0.11 -0.19 0.11 -0.08 0.094 -0.11 0.11 <td>BSEβpBSEβ0.310.110.130.0060.420.110.18-0.070.12-0.030.557-0.120.11-0.060.250.160.080.1270.220.160.070.440.040.620.0000.000.040.00-0.170.05-0.220.0010.320.030.43-0.010.09-0.000.9510.110.080.06-0.310.10-0.160.003-0.190.10-0.100.110.120.050.3390.150.110.07-0.190.11-0.080.094-0.110.11-0.05</td>	BSE β pBSE β 0.310.110.130.0060.420.110.18-0.070.12-0.030.557-0.120.11-0.060.250.160.080.1270.220.160.070.440.040.620.0000.000.040.00-0.170.05-0.220.0010.320.030.43-0.010.09-0.000.9510.110.080.06-0.310.10-0.160.003-0.190.10-0.100.110.120.050.3390.150.110.07-0.190.11-0.080.094-0.110.11-0.05

⁶² i.e., DESERVEIPV, DESERVESV, TALKIPV, TALKSV, HELPIPV, and HELPSV (see Table 4.1).

In this analysis, having a history of sexual violence was positively associated with intervening in both sexual violence and dating violence situations. Observing others engage in sexual violence bystander behaviors was positively associated with engaging in sexual violence bystander behaviors. Observing others engage in dating violence behaviors was *positively* associated with engaging in dating violence situations but *negatively* associated with engaging in sexual violence situations. Rape myths acceptance was negatively associated with intervening in sexual violence situations. Again, as expected, not having the opportunity to intervene was negatively associated with intervening for both types of interventions.

Predicted Probabilities

Since the standardized coefficients presented in Table 7.4 "cannot be interpreted directly" (Long, 1997, p.49), a helpful way to interpret the results of a bivariate probit is to calculate and examine the predicted probabilities⁶³ associated with different values of each independent variable (Long, 1997). Tables 7.5 and 7.7 display the predicted probabilities of engaging in SV and DV bystander behaviors by specific values of the independent variables. The "MIN" column displays the predicted probability for the minimum value of the variable. That is, this column reflects individuals who have not experienced sexual violence, emotional abuse in an intimate relationship or physical abuse in an intimate relationship; individuals who have not observed any SV or DV bystander behaviors; individuals with the lowest score on the self-efficacy scale (indicating low self-efficacy); individuals with the lowest score on the rape myths acceptance scale (indicating low rape myths acceptance); males and non-heterosexuals. The "MAX" column displays the predicted probability for the maximum value of the variable. That

⁶³ Predicted probabilities were calculated in Microsoft Excel using the calculator created by Cheng & Long (2000).

is, this column reflects individuals who have experienced sexual violence, emotional abuse in an intimate relationship, physical abuse in an intimate relationship; individuals who have observed all SV or DV bystander behaviors six or more times; individuals with the highest score on the self-efficacy scale (indicating high self-efficacy); individuals with the highest score on the rape myths acceptance scale (indicating high rape myths acceptance); females and heterosexuals. The "DIFF" column indicates the difference between the "MAX" column and the "MIN" column. Each predicted probability was calculated separately with the other variables held at their mean values.

Intervening in sexual violence situations. Table 7.5 displays the results of the predicted probabilities calculations for intervening in SV situations. For individuals who have experienced sexual violence, the predicted probability of intervening in sexual violence situations is 0.35. There is a 0.10-point difference between those without a history of SV and those with a history of SV; i.e., those who experienced this type of violence were more likely to intervene in this type of situation. The number of observed DV situations was negatively associated with intervening in an SV situation. As the number of observed DV situations increased, the predicted probability of engaging in an SV situation decreased an average of 0.03 points. Rape myths acceptance was also negatively associated with intervening as an SV bystander. Those with low rape myths acceptance had a predicted probability of intervening as an SV bystander of 0.33 whereas those with high rape myths acceptance had a predicted probability of intervening as an SV bystander of 0.03 points. By bystander of 0.04 (a 0.24 point change).

Most of the non-significant independent variables had negligible differences between their minimum and maximum values. Although both emotional abuse and physical abuse are not significant, it is interesting to note that those who experienced emotional abuse were slightly *less*

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likely to intervene in SV situations when compared to those who have not experienced emotional

abuse. Meanwhile, those who experienced physical abuse were slightly more likely to intervene

in SV situations when compared with those who have not experienced physical abuse.

Table 7.5

	C T .	· a 1	TT: 1 C:
Predicted Probabilities	of Intervening	' in Sexual	Violence Situations
i i carcica i i coacinites	of invervenus		i l'éléliée Sillelié

	MIN	MAX	DIFF
History of sexual victimization*	0.25	0.35	+0.10
History of intimate partner abuse (emotional)	0.28	0.26	-0.02
History of intimate partner abuse (physical)	0.26	0.35	+0.09
Amount of observed SV bystander behaviors*	0.19	0.99	+0.80
Amount of observed DV bystander behaviors*	0.30	0.02	-0.28
Self-efficacy score	0.27	0.27	0.00
Rape myths acceptance score*	0.33	0.09	-0.24
Sex (female)	0.25	0.28	+0.03
Sexual orientation (heterosexual)	0.32	0.26	-0.06
Number of times responded "no opportunity" to SV/DV items*	0.38	0.17	-0.21

*Statistically significant variables (p<0.05). Note. Predicted probabilities at mean are presented for continuous variables only.

The largest change was based on the number of observed SV bystander behaviors. As a reminder, this variable was created by summing the number of times (0 = did not observe since fall 2010, 1 = 1-2 times, 2 = 3-5 times, 3 = 6 or more times) a respondent indicated observing someone else engage in one of three SV bystander behaviors since fall 2010 (range 0 - 9). Therefore, the number associated with this variable is not the number of times. Instead, the number has been categorized into low, medium and high.⁶⁴

Table 7.6 displays the predicted probabilities at each observation amount. Those who have not observed others engage in SV interventions had a predicted probability of engaging in SV interventions of 0.19. This probability increased by 0.14 points to 0.33 after observing one

 $^{^{64}}$ That is, low (1-2) means they observed one item 1-2 times, two items 1-2 times or one item 3-5 times. Medium (3-5) means, at a minimum, they observed three items 1-2 times or, at the maximum, they observed one item 6 or more times and another item 3-5 times. High (6-9) means, at a minimum, they observed one item 1-2 times, another item 3-5 times and the third item 6 or more times to a maximum of observing all three items 6 or more times.

instance of SV bystander behaviors. After three or more instances, the amount of discrete

change begins to decline and after four or more instances, the predicted probability was 0.81 or

greater (see Figure 7.1).

Table 7.6

Predicted Probabilities by Quantity of Observed SV interventions

Amount of Observed DV Interventions	Predicted Probability of	Discrete Change
	Intervening in an SV Situation	
None	0.193	
Low $(1 - 2)$	0.334 - 0.505	0.142 - 0.17
Medium $(3-5)$	0.674 - 0.909	0.170 - 0.095
High (6 – 9)	0.962 - 0.999	0.053 - 0.003

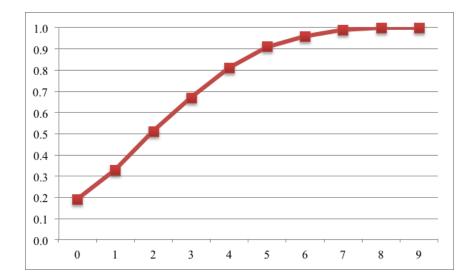


Figure 7.1. Predicted probabilities by amount of observed SV interventions

Intervening in dating violence situations. Table 7.7 displays the predicted probabilities calculations for intervening in DV situations. For individuals who have experienced sexual violence, the predicted probability of intervening in DV situations was 0.30. This was not largely different than the probability for respondents without histories of sexual violence (0.25). There is a 0.09 difference in the predicted probability of intervention for individuals who scored low on rape myths acceptance compared to those who scored high on the scale. The difference

between the "MAX" column and the "MIN" column is negligible for the non-significant independent variables. Specifically having a history of DV was not significantly associated with engaging in DV situations. However, it is interesting to note that the direction of change is negative (albeit small) when comparing individuals who have not experienced emotional abuse with individuals that have experienced emotional abuse. Yet, the direction of change is positive (albeit small) when comparing individuals who have not experienced physical abuse with individuals that have experienced physical abuse. Observing SV bystander behaviors was also not associated with engaging in DV bystander behaviors and there was no difference between the quantity of SV bystander behaviors observed and intervening. People with a higher self-efficacy score had a higher (but negligible) expected probability of engaging in DV bystander behaviors. Table 7.7

	MIN	MAX	DIFF
History of sexual victimization*	0.25	0.30	+0.05
History of intimate partner abuse (emotional)	0.27	0.25	-0.02
History of intimate partner abuse (physical)	0.26	0.28	+0.02
Amount of observed SV bystander behaviors	0.26	0.26	0.00
Amount of observed DV bystander behaviors*	0.19	0.99	+0.80
Self-efficacy score	0.22	0.28	+0.06
Rape myths acceptance score	0.28	0.19	-0.09
Sex (female)	0.24	0.27	+0.03
Sexual orientation (heterosexual)	0.27	0.26	-0.01
Number of times responded "no opportunity" to SV/DV items*	0.62	0.04	-0.58

Predicted Probabilities of Intervening in Intimate Partner Violence Situations

*Statistically significant variables (p<0.05) Note. Predicted probabilities at mean are presented for continuous variables only.

Again, the largest change was based on the amount of observed DV bystander behaviors. These changes are examined in more detail in Table 7.8 and Figure 7.2. The predicted probability of engaging in DV bystander behaviors was 0.19 for those respondents who had not observed any DV bystander behaviors. This probability increased by 0.14 points to 0.33 after observing one instance of DV bystander behavior. It continued to increase from observing one instance to two instances (by 0.17 points to 0.49) and from two instances to three or more instances (0.17 points to 0.66). After three or more instances, the amount of discrete change begins to decline but by four or more instances, the predicted probability was 0.80 or greater (see Table 7.8 and Figure 7.2).

Table 7.8

Predicted Probabilities by Amount of Observed IPV Interventions

Amount of Observed DV	Predicted Probability of	Discrete Change
Interventions	Intervening	
None	0.189	
Low $(1 - 2)$	0.326 - 0.491	0.137 - 0.166
Medium $(3-5)$	0.658 - 0.898	0.167 - 0.099
High (6 – 9)	0.955 - 0.999	0.058 - 0.004

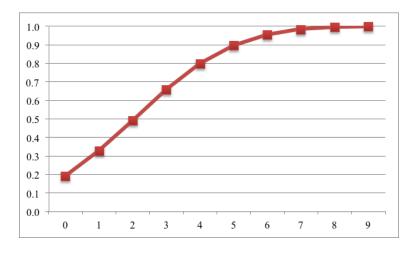


Figure 7.2. Predicted probabilities by amount of observed IPV interventions

CHAPTER 8

STRATEGIES TO PREVENT INTIMATE PARTNER AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE

To examine research question 3, what actions do respondents report undertaking and which actions do they believe are most successful or least successful, a content analysis was conducted. In the survey, respondents were asked the following open-ended questions:

- 1. What things to prevent sexual and dating violence have you done, other than those listed above?
- 2. Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been most successful and why?
- 3. Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been least successful and why?

"Conventional content analysis" and a grounded theory approach were used to analyze participant responses to these three open-ended questions. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), "conventional content analysis" entails: (1) reading through all responses at least once prior to the commencement of coding; (2) not using predetermined codes and deriving codes from the data; (3) after coding, sorting all codes "into categories based on how different codes are related and linked" and then, (4) "these emergent categories are used to organize and group codes into meaningful clusters" (p.1,279) (see Figure 8.1).

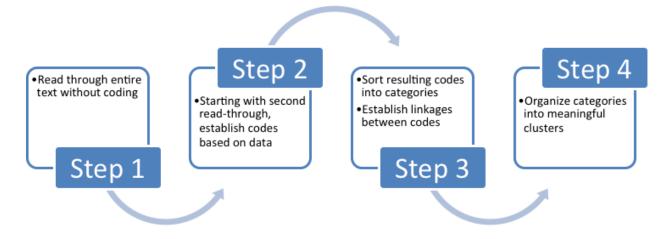


Figure 8.1. Conventional content analysis process (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005)

This component of the current study was included because research participants can be viewed as a "source of knowledge" (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). In the context of the current study, survey respondents' opinions about what strategies are most or least successful may shed light on important areas that researchers have not yet explored. Their responses in this section may also place the findings from the quantitative analysis into a larger context. The following guiding questions were used in this portion of the analysis, though the author was open to other themes that emerged:

- Do they mention intervening in dating or sexual violence situations?
- Do they tend to list actions that would take place before, during or after an incident?
- Do their answers tend to be proactive or reactive?
- Do their answers tend to be high or low risk?

Approximately 20% (n=120; 64% female) of all survey respondents answered the first question that asked about additional strategies they have used to prevent sexual or dating violence and 32% (n=193; 69% female) of respondents answered the second question that asked which strategies have been most successful to prevent sexual or dating violence. Twenty-three percent (n=143; 71% female) of survey respondents answered the third question on least successful strategies. Section 1 will present the responses by summarizing the additional strategies mentioned, which strategies were deemed to be "most successful," and which strategies were identified as "least successful" in preventing sexual and dating violence. Section 2 will address the guiding questions in the bulleted list above. For readability reasons, minor edits were made to the responses that had typos or were lacking punctuation. Square brackets were used to replace typos with words and to replace text that compromised the confidentiality of the study site.

Section 1

Most and Least Successful Strategies

Responses to the first two questions were categorized into five primary themes. These themes were: party safety; personal responsibility; education, advocacy and activism; one-on-one communication and avoidance. Each of these themes will be discussed in turn below. At the end of each section, the "least successful" responses related to that category are presented. Table 8.1 displays the frequencies that each topic was mentioned. As a reminder, the first question asked respondents to list strategies that were not mentioned among the strategies included in the Bystander Behaviors Scale (see Table 4.1 in chapter 4). Although some students did mention strategies that were included in the scale (like helping a friend get home safely), the data presented below includes <u>all</u> the strategies mentioned, whether it was included in the Bystander Behaviors Scale.

Table 8.1

Categories of Additional and Most Successful Strategies

	Additional strategies	Most successful strategies
	(<i>n</i> =120)	(<i>n</i> =193)
Party safety	36	43
Personal responsibility	25	50
Education, advocacy, activism	17	51
Avoidance	11	16
One-on-one communication	11	42
Nothing / nothing else / don't know	30	24

Note. The number indicates the number of times this strategy was mentioned, not the number of people that mentioned it. Some participants mentioned more than one strategy.

Party Safety

The top category mentioned in response to the first question was party safety. Strategies that were categorized under this theme include pre-party planning, vigilance during the party, alcohol-related risk reduction behaviors and relying on friends as a support system.

Pre-party planning. Five individuals mentioned strategies related to making plans before going out with friends. For example, one student said that she and her friends "set expectations and guidelines beforehand (i.e., if someone says I'm not going home with anyone tonight or having a no one left behind policy)." Other respondents had similar conversations about "risk reduction or risk management" before attending a party with their friends, hosting a party with members of their fraternity or, in the case of an RA, before the residents on her floor went out to parties.

Several individuals reported that planning ahead was a "most successful" strategy. One of the planning ahead techniques mentioned included having a sober person at the party "to make sure things are not getting out of hand" or "to make sure everyone gets home safe." Another "most successful" strategy mentioned was talking with friends ahead of time and making a plan. For example, one respondent recommended "establishing secret gestures that signal the need for a friend to intervene" while another suggested "making a plan to meet up at a certain place/time if get separated, making sure everyone is sober enough to make conscious decisions if going home with someone" because "this makes sure everyone is accounted for and no one can get taken advantage of."

Vigilance. Eight students mentioned strategies related to vigilance during parties. This vigilance included keeping an eye on friends (e.g., "been aware of my friends when out at parties, where they are to ensure they are safe"), the amount of drinks friends have (e.g., "I keep

tabs on how many drinks my friends have at parties and where they are at all times via texting or walking around the party") or even to check on friends during a "hook up" (e.g., "a few times I have knocked on doors at parties when my friends were hooking up with guys they did not know to make sure they wanted to be in that position and were sober enough to make a good decision").

Only a couple of respondents indicated vigilance was a "most successful" strategy. One person mentioned he thinks that the most successful strategy is "actually interceding and picking up girls from parties where they feel unsafe and confronting the rapists and rape apologists." Another male student recommended that students should be instructed to look after one another and be more vigilant. A female student mentioned that a "most successful" strategy is "making sure at parties to keep track of my friends and acquaintances at all times."

Alcohol-related risk reduction. Twelve students mentioned risk reduction strategies related to alcohol such as strategies to prevent being drugged by a date rape drug (e.g., "cover my drink," "drinking minimally (only drinks I have poured or were sealed)" or "drank before going out rather than at a frat or club to prevent being drugged") and watching the amount of alcohol one drinks or their friends drink (e.g., "drank someone else's drink so they would stop drinking," "kept my friends that were too drunk in line so they wouldn't do anything stupid" or "made sure I do not drink excessively"). Another strategy that was mentioned several times was related to getting people who had drank too much home safely (e.g., "ensured that the drunk person had a friend to take him/her home" or "I have insisted that a friend walk home with me after seeing them too drunk and too intimate with a stranger at a party").

Monitoring how much one drinks was a common strategy mentioned in response to the "most successful" strategies question. For example, a few respondents listed "not getting too drunk," "drinking in moderation" or "knowing your drinking limit so that judgment is not impaired" as "most successful" strategies. In addition, several respondents mentioned making sure intoxicated people got home safely. One person wrote: "I feel like being smart and escorting people home whom have had too much to drink prevents a lot of sexual violence."

Relying on a support system. Thirteen individuals mentioned the final "party safety" strategy of relying on a support system. The main support system strategies were going to parties in groups (e.g., "always go in groups," "never go to a party alone" or "not let a friend go to a frat party or bar alone") and remaining with friends while at parties (e.g., "stayed with friends at parties," "remaining in groups at night, especially when members of the group are drinking" or "used the buddy system (bathroom, going home, talking to someone)") and never leaving without the people you came with.

Support system strategies were most commonly mentioned as "most successful" of all the party safety strategies. For example, one student wrote, "always making sure whoever I came with, I leave with" and another wrote "being with a group of friends is the best way because friends should and will help you when they notice you are uncomfortable or really drunk." A few students explicitly mentioned the "buddy system" and others mentioned the importance of remaining in groups because "there is safety in numbers." In particular, one student wrote: "Sticking in groups, numbers are better than having a girl by herself." Another student mentioned that "staying in groups" is important "because it prevents you from being in dangerous situations when you are vulnerable." Students stressed the importance of leaving with those you came with, (e.g., "making sure you don't leave a bar or a party without all the friends that you arrived with – after drinking no matter how good of friends you are with someone, people inevitably get separated, but if you make sure that all are accounted for, it reduces the

chance of something bad happening"). In addition, they continually stressed the importance of ensuring friends get "back to their place safely."

Least Successful Strategies Related to Party Safety

Issues related to partying were also brought up in response to the third question. One student wrote that "alcohol is number one cause" while another wrote "college students who binge drink are more at risk." In addition, some students believe that to prevent sexual and dating violence, it is problematic to be "letting people go to parties with people they don't know" or "letting immoral people drink and around people they can abuse." Also, related to arriving and leaving with your whole group of friends, one person mentioned that you shouldn't leave "a friend when she says she is 'okay' even if they repeated it, it's because they are drunk and cannot make clear logical decisions."

There was a level of cynicism among many of the respondents. For example, one student cautioned against "trying to get people to avoid going out, and go to fraternities" because "this is college and people will drink without knowing what is in their beers. This will lead to GHB and Rohypnol being slipped into drinks." This cynicism was also present in responses related to relying on a support system. Several students advised against "counting on other people." One student wrote: "it's hard to know whom to trust. I let my guard down once when I shouldn't have, but I don't know if there's any way to know which friends you can trust and which you can only trust so far." Another student advised against "assuming that people you know well, even a friend's boyfriend, is trustworthy enough to keep an eye out for you," then added: "but at the same time those people were the ones who did keep me safe. it entirely depends on the person/situation." In addition, a couple of students raised concerns about "letting people go to parties with people they don't know [because] those people don't care about them as much as

their friends do." Two students shared personal experiences that highlighted the consequences of not sticking with groups. One student wrote "when I was with a group of people I did not know to well I was drugged and wound up in the hospital." Another stressed "how important it is to stick together" because, she wrote, "one of the incidents where I was forced into a sexual situation I was trying to stay with my friends, but they all ran off with different guys at the club and I was alone." She added: "girls need to realize they can stay in a group with guys."

Personal Responsibility

A re-occurring theme throughout was personal responsibility. This vein, in particular, demonstrated an overall acceptance of rape myths by many of the respondents. Several students felt that if they followed strict rules (such as "never doing drugs, never walking at night alone, taking care to note my surroundings, never going off alone with a man who is not my boyfriend or I do not know" or "never take an open drink from anyone, never go to a party alone"), sexual or dating violence could be prevented. For some, this pressure was put on oneself (e.g., "wore pants instead of skirts to clubs/frats," "cover my drink, limit my intake of how much I drink, going out with people I trust" or "I don't act sexually promiscuous when I'm sober, tipsy (and even drunk)... no one gets the wrong idea") and for others, this pressure was other-focused (e.g., "predators look for the weakest prey, the easiest to take down... don't be stupid" or "never walk anywhere alone, especially at night"). In addition, a handful of respondents had strict rules for themselves related to dating – to presumably prevent dating violence – such as "I always trust guys I date so they aren't the type of people to hurt me" and "I have been with the intellectual and smart nonviolent people always." One student said that although she has never had to deal with these types of issues, "if someone ever did hit me or force me to do something I don't want

to do I would fight them like a bucking bronco, my mother told me to never swing first but when someone else does you'd better walk away the winner."

This theme was also prevalent in the responses to the "most successful" strategies question. One respondent felt: "You can't always watch out and make sure that your friend won't get date raped on a date... that friend needs to be aware of where their drink is at all times." The majority of strategies related to personal responsibility were focused on what women could or should do in order to prevent being a victim. In general, the advice included avoiding "dangerous" people (including strangers) and places (especially at night) (n=17), avoiding "drinking too much" (n=13), using "common sense" (n=9) and choosing your friends wisely (n=12). See Table 8.2 for sample quotes from each of these sub-categories.

Table 8.2

Sub-Category	Example quote			
Avoid "dangerous" people and places	"being aware of my surroundings"			
	"not getting myself into compromising situations"			
	"being cautious because you don't put yourself into dangerous situations"			
	"avoid neighborhoods known to be unsafe"			
	"try not to date the wrong person"			
	"avoid violent behavioral people"			
	"don't go home with strangers, didn't hang around strangers or creepers"			
	"don't go after people with a bad history. avoid danger before you even get into it"			
	"never going places alone"			
	"never going home with a stranger"			
	"I guess trying to be careful by avoiding going out too late. Or having friends with you when you do. Trying to be extra wary of not-so-safe areas, streets and people"			

Examples of "Most Successful" Strategies Related to Personal Responsibility

	"not putting yourself in a vulnerable position"			
Avoid drinking too much	"don't drink too much"			
	"don't drink excessively"			
	"avoid drinking too much"			
	"don't drink. but if you must do so in moderation and make sure to have friends nearby because people do stupid shit when they're drunk"			
	"alcohol management"			
	"not getting intoxicated unless I know the venue very well"			
	"not getting too drunk because if you don't get too drunk you don't do shit you regret"			
Use common sense	"thinking smart"			
	"not being stupid is key"			
	"for me, common sense not to get into situations where I was at risk has worked quite well"			
	"I feel like being smart and escorting people home whom have had too much to drink prevents a lot of sexual violence"			
	"just be smart"			
	"using common sense: go out in groups, drink in moderation, help your friends, don't hang around people who make you uncomfortable"			
Choose friends wisely	"being more discerning about who I consider safe and why"			
	"be friends with the right people"			
	"making sure to hang around people with like minded views"			
	"I have high standards for trusting people and make sure I am with people I trust and do not lose control of myself"			
	"surrounding yourself with trustworthy people"			

One respondent shared her personal experience as an example for why she believed

women need to use common sense:

I believe that if a girl is smart and doesn't put herself into these situations then it can be avoided. My one experience with being sexually pressured was because I thought it was smart to go back to a stranger's apartment at 11 at night. Of course when I realized the mistake I got myself out of before actual intercourse could occur. Yes men shouldn't be forceful, but girls shouldn't be stupid either.

Only one respondent focused on offenders instead of victims when he encouraged others to remain "responsible for your actions, if you do mean bad things to your partner there are consequences and you shouldn't anyways if you really care about them."

Related to personal responsibility was the importance of learning self-defense. In response to the first question, four individuals mentioned attending or encouraging others to attend self-defense courses. Seven respondents mentioned learning self-defense in response to the question on "most successful" strategies. While several respondents talked generally about the helpfulness of learning self-defense (e.g., "I think self-defense classes have been helpful because it has taught people how they can take control over a situation" or "a personal defense class... teaches people how to physically protect themselves in certain situations), one respondent wrote specifically how the self-defense class she took "was helpful in giving [her] the confidence to stand up to someone (at a club)." In addition, two respondents listed weapons (e.g., "carrying a knife" and "concealed or open carry of firearms") as the "most successful" strategies.

Least successful strategies related to personal responsibility

Six students responded that "getting drunk" or "going to parties" were "least successful" strategies. One of them also added "dating assholes and being flirtatious to assholes" to her list of least successful strategies. Another stressed that to prevent sexual assault "girls need to make sure not to put themselves in situations that could cause harm... always take a friend to a party. never leave a friend alone at a party. always cover your drink." One student wrote that a least successful strategy was "allowing some of the more out of control parties which take place" but then added: "this is not a school matter, though it is more of a personal responsibility issue."

Nine students identified victim blaming and the acceptance of rape myths as "least successful" strategies. They expressed their frustration by writing things like: "rape talks usually blame the victim. that does nothing to prevent rape," "shaming, victim blaming, telling people to drink less in order to prevent being sexually assaulted, telling people to make any life changes in order to prevent being sexually assaulted" and "I really hate the way that people often approach sexual violence by implying that the victims could do something about it." One student wrote:

Blaming the victim and teaching the community that it was their fault. Telling a victim/survivor that they were asking for it by the way they acted, dressed or by how much they drank is doing nothing but perpetuating rape culture to its fullest extent. The more we teach people to 'watch their drinking' or 'dress conservatively' or 'be wary of...' the more we're allowing perpetrators to get away with their actions. Another student wrote that "campaigns should focus more on empower women to

communicate rather than avoid being a victim." Two respondents mentioned the need to address the myth of a stranger being the most likely perpetrator. For example, one student wrote: "I think a lot of times people have the wrong impression and believe that it is more likely to be a stranger who attacks them when in fact they are more likely to know the person," while another advised that girls needed to be reminded "that most rapists or assaults are done by men they know."

Education, Advocacy and Activism

Another category of strategies mentioned was related to education, advocacy and activism. Some respondents identified the importance of educating themselves (e.g., "I've learned the statistical data regarding sexual and dating violence" or "I always try to keep up with legislation that threatens to redefine rape") and educating others (e.g., "my sister was sexually assaulted and I've told people her story," "I try to make my friends aware that drinking makes them unable to consent to sexual activity and that, legally speaking, drunk sex is not consensual,

therefore can be considered rape" or "Spoke to an ROTC detachment regarding resources for survivors"). One student reported being a rape victim advocate at the local hospital and another reported assisting students with finding resources on-campus. Several students reported being involved with on-campus awareness activism, events, fundraisers, campaigns, rallies and being involved with student clubs or university committees. For example: "Through my work in [the feminist club]... I've been teaching people that you should NOT have to worry about getting sexually assaulted, and that it is the perpetrator's job to not sexually assault people."

When asked about the "most successful" strategies, one student said: "the only way you can really prevent it is to be educated yourself." Four students mentioned the importance of learning about these issues early – like in middle school or high school. For example, one student wrote: "I think high school and middle school talks on sexual violence are most important because it engrains it in people's minds before they are overly focused on sex." Many students wrote about the importance of learning about the prevalence and consequences of sexual and dating violence through education and awareness campaigns and events. For example, one student listed the most successful strategy as "raising awareness about the frankly terrifying numbers of people who experience sexual and dating violence."

The importance of this type of education was not understated. Students wrote responses such as "you can't stop something if you don't know what it is," "the more people know the better prepared they are" and [training on domestic violence and sexual assault] has "helped me to prevent violence in my own life and the lives of those around me." One student wrote: "many young people feel unclear about what rape is when alcohol is involved." Another wrote that "awareness is important because if it is a subject that is taboo then the victims may many times be too afraid to speak up about it."

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Many students expressed the importance of "widespread" educational programs that are targeted to "everyone" and "engage both men and women." As an example, one student wrote:

I think everyone should talk about these issues and not just those people who are already interested in it. I think so many people don't know how widespread the problem is, so I think people should also be told the statistics and hear actual stories from survivors of this kind of violence.

Survivors' stories, in particular, were mentioned as a "most successful" strategy. For example, one student wrote: "I think talks and speakers with personal experience with sexual and dating violence are extremely successful because people get a first hand perspective on that type of violence" and another wrote: "I think so many people don't know how widespread the problem is, so I think people should also be told the statistics and hear actual stories from survivors of this kind of violence." This is important, according to one student, because the stories "make the statistics seem real" and statistics are important because they "show people that dating violence does exist. It is not made up." Only one student listed this as a "least successful" strategy. She wrote: "I dislike when speakers come who have had personal experiences with this type of violence. I spend more time feeling sorry for them then actually paying attention to their story and learning about them."

Other strategies that were mentioned were related to on-campus resources, activities and activism. For example, one male respondent recommended:

creating environments that consistently remind people that sexual and dating violence are not okay. E.g., resource centers for sexual health and counseling on campus; events about rape and dating violence; continuous campus dialogue and awareness about the issue.

Other students mentioned speaking with authorities at the university "to see what their plans are to better equip [the university] to deal with sexual violence and rape awareness" or recommended that "we need to address sexual and dating violence with a peer group on campus that works with public safety." In addition, one student stressed the importance of "talking with students about consent from the beginning of the fall, and making clear that the campus community provides a safe, empowering space for them." A couple of students thought that all students or at least all freshmen should be required to attend sexual and dating violence classes.⁶⁵

Least successful strategies related to education, advocacy and activism

Although many respondents identified education as a "most successful" strategy, one student wrote that there was a "lack of resources on campus in general and lack of information available to students on how to navigate the different reporting or support options." Several students identified flyers and posters as "least successful" strategies. These strategies were identified as not "particularly useful" because "they don't really reach that many people (even those that bother to read them" and "posting flyers with no follow-up is not helpful because people will not be engaged enough to learn more about sexual and dating violence." Students criticized "short-lived, episodic interest in the topic" and "uncomfortable forums [that don't] create a safe space."

In addition, "skits performed by students" and "stories/dramatizations" were listed as least successful strategies because "they are mostly seen as a joke." A few students listed lectures, seminars, information sessions and classes as "least successful" because they "seem more lecturing than informative" or because "most people that are there have to be for one reason or another, and no one pays attention." Other "least successful strategies that were listed included: "abstinence education," "scare tactics," "blaming men" and that speeches should not "blame drinking for all mistakes." A few students mentioned that students should not be forced

⁶⁵ It may be relevant to mention that during the time the survey was administered, there was a public conversation occuring on campus between students and administrators about whether the university should mandate that students attend educational workshops about sexual assault and dating violence.

"to sit in multiple long talks about the topics because they don't listen and just get bored" and that "mandated programs – have negative connotations and associations, no incentives, seem arbitrary and forced, make people resent the subject" (see footnote on the previous page).

One male student mentioned that activism, i.e., "constant loud campaigns and displays of pomp and circumstance," adds "nothing but a sense of self-importance to the women's clubs on campus." Another student mentioned that "all-women events" were "least successful" because "men are much less likely to come and support these events and often only come if they are required to which is unfortunate because their support makes these activities most successful."

Several male and female students identified "remaining silent," "ignoring it," "indifference," "not taking action" and "doing nothing" as "least successful" strategies – "because that has been our choice for a long time and it is because of our social construction that violence is allowed for."

One-on-One Communication to Help Others or Self

Several people identified one-on-one communication as an additional strategy to prevent dating or sexual violence. For some, this was by helping a friend (e.g., "consoled a friend who had been repeatedly victimized" or "told an inexperienced friend to tell me about anything her persuasive partner convinced her was okay but made her feel uncomfortable"), talking to friends and family about the issue (e.g., "my friend works for [the local rape crisis center] and she and I talk about preventing violence very often" or "I stress the importance of safety to my sister and friends who I talk to about my situation") or talking with an intimate partner (e.g., "had open conversations with my partner about what is okay and what is not in our relationship"). One person reported that she has "called a dating violence hotline."

The issue of communication was raised often in the responses to the question about "most successful" strategies. The primary sub-categories within the communication category were talking about it generally, talking with friends and talking with your partner. Many comments were vague, e.g., "open, honest discussions," "talking," "talking about the issue," "discussing how to prevent it" or "discussing the danger involved." Others were more specific about who needs to be talked to, for example, one male student wrote: "talking about it, so girls know the risks of getting too drunk." For some students, talking with friends or partners was a preventative measure. For example, students wrote:

- "communication with friends and partners. creates a network of support for healthy relationships and of people who would stand up for you if ever the occasion presented itself"
- "having conversations with friends before any matters like this even arise"
- "I just talk to my friends it's a little thing but I think it helps remind them before or during a situation"
- "I think talking it out with a partner, or just knowing before hand what safe and responsible sex is"
- "simply emphasizing communication with your partner has been successful. I feel that many issues that lead to violence are a result of miscommunication, so if everything was communicated clearly, I feel that this violence would be greatly prevented"

Other students recommended communication as an important feature of intervention,

after an act of violence, such as:

- "talking to my friend about her abusive relationship was helpful for her I think. I did not focus on the behavior of the abuser, but offered my complete support to her, which she clearly appreciates"
- "talking is always the most effective method whether it be to get someone help, or let them talk"
- "Sitting down with a friend in trouble and talking to them face to face. Particularly in a non-threatening and supportive manner. It's easier for them to

listen if they believe the idea themselves rather than trying to force beliefs into them"

- "just talking straight up to people that I know have this issue"
- "being open about it and having supportive friends seem to be the best way to cope with this type of violence and give the confidence needed to prevent it in the future"

Another predominant theme within this category was the need for peer-to-peer

communication. For example:

- "just talking to friends (especially female friends). It's successful because it is females speaking friend to friend, peer to peer, and it is very personal."
- "talking to friends personally about it, because they trust their friends more than a counselor."
- "talking with friends because peer input is often valued above input from media sources, adults, and speakers that you are not connected to"
- "talking with other students one on one. I am more able to answer their questions and they are usually more open."

Finally, one student stressed the importance of "men and women discussing together" -

she wrote:

I did this in one of my classes and it was really comforting to have everyone discuss openly. Men need to know how women feel and how they can help also. But women need to learn how to be more firm in their feelings and responses yet some women are scared ... I also think when friends discuss on their own, intimately. My friends and I do this to an extent pretty frequently and we always support and be honest with each other.

Least Successful Strategies Related to One-on-One Communication

A few students expressed frustration related to what they identified as the "least

successful" strategy of "telling victims [in dating violence situations] to 'just leave'." For

example, one student lamented that there are "few resources to get out of an abusive relationship

other than support" while another wrote that "learning the signs of an abusive relationship" was a

"least successful" strategy "because it is difficult to leave a relationship even if you recognize it's unhealthy." One student stressed the importance of:

giving the victim someone they can talk to without feeling like they are ratting their boyfriend/girlfriend out. A lot of the issue is loyalty and if they're able to talk to someone in a confident setting without it getting reported right away, I think it would really help them feel more comfortable talking about it with someone.

Several students identified "putting people on the spot," "telling people what to do" and "interventions" as "least successful" strategies. One male student said that if "people feel on the spot [they] may lie to avoid being embarrassed or charged with a crime." One female student wrote that a "least successful" strategy was "butting in and making a friend feel insecure about her relationship" and another wrote that interventions are not successful because "people always feel too threatened to absorb any of the constructive criticism that you are trying to give them." Basically, "trying to force someone out of a certain situation" is not successful because "college students are going to do what they want regardless of what their friends might think."

Although several students identified "talking" as a "most successful" solution, students also wrote "just talking about it doesn't always help enough" and "no action with the words, just talking about it does not make a situation disappear." A few students reported that trying to talk to victims and abusers was a "least successful" strategy. For example:

- "my friend was being emotionally abused and I talked about it with her on multiple occasions but she refused to listen. If the person won't listen, then it's ineffective."
- "Talking to the abuser didn't really help because he had her defending him no matter what"
- "talking to the victim as her friend because she was very defensive and it didn't help her"

One student was also cynical about the effectiveness of "trying to tell people to stop making rape jokes, because college culture cannot be changed that easily."

Thirteen respondents wrote about the ineffectiveness of confronting people about how much they drink, trying to talk to drunk people or telling people not to drink. Reasons this type of strategy "just doesn't work," according to respondents, include: "they don't alter their drinking habits," "they never listen," "they are going to drink if they want to," "they will do that anyways" and "if they want to do it, they will."

Three female students lamented that "saying no" to a guy is a "least successful" strategy. One student wrote: "the person just tries harder" while another added "people never listen. hasn't happened to me in college but in high school."

Avoidance

The final proposed strategy was total avoidance of alcohol, parties or relationships. These strategies fell into three categories: general avoidance (e.g., "be a shut-in" or "I have largely avoided situations where this might occur"), avoiding alcohol or parties (e.g., "ban drinking alcohol for good!!!!," "do not drink alcohol" or "I don't drink or go to frat parties") and avoiding relationships or certain people (e.g., "don't date or get near sexual violence," "I do not go on dates or have sex" or "don't go after people with a bad history with partners").

This strategy was also listed as a "most successful" strategy. Some advice was vague: "abstain from everything." Other advice was more specific: "don't drink," "staying sober" or "avoiding parties in which someone can slip something into a drink." Some students spoke from personal experience. For example, students wrote: "I don't party that much nor do drugs nor really date so I think this has helped me avoid dating violence" or "I don't date." Overall, however, the majority of comments that fell into this category referred to the previously mentioned sub-categories of avoiding alcohol or parties and avoiding relationships or certain people. For example,

- "abstaining from alcohol and risky situations"
- "choosing not to be under the influence of drugs or alcohol definitely makes a difference"
- "not associating with people that might take advantage of you; not doing drugs or drinking alcohol"
- "not dating"
- "not drink or be on drugs"
- "not drinking or doing drugs, so one is always competent"
- "not getting drunk or dating assholes or being flirtatious to assholes"
- "not getting drunk or wasted or attending parties where people get drunk or wasted"
- "avoiding unsafe/unhealthy relationships/friendships, avoiding drug/alcohol use/abuse"

Additional "Most Successful" Strategies

There were a small number of additional "most successful" strategies that were mentioned by students that did not fall into one of the above categories. First, one student responded simply that "having it happen" was the "most successful" prevention strategy. Second, many identified the importance of a strong support system as a successful strategy. Although this is related to issues identified above (like support systems being helpful in party situations or in one-on-one communication), students also mentioned the importance of providing general support with strategies such as "being the checks and balances for my friends," "stay close to friends and family and let your offender know that you won't put up with that crap" and "the culture of sexual respect created by myself and my friends." Third, a few students mentioned that self-esteem and confidence are important to prevent sexual and dating violence. For example, one student wrote: I think it's important for people to realize that they have inner beauty and that they do not need others to make themselves happy. When people feel confident and happy about who they are as individuals, they will feel less pressure to force others to 'like' them.

Other examples of this theme include: "most of my friends are very secure in themselves

and know when they are being disrespected – they will speak up" and "up people's self-esteems

and make them more empowered to speak for themselves." One student advised:

walk like you got places to go with your head up, back straight, and shoulders squared, your not a pushover or a welcome mat. In my opinion a backbone is the most preventative thing to have or if you are, too shy/timid/fragile/etc that is, find friends with backbones.

Although the focus of the responses to the "most successful" question was primarily

placed on the victim or potential victim, there were two exceptions. One student put the focus on

the offender by saying: "I think the threat of getting caught would be successful in stopping

violence because if they can't get away with it, they won't be as inclined to do it." Another

student focused on preventing offending by writing that the "most successful" strategies were:

up front and clear education that addresses the root of the problem: rape culture and the lack of communication between people. If we continue teaching people to NOT sexually assault someone, then we are that much closer to eradicating the problem. If we teach people how to properly practice consent and loudly advertise the resources we have (and need) for survivors we are that much closer to making this a much safer place

Successful Strategies Mentioned in Response to "Least Successful" Question

The negatively worded question about least successful strategies did not preclude people

from listing successful strategies. For example:

a lot of the [programs] sponsored through the school are easy for students to blow off since they are from the school. Bringing in victims to tell their stories I think is much more powerful and forces people to listen.

Another student wrote: "a lot of things aren't helpful [because] this kind of stuff often

happens with the people you trust so you don't really know unless it is too late. The most

important thing is to choose who you trust very wisely."

One student couldn't think of a "least successful" strategy but added her opinion of

successful strategies:

I really don't know. I think girls need to be taught warning signs about [abusive] men. the warning signs [are] always there and [most] girls don't realize it to its too late. when it comes to sexual assault girls need to make sure not to put themselves in situations that could cause them harm and remind girls that most rapists or assaults are done by men they know. always take a friend to a party. never leave a friend alone at a party. always cover your drink. basically trust no one.

Section 2

The Three Levels of Prevention

As mentioned above, several guiding questions were used in the analysis. This section will briefly respond to the guiding questions and the following chapter will discuss the implications of the findings of this analysis. As a reminder, the three open-ended survey questions were:

- 1. What things to prevent sexual and dating violence have you done, other than those listed above? (Q1)
- Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been most successful and why?
 (Q2)
- Which things to prevent sexual and dating violence have been least successful and why?
 (Q3)

The guiding questions were:

- Do they mention intervening in dating or sexual violence situations?
- Do they tend to list actions that would take place before, during or after an incident?
- Do their answers tend to be proactive or reactive?
- Do their answers tend to be high or low risk?

According to Traver (1998), "a guiding question is the fundamental query that directs the search for understanding" (p.70). The purpose of the qualitative component of the current study was to understand the types of actions students report taking and believe to be most and least successful. The guiding questions were crafted to assist the analyst in categorizing the types of actions the students mentioned. However, it became clear early on in the analysis that a more

detailed categorization system would be necessary to accurately capture the beliefs of the respondents. In addition, due to the phrasing of the questions asked (e.g., what things to prevent sexual and dating violence have you done, other than those listed above?), the responses tended to be more proactive than reactive and, therefore, focused on actions that would take place before an incident. High-risk actions were only mentioned in three responses. Risk reduction strategies (such as taking self-defense courses or watching how much someone drinks) were more often mentioned, so the frequency of mention is included in Figure 8.2 below. Strategies to prevent sexual violence incidents were much more likely to be mentioned than dating violence incidents – although some respondents mentioned both.

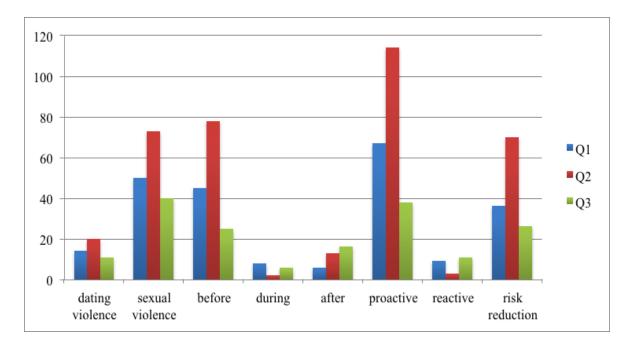


Figure 8.2. Frequency of mentions of each topic per question (see previous page for the list of questions)

Several respondents listed concrete bystander actions they have taken before, during or after an incident. These are listed below to highlight examples of actions mentioned in reference to each of the three levels of prevention. As a reminder, the public health field on the prevention of violence delineates three forms of prevention: primary (before an incident), secondary (during an incident) and tertiary (after an incident) (Dahlberg & Krug, 2002).

Primary Prevention

- "had open conversations with my partner about what is okay and what is not in our relationship"
- "I would be interested in getting involved to help prevent it from happening to other people"
- "I guess I made sure not to rape anyone. Other than that, nothing came up"

Secondary Prevention

- "taken friend home" and "removed them from a dangerous situation in a club"
- "I called the cops on this dude who was attacking this chick in an alley of 18th street"
- "I have acted as a guardian in situations where others may have sought to take advantage of someone else"
- "I have confronted an individual I thought was being inappropriate with their behavior at a house party"
- "If I hear someone make a 'rape joke', I always tell them the joke is awful and ask them to not say things like that in front of people"
- "occasionally pretend to be someone's boyfriend"
- "pretend to be someone's partner for others to back off"
- "taken a girl that was being abused [by] my frat brothers home when she was completely crying and under the influence. Dropped her off at her dorm."

Tertiary Prevention

• "I am an overly protective friend and even though I am female I was raised to take care of myself and hold my head high, someone messes with my friend they mess with me, and if someone messes with me they get on the wrong side of a whole mess of people... would a wolf take on a whole [herd] of bison, no, they are not stupid. Someone wants to get buck, get buck back, and keep your friends and family close"

- "[My friend was almost raped off-campus by a stranger]. If she hadn't kicked the guy in the balls then she would have been raped and possibly killed. She came running home after that and I found her outside. She told me the story. And I went looking for the fucks that tried to rape her. They were gone by the time I rode up there with a bat and knife ready to get some real justice against the actual threats to the possible sex victims of this school. Locals... Give each girl on campus a gun and no more sexual assault will happen"
- "Offered to stay with a friend or have her stay with me when her boyfriend became violent"

Although the open-ended questions did not explicitly ask about bystander intervention, the responses elucidated that many students have engaged in bystander intervention in varying degrees. In addition to the primary, secondary and tertiary behaviors presented above, there were both proactive and reactive bystander behaviors mentioned within the "party safety," "education, advocacy and activism" and "one-on-one communication" categories presented in section 1. The strategies they mentioned expand the range of opportunities for intervention – based on type of intervention (proactive vs. reactive; low risk vs. high risk), the timing of reactive interventions (primary, secondary and tertiary) and the placement of proactive interventions within an ecological framework (individual, interpersonal and community-level).

Adaptation of the Nomological Network

Based on the findings from this analysis, an adaptation of the nomological network developed by McMahon and Banyard (2012) is proposed in Tables 8.3a and 8.3b. Their framework presented in Table 2.2 (in chapter 2) included the range of opportunities for a bystander to intervene based on *the level of risk to the potential or actual victim*. The adaptation, presented below in Tables 8.3a and 8.3b, incorporates the findings from the qualitative portion of the current study and reconceptualizes the range of opportunities as behaviors – based on *the level of risk to the bystander* – not the risk to the potential victim. Table 8.3b also incorporates an ecological framework to the types of proactive behaviors possible. This framework considers

the interactions between individual in his or her environment at the individual or personal level,

interpersonal or relational level and community or campus level (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Table 8.3a

	Primary Prevention (Before Violence)		Secondary Prevention (During Violence)		Tertiary Prevention (After Violence)	
	Lower Risk	Higher Risk	Lower Risk	Higher Risk	Lower Risk	Higher Risk
Reactive Bystander Behaviors	Interrupting a rape joke or sexist comment.	Trying to stop a drunk friend from bringing an intoxicated woman upstairs at a party.	Calling the police or asking someone else to intervene.	Interrupting an incident of violence.	One-on-one support for a friend.	Retribution.

Table 8.3b

Proactive and Reactive Bystander Behaviors Within an Ecological Framework

Proactive Bystander Behaviors	Individual	Interpersonal	Community	
	Volunteering at a hotline or counseling center.	Making a plan to stay together with friends before going out.	Planning a "Take Back the Night" Rally.	
Reactive Bystander Behaviors	Making a personal commitment to not commit or condone violence after hearing a survivor's story.	Telling a friend that you did not like how he or she was treating his or her girlfriend/boyfriend.	Holding a forum to discuss a publicized rape incident on campus.	

Note. Tables 8.3a and 8.3b are adaptations of McMahon and Banyard's (2012) Nomological Network of Bystander Behaviors for the Prevention of Violence (see Table 2.2 in chapter 2)

This expansion of our understanding of the opportunities for intervention can assist (1) potential bystanders with conceptualizing their role in preventing or responding to interpersonal violence and (2) researchers in framing future studies to understand the factors associated with a diverse set bystander opportunities and behaviors. Therefore, this adaptation enhances the field's understanding of the role of the bystander in preventing and responding to dating violence and sexual assault.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the role of informal social control, via bystander intervention, as a potential way to increase capable guardianship, which can be expected to decrease crimes of dating violence (DV) and sexual violence (SV) on college campuses. Latané and Darley (1970) found that in order for bystanders to intervene, they must notice the situation, interpret the situation as requiring an intervention, take responsibility for intervening, decide how to help and feel capable of helping. Past research on bystander intervention primarily analyzed predictors of intervention *during* a situation – usually a health emergency or a petty crime. This study expands our understanding of a broader range of points of intervention (before, during or after) into situations related to violent crimes (dating violence and sexual assault). This study also utilized qualitative methods to better understand participants' beliefs of the potential solutions to prevent and respond to these crimes and the context of bystander intervention on college campuses.

This chapter discusses the findings from the current study in light of past research and identifies the implications of these findings for the field. Section 1 revisits the hypotheses presented in chapter 4 and summarizes the major findings of the current study. Section 2 presents a discussion of the significance of the persistence of rape myths in the qualitative results despite the low score on rape myths acceptance in the quantitative results. Section 3 presents the implications of these findings for bystander intervention education program evaluations and research studies that examine rape myths or predictors of bystander intervention.

Section 1

Findings related to factors that predict bystander intervention

There were three types of bystander interventions measured by the items in this survey. Bystanders intervened proactively, reactively and in violent or potentially violent situations or those involving alcohol. The proactive and reactive behaviors were actions seeking to explicitly prevent or respond to sexual assault or dating violence; the alcohol-involved behaviors were both proactive and reactive and not entirely focused on preventing or responding to sexual assault and dating violence. Therefore, it was possible to estimate the predictors of bystander intervention generally, bystander intervention in sexual and dating violence situations and in proactive vs. reactive situations.

Support for Hypotheses

The role of past victimization. It was hypothesized that past history of victimization would be positively associated with engaging as a bystander. This hypothesis was partially supported. Although past sexual victimization was not associated with engaging in proactive or alcohol-related bystander behaviors, it was associated with engaging in reactive situations. That is, respondents with histories of sexual victimization were more likely to have expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting jealously or trying to control him or her, talked to a friend who was raped, helped a friend who was raped or spoke up to someone who was bragging about forcing someone to have sex. In addition, having a history of sexual victimization was positively associated with the probability of intervening reactively as a non-intimate partner SV bystander and as an DV bystander.

It may be that people who have experienced sexual victimization were more apt to notice that a friend was in need and felt a responsibility to try to help. The lack of association for the other types of bystander behaviors may be because the history of sexual victimization variable only indicated whether they *ever* experienced any of three types of unwanted sexual activities. It did not measure how many times or what kinds of unwanted sexual activities they experienced. In addition, it is important to note that 85% of respondents who experienced unwanted sexual activities reported that these unwanted activities occurred in the past seven months. From past studies, the empirical support for sexual victimization being associated with intervening as a bystander is limited. There is more support for the association between *knowing* a survivor of sexual victimization and intervening as a bystander (Banyard, 2008; McMahon et al., 2011). Future studies should examine the extent to which victimization, revictimization and the length of time since victimization influence propensity to intervene.

A history of intimate partner abuse was not associated with intervening as a proactive or reactive bystander, with being an SV-specific bystander or a DV-specific bystander. These results support the findings of Chabot et al. (2009). However, a history of physical intimate partner abuse was associated with intervening as a bystander in alcohol-related situations. This may be in part due to an association between alcohol intoxication and intimate partner violence perpetration (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2010). For example, one study found that men who were physically violent against their intimate partners were eight times more likely to perpetrate on days they were drinking versus days they were not drinking (Fals-Stewart, 2003). The alcohol-related items included: "told someone I was concerned about their drinking," "told someone that getting drunk puts them at risk for violence" and "expressed concern after someone said they got 'so wasted'." Of course, these forms of bystander intervention could have occurred outside of an

intimate partnership. There is little research on the role of alcohol in DV perpetrated against college students. This may be another important area for future research.

The role of observing others engage in bystander behaviors. Observing others engage in bystander behaviors in the past seven months was significantly associated with engaging as a bystander in the past seven months. With one exception, the association was in the positive direction. These findings are consistent with past empirical research, social norms theory and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Berkowitz, 2003; Coker et al., 2011). Due to the cross-sectional nature of the current study, it is impossible to know whether observing bystander behaviors came before engaging as a bystander. According to Bandura (1977), it is not the observation of others, in the end, that changes behavior. Instead, it is "observing the effects of one's actions rather than from the examples provided by others" (p.192).

Still the *type* of observed bystander behavior was associated with the type of bystander behavior. For proactive bystanders, a one-unit increase the amount of observed SV/DV-specific or other bystander behavior was associated with a similar increase in the factor score (0.22 and 0.21 respectively). However, for reactive bystander behaviors, a one-unit increase in the amount of observed reactive SV or DV bystander behaviors was associated with a 0.34 point increase in the factor score whereas observing other bystander behaviors (such as alcohol-involved behaviors) was only associated with a 0.12 point increase in the factor score. That is, respondents who had observed others engage in SV or DV-specific bystander behaviors were more likely to report engaging in the same types of behaviors. Observing other bystander behaviors that were not explicitly related to SV and DV was associated with a 0.48-point increase in intervening in alcohol-related bystander interventions. Meanwhile, observing SV or

DV reactive bystander behaviors was only associated with a 0.17 point increase in the alcoholinvolved factor score. Again, those that had observed others engage in alcohol-related and other non-violence specific bystander behaviors were more likely to engage in alcohol-related bystander behaviors.

As expected, observing SV-specific bystander behaviors was positively associated with engaging in SV-specific bystander behaviors but not associated with engaging in DV-specific bystander behaviors. In addition, observing DV-specific bystander behaviors was positively associated with engaging in DV-specific bystander behaviors. However, contrary to expectations, the amount of observed intimate partner violence bystander behaviors was *negatively* associated with intervening as an SV-specific bystander. That is, the number of times respondents observed someone else "speak up if somebody said that someone deserved to be raped or to be hit by their partner," "talk to a friend who was raped or hit by their partner" and/or "get help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex or were hurt by a partner" was associated with a lower propensity engage in SV-specific bystander behaviors.⁶⁶ Although this finding was unexpected, it supports the recommendation by McMahon and Banyard (2012) that non-intimate partner sexual violence and intimate partner violence must be analyzed separately due to the differences between these crimes. Future research should include questions on the outcome of bystander behaviors. For example, are there unintended consequences of intervening that may negatively impact a bystander's propensity to intervene?

The role of self-efficacy. Several studies have found that bystanders who had higher confidence in their skills were more likely to intervene or express willingness to intervene

⁶⁶ I.e., "speak up if I heard somebody say that someone deserved to be raped by someone other than a partner," "talk to a friend who was raped by someone other than a partner" or "get help for a friend because they had been forced to have sex by someone other than a partner."

(Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Huston et al., 1981; Latané & Darley, 1970). Therefore, it was hypothesized that self-efficacy would be associated with intervening in all types of bystander interventions. In the current study, self-efficacy was only associated with proactive bystander behaviors. Therefore, this hypothesis was not fully supported. However, the self-efficacy scale may not have sufficiently measured confidence in engaging as a bystander reactively. The items (below) were primarily about proactive types of bystander behaviors; therefore, these findings are not surprising.

- 1. I have the skills to help prevent dating violence and sexual violence on my campus.
- 2. I believe my peers will listen to me if I speak out against dating violence and sexual violence.
- 3. I feel that my personal efforts can make a difference in reducing dating violence and sexual violence.

The role of rape myths acceptance (RMA). Based on previous findings by Burn (2009) and Banyard (2008), it was hypothesized that RMA would be negatively associated with intervening as a bystander generally and specifically as an SV bystander. Although RMA was not associated with intervening reactively or in alcohol-related situations, RMA was negatively associated with intervening proactively to prevent SV and DV and with being an SV-specific bystander.

It was surprising that there was not a significant (and negative) association between rape myths acceptance and reactive bystander behaviors. This may be because, as mentioned in chapter 3, only seven items of the IRMA scale were included in this survey. The full scale includes 45 items⁶⁷ with seven subscales. The seven items in the current study only included four subscales (i.e., three *she asked for it* items, two *she lied* items, one *rape is a trivial event*

⁶⁷ Only 40 of the 45 items are scored because five items are "filler items." (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999). 156

item and one *rape is a deviant event* item). It may be that, despite the alpha of 0.87, these seven items do not adequately measure all of the facets of rape myths acceptance and one of the longer scales should have been used. An alternative (or complementary) explanation is that due to social desirability bias the rape myths acceptance scale does not adequately capture beliefs about rape (discussed in more detail below) (McMahon, 2007).

Another unexpected finding was that although the sample scored relatively low on rape myths acceptance (see Table 6.4 in chapter 6), several myths about rape were present in the qualitative responses (see chapter 8). When respondents in the current study were asked about strategies to prevent sexual or dating violence, they wrote comments like "wore pants instead of skirts to clubs/frats," "I believe that if a girl is smart and doesn't put her self into these situations then it can be avoided," or "talking about it, so girls know the risks of getting too drunk." That is, there was a focus on personal responsibility and party safety strategies that highlighted the predominant belief among respondents that the onus is on women to prevent sexual assault. McMahon (2007) had similar findings in her study with student athletes. In the survey portion of the study, the respondents' scores on a scale rating acceptance of violence and rape myths indicated a low acceptance of rape myths but focus groups and interviews revealed "certain subtle yet pervasive rape myths" (McMahon, 2007, p. 363).

Also implicit in the open-ended responses that implicitly or explicitly blamed victims in the current study was a belief in a "just world" (Lerner, 1980). That is, as humans, we want to believe we have control over what happens to us. It is comforting to believe that we live in a world where violence only happens to those who provoke it or were not "smart enough" to prevent it. If individuals can point to something the victim did to instigate the assault, it is easier to "reaffirm an individual's false sense of security that they are somehow immune to rape" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

The role of sex. In previous studies on bystander intervention, sex has been a significant predictor of engaging in bystander behaviors (Banyard, 2008; Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Laner et al., 2001; McMahon, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011; Nicksa, 2011). The findings have been mixed and dependent on the risk-level of the situation, the target of the intervention, the type of intervention and the level of perceived self-efficacy of the bystander. However, based on the results of studies on college campuses (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; McMahon et al., 2011), it was hypothesized that female students would be more likely to engage in bystander behaviors than male students. This hypothesis was supported for proactive bystander behaviors and alcohol-related bystander behaviors, but not reactive bystander behaviors.

In a recent study on a college campus on predictors of bystander intervention during a sexual assault, Nicksa (2011) found that sex was not associated with direct interventions⁶⁸ and that female students were more likely to engage in bystander intervention that involved indirect or external help actions.⁶⁹ The items that fall under reactive bystander behaviors in the current study could be considered direct interventions because they involve confronting someone⁷⁰ or directly dealing with the aftermath of violence.⁷¹ Given that both confrontations and one-on-one helping behaviors were included under the reactive behaviors – it makes sense that sex was not significantly associated. Past research predicts that male students would be more likely to act in

⁶⁸ In Nicksa's (2011) study, *direct intervention* includes "calling out the victim's name during the incident, going into the room and telling the offender to leave and talking to the victim later to ask if she's OK." (p.78)

⁶⁹ In Nicksa's (2011) study, *indirect intervention* includes "causing a distraction, contacting a friend to come over and make sure the offender leaves and other" (p.79) and *external help interventions* include "calling someone to ask for advice, calling the police for help, offering rape crisis center information to the victim later and suggesting a rape awareness program to a coach or residence director" (p.79).

⁷⁰ I.e., "expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting very jealous and trying to control him or her" or "spoke up to someone who was bragging or making excuses for forcing someone to have sex with them."

I.e., talking to a friend who had been raped or hit or getting help for a friend who had been raped or hit.

direct interventions or those requiring confrontations (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Yet, past research and gender role theory⁷² would also predict that female students would be more likely to engage in one-on-one helping behaviors. Therefore, future studies should disentangle the *types* of reactive behaviors. Studies have also found that there is an interaction effect between the sex of the bystander and the target of the intervention (i.e., the person who needs help). Future research should analyze this further.⁷³

The role of sexual orientation. Sexual orientation was not significantly associated with engaging in bystander intervention.⁷⁴

Control variables. Two variables were included as control variables. Therefore, no hypotheses were established regarding these variables. First, whether the respondent uses alcohol was included to control for those who would be likely to be in alcohol-related environments and therefore have the opportunity to engage in alcohol-related behaviors. Using alcohol was negatively and significantly associated with engaging in alcohol-related bystander behaviors. That is, nondrinkers, relative to drinkers, were more likely to express concern about someone's drinking.

Second, a count of the number of times respondents indicated they did not have the opportunity to intervene in the items on the scale was included to control for exposure to these

⁷² Gender role theory posits that the "female gender role fosters acts of caring for others and tending to their needs, primarily in close relationships" (Eagly & Crowley, 1986, p.300).

⁷³ In spring 2012, the current study's author conducted a similar survey at a second university. In the second survey, she adapted an experiment designed by Nicksa (2011) to test for the effect of gender and the relationship to the victim and/or perpetrator in the propensity to intervene in a situation. These data are in the process of being analyzed.

⁷⁴ A Multiple Indicator, Multiple Causes (MIMIC) model was estimated to test whether group membership (such as being non-heterosexual) had a different factor means than its reference group (being heterosexual). Put simply, this method examines the direct effect of group membership on the latent factors (Brown, 2006). In the MIMIC model, being heterosexual was *negatively* associated with engaging in proactive bystander behaviors and was not associated with engaging in reactive or alcohol-related bystander behaviors (while controlling for gender, race, involvement in a fraternity or sorority and past victimization history). Results not shown.

types of situations. A current challenge for the field of bystander intervention research is how to measure, or control for, whether a survey respondent had the opportunity to intervene in a situation. In this survey, for the reactive and some of the alcohol-related items, the response options were: "0 times," "1-2 times," "3-5 times," "6 or more times," "Yes, but not since the beginning of 2010 fall term," or "no opportunity" to do this.⁷⁵ A concern with formatting the question this way is that respondents will read the question,⁷⁶ decide they have never had a friend in this situation, select "0 times" and move on to the next question (as opposed to reading all of the response options and selecting the last option which said, for example: "no friend had a jealous partner") (see Table 4.1 in chapter 4 to review the varied "no opportunity" response options). Or, a more optimistic view is that respondents read all of the response options, and then selected their answer (or they noticed the "no opportunity" option later in the survey, went back and revised their responses). Still, the way these questions were worded there could be two types of null responses - those who recognized a situation that needed intervention but did not intervene and those who did not have the opportunity to intervene and therefore never intervened. A second survey conducted at a second university by the current study's author reordered the response options so that the "no opportunity" option appears first. More recent surveys by other bystander intervention researchers are asking the question in two stages – that is, first asking whether they witnessed or experienced a situation, and if yes, asking whether they intervened and why they did or did not intervene (A. Coker, personal communication, August 30, 2012; C. Gidycz, personal communication, August, 28, 2012; M. Murphy, personal communication, August 29, 2012; S. Nicksa, personal communication, August 29, 2012). These

⁷⁵ The language for the final response option regarding "no opportunity" changed depending on the question asked. See Table 4.1 for the language used in each question.

⁷⁶ E.g., "Expressed concern to a friend whose partner was acting very jealous and trying to control him or her."

newer methods will continue to be tested to find the best method for controlling for level of opportunity to intervene.

In sum, observing others engage in bystander behaviors was the most consistent predictor of engaging in all types of bystander behaviors. Within the observed behaviors, the type of observed behaviors was correlated with the type of self-reported behaviors. In addition, experience with certain types of victimization was associated with certain types of bystander behaviors. These findings are generally consistent with Bandura's (1977) social learning theory that posited: "human thought, affect and behavior can be markedly influenced by observation, as well as by direct experience" (p.vii). In addition, there was evidence in the qualitative results that students are engaging in a variety of bystander behaviors. Many of the strategies related to "party safety," "one-on-one communication" and "education, advocacy and activism" highlighted the extent to which the respondents are trying to be capable guardians for their peers. This is promising – especially given that the campus in the current study had not yet implemented a bystander intervention education program.

Section 2

The Persistence of Rape Myths and Bystander Intervention

Rape myths are defined as "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (Burt, 1980, p.217). Similar to McMahon's (2007) findings, despite this sample's low scores on the RMA scale (see Table 6.4 in chapter 6), many rape myths appeared throughout the open-ended responses on preventing sexual and dating violence. The low average rape myths acceptance score may be in part due to the scale being "susceptible to socially desirable response biases" (Widman & Olson, 2012, n.p.) and, when compared with the qualitative results, may indicate a form of "benevolent sexism" (Chapleau, Oswald & Russell, 2007; Glick & Fiske, 1996). McMahon (2010) described this phenomenon in this way:

...myths [about rape] may exist in various, more subtle and covert forms, especially regarding expressions about victim blaming. Although those rape myths that blatantly blame girls and women for rape have become less acceptable, many of the underlying beliefs that the girls and women did something to contribute to the assault and that it is not completely the perpetrator's fault still exist but in more covert expressions... McMahon found that respondents would not directly blame the victim for her assault, but expressed the belief that women put themselves in bad situations by dressing a certain way, drinking alcohol, or demonstrating other behaviors such as flirting (p.4-5).

The seven items in the rape myths acceptance scale in the current study only included items from four out of the seven subscales present in the full 45-item scale. That is, three items were from the *"she asked for it"* subscale, two items were from the *"she lied"* subscale, one item was from the *"rape is a trivial event"* subscale and one item was from the *"rape is a deviant event"* subscale. This study did not include items from the other subscales (i.e., *"it wasn't really rape," "he didn't mean to,"* and *"she wanted it"*), which could be a threat to content validity.

Despite the shortened scale, the respondents may have recognized that the attitudes about

rape present in the RMA scale were not "ok" but their responses to the open-ended questions did endorse myths – especially related to beliefs that might be found on the subscales for *asking for it* and *rape is a deviant event*. A number of responses were focused on how to prevent a "real rape" and therefore included "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (Burt, 1980, p.217). This misinformation about rape can have serious consequences.

"Real Rape" ≠ Campus Sexual Assault

Estrich (1987) coined the term "real rape" to describe the stereotypical rape that is perpetrated by a stranger, involves weapons, injuries and an "innocent" victim. This idea of rape does not match reality. Although rapes perpetrated by strangers are most likely to be reported to police, stranger-perpetrated rape is statistically rare (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). In one study with a national sample of women, 11.7% of perpetrators were strangers (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). In a national study of college women, Fisher et al. (2000) found that only 1 out of 10 offenders of completed and attempted rapes during were perpetrated by strangers. In the current study's sample, strangers perpetrated only 8.5% of sexual assaults.

On college campuses, offenders tend not to use weapons, tend not to inflict visible injuries and the relational and social distance between the victim and offender tends to be small (Fisher et al., 2000; Fisher et al., 2010; Karjane et al., 2005; Krebs et al., 2007). In addition, some victims may be perceived as not "innocent" because sexual assaults on college campuses are also likely to involve alcohol (Abbey, 2002; Fisher et al., 2000). Krebs et al.'s (2007) Campus Sexual Assault study found that in 83.2% of completed sexual assaults during college, the victim was incapacitated due to voluntary or involuntary use of drugs or alcohol. In another study of college men, 81% of offenders reported that their victims were incapacitated by alcohol or other drugs during the rape (Lisak & Miller, 2002). In the current study, 48.9% of sexual assaults were drug or alcohol facilitated. Wolitzky-Taylor (2011) and others have found that alcohol or drug-facilitated rapes are the least likely rapes to be reported (see also Clay-Warner & Burt, 2005; Fisher et al., 2000; Kilpatrick et al., 2007). So,

while researchers find that college women remain more frightened by the prospect of stranger rape, and curtail their activities to minimize their risk of stranger rape, the most treacherous time for a college women is when she is at a party, drinking, with people she thinks she knows... the most common [rape] of all is 'party rape' (Kimmel, 2008, p.223).

Therefore, since these rapes on college campuses are not likely to be reported, rapists remain undetected. Lisak and Miller (2002) found that rapists on college campuses tend to be repeat rapists. They remain undetected "by attacking victims within their social networks... and by refraining from the kind of violence likely to produce physical injuries in their victims," therefore "these rapists create 'cases' that victims are least likely to report, and that prosecutors are less likely to prosecute" (Lisak & Miller, 2002, p.81).⁷⁷

The overreporting of the rare stranger rape means that women overestimate the probability they will be victims of a rape as they walk home at night. But due to underreporting of the more common non-stranger rape, women underestimate the probability that they will be the victim of acquaintance or intimate partner rape and they inaccurately believe that their actions can prevent rape (by being careful about what they choose to wear, where they choose to go and with whom they associate) (Clark & Lewis, 1977; Estrich, 1987; Caringella, 2009). Therefore, these potential victims have false or insufficient information. Consequently, when a non-stranger rape occurs, they are less likely to report it and more likely to blame themselves (Fisher et al., 2010).

⁷⁷ As Reardon (2005) wrote: "Rather than brute violence, most [college male] perpetrators use *instrumental violence* such as intoxication, coercion, or just enough physical force to overwhelm a victim without causing substantial physical injury" (p.397-398)

"The Fear of Rape"

Respondents in the current study wrote about avoiding stranger-perpetrated rape (e.g., "never walk anywhere alone, especially at night" and "be extra wary of not-so-safe areas, streets and people") but some also expressed concern about drug-facilitated rape (e.g., "always cover your drink") or "party rape." Overall respondents repeated the theme that, as one respondent put it, "girls need to make sure not to put themselves in situations that could cause harm." Many of the female respondents' comments were consistent with what Gordon and Riger (1989) called "the fear of rape" in their book, *The Female Fear*. They describe it this way:

Most women experience fear of rape as a nagging, gnawing sense that something awful could happen, an angst that keeps them from doing things they want or need to do, or from doing them at the time or in the way they might otherwise do. Women's fear of rape is a sense that one must always be on guard, vigilant and alert... It is worse than the fear of other crimes because women know they are held responsible for avoiding rape, and should they be victimized, they know they are likely to be blamed. (p.2)

Almost 25 years have passed since their book was published. Yet, this vigilance and knowledge that women are held responsible for avoiding rape persisted among the women in this sample. This fear of rape controlled them – it dictated where they could and could not go, whom they should and should not stay with, and the amount of alcohol they and their friends should consume. Keeping tabs on where one's friends "are at all times" and knocking on doors at parties sounds more like a part-time security job than an enjoyable college party.

Section 3

Implications for Bystander Intervention Research

As mentioned in chapter 3, the current study was a baseline study that was conducted prior to the implementation of a bystander intervention education program called Green Dot. This program trains peer leaders to be bystanders and relies on Rogers (1983) social diffusion theory, which posits that changes in behaviors can occur "if enough natural and influential opinion leaders within the population visibly adopt, endorse and support an innovative behavior" (Green Dot, 2010b). Through bystander efficacy training of "peer opinion leaders," the program seeks to "change norms supporting violence and its acceptance... and increase bystander behaviors to interrupt or prevent violence" (Coker et al., 2012, p.2). There were clearly leaders in the sample who are currently working to change norms supporting violence. There were also clearly bystanders who did what they could to keep their peers safe. However, other major findings of the current study resulted from comparing the aggregate quantitative rape myths acceptance (RMA) scores to the qualitative responses. This comparison raises serious questions about (1) the validity of the RMA scale (or at the very least the shortened version), (2) the connection between (and measurement of) attitudes and beliefs, and (3) the extent of misinformation about sexual assault that exists among this sample of college students. Each of these issues raises important questions that may impact the effective implementation and evaluation of bystander intervention education (or any violence prevention) programs. In addition, these findings validate the importance of qualitative methods in violence against

women research (similar to findings of Ahrens (2011)⁷⁸ and McMahon (2007)).

Measuring Rape Myths Acceptance

First, there are concerns about measurement and the validity of any RMA scale. RMA scales are consistently used to evaluate the effectiveness of bystander intervention education programs (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Coker et al., 2011; see also Lonsway et al., 2009)⁷⁹ and in sexual violence research. There are several types of scales used (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010) but Payne et al.'s (1999) Illinois Rape Myths Acceptance Scale is the most reliable scale to date (McMahon, 2010). Thirteen years later, is it measuring what researchers think it is? Is it useful in the bystander intervention research field? Past research has found that lower rape myths acceptance was associated with bystanders' willingness to intervene and with actually intervening (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010; Burn, 2009; McMahon, 2010). However, two recent studies have found that a higher level of rape myths acceptance was associated with more self-reported bystander behaviors (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Clear et al., 2012). Regardless, although blatant victim blaming is less socially acceptable than it once was, these attitudes persist, albeit more subtly (McMahon, 2011). Is it possible to measure rape myths acceptance in the modern era?

For example, in the recent 2012 election, Todd Akin, a Republican from Missouri, was solidly ahead in the polls until he commented that if a woman were a "legitimate rape" victim, she would not get pregnant because her body "has ways to try to shut that whole thing down"

⁷⁸ For a meeting on sexual violence research sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, Ahrens (2011) presented quantitative survey data then had each survivor surveyed tell their story. This side-by-side comparison also highlighted what is "missed" when only quantitative data is relied upon to understand the experiences of survivors of sexual assault.

⁷⁹ Banyard (2008) and Coker et al. (2011) included control groups in their analyses, which increases the ability to measure change in attitudes (as recommended by Lonsway et al., 2009).

(Cohen, 2012). In Wisconsin, Roger Rivard, a state representative, was talking to a reporter about a case where a 14-year-old girl was held down and raped in the band room at her school. Rivard mentioned that his father had warned him: "some girls, they rape so easy" (Marley, 2012). Both of these politicians lost their elections (Ryan, 2012), which may indicate a general disdain for outward expressions of beliefs related to "legitimate" victims or "real rape." However, no matter how disdainful, these beliefs persist in the media and general public (McMahon, 2011).

The RMA measures (explicit) *attitudes* about rape, but perhaps we need to be measuring (implicit) *beliefs* about rape. Gal, Ginsburg and Schau (1997) distinguish attitudes and beliefs in this way (emphasis is in the original text): "attitudes are relatively stable, intense *feelings* that develop as repeated positive or negative emotional responses are automatized over time. Beliefs are individually held *ideas*" (p.4). In addition, "attitudes influence and are influenced by one's own beliefs" (Gal et al., 1997, p.5). Beliefs about "real rape" and the woman's responsibility to prevent rape are salient aspects that must be measured when evaluating a bystander intervention education program. There are items that measure these aspects of rape myths – but do we need to find another way or an additional way to measure these beliefs more adequately?

When someone does or says something that is not "socially acceptable," the reaction they receive from others may affect future behavior. According to Bandura (1977), "consequences [to actions] serve as an unarticulated way of informing performers what they must do to gain beneficial outcomes and to avoid punishing ones" (p.192). However, do people learn "what to say" or do their beliefs actually change? After Akin and Rivard's respective election losses, they learned a lesson on "what not to say" but that does not mean the myths/beliefs they espoused were transformed.

Some argue that this has also happened in regards to racism. That is, "overt racism has mutated into subtler forms since the civil rights movement... that is, [there is] a sense that any racist feeling or thought is deplorable and must be suppressed" (Trepagnier, 2001, p.146). Through focus groups, Trepagnier's (2001) study identified a form of "silent racism," or negative thoughts and attitudes towards people of color, among white women who identified themselves as "not racist." It may be that "silent racism" is one step in the process – a process that will take generations to create "non-racism." For now, though, we have a conundrum. In general, studies on racism and prejudice have found:

...when people are made aware that their attitudes toward disadvantaged groups are being measured, and they are explicitly instructed to respond in an egalitarian manner, their implicit attitudes continue to exhibit bias against African Americans and gay men—although their explicit attitudes become less biased (Dasgupta, 2009, p.277).

However, there is a thread of optimism within this cynical view of the lack of change in people's implicit attitudes. The change in social norms that requires racism (or sexism) to be hidden may mean that future generations are not influenced in the same way previous generations were by racist (or sexist) overtones. That is, according to McConahay (1986) hidden or covert racism "has also created a dynamic for future change in a positive, less prejudiced direction... when people must behave as if they are not prejudiced, it sets cognitive consistency pressures in motion to change the residual feelings" (p.123). Recent studies in the field of racism and prejudice have shown that implicit attitudes cannot only be measured (see for example Project Implicit at Harvard University, 2012) but these attitudes can shift (Dasgupta, 2009). One way that implicit attitudes can be shifted complements the bystander intervention education framework. That is, one's perception of social norms can change his or her opinions – for better or worse. According to Dasgupta (2009):

Sechrist and Stangor (2001) found that participants' implicit beliefs about African Americans became less stereotypic if they discovered that their peer group was more egalitarian than themselves compared to a situation in which they had no information about peer opinion. However, participants' beliefs became more stereotypic if they discovered that their peer group was less egalitarian than themselves compared to "no information" controls.

Therefore, the extent of misinformation⁸⁰ and "social norms" among the respondents raise additional concerns about the prospect of implementing and evaluating a bystander intervention education program. Although a couple of respondents recognized that "a lot of times people have the wrong impression and believe that it is more likely to be a stranger who attacks them when in fact they are more likely to know the person," many respondents were afraid of stranger perpetrators. In addition, as mentioned above, many respondents placed the onus on the woman to prevent being assaulted. In her study, Burn (2009) found that "the perception that a potential victim made choices or behaved in ways that increased her sexual assault risk was found to reduce bystander intervention intentions" (Burn, 2009, p.877). If bystanders are going to be effective, their beliefs on who perpetrates rape (i.e., most likely someone who is not a stranger) and who is responsible for rape (i.e., the offender not the victim) must be transformed. That is, programs must emphasize rape prevention (i.e., "changing the behavior of men") in addition to, or instead of, emphasizing risk reduction (i.e., reducing women's vulnerability to sexual assault) (Lonsway et al., 2009, p.2).

In sum, the violence against women and bystander intervention fields of research must create better tools to measure implicit attitudes and beliefs among study participants. As demonstrated by the current study and McMahon's (2007) study, qualitative methods are a useful

⁸⁰ Kimmel (2008) describes date rape myths as disinformation not misinformation. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), misinformation is "wrong or misleading information." Disinformation is also wrong information but unlike misinformation, it is a known falsehood. The OED defines disinformation as "the dissemination of deliberately false information" (Stahl, 2006, p.86).

way to gather data on implicit attitudes and covert myths about rape. Bystander intervention and other rape prevention programs are a step toward correcting the misinformation about rape and sexual assault. However, the resulting changes in behaviors must also incorporate a way to measure actual changes in attitudes and beliefs.

CHAPTER 10

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The findings of the current study demonstrate that different factors predict whether a bystander will intervene based on the timing of an intervention (proactive vs. reactive), the type of situation (violence-related or alcohol-related) and the type of crime (intimate partner violence vs. non-intimate partner sexual violence). The findings also indicate that bystanders have a range of opportunities to intervene (see Tables 8.3a and 8.3b). In addition, in this sample of college students there was a range of beliefs about what strategies are successful to prevent sexual and intimate partner violence ranging from individualism (personal responsibility and avoidance), to interpersonal responsibility (one-on-one communication; buddy system at parties), to community-wide responsibility (i.e., education, advocacy and activism). This chapter will briefly identify several implications related to future research, policy and practice.

Implications for Future Research

The field of bystander intervention in interpersonal violence on college campuses is relatively new. This study demonstrates the importance of examining self-reported bystander behaviors (instead of willingness to intervene) to understand capable guardianship, via informal social control, on college campuses. The findings from the current study indicate that qualitative methods are key for a holistic view of the role of peers' role in preventing and responding to sexual assault and dating violence. Future studies should use mixed methods (i.e., quantitative and qualitative) to examine the correlates of self-reported bystander behaviors. For example, more research is needed on the situational factors associated with intervention such as relationship of the bystander to the victim, to the offender and the setting of the possible bystander intervention (e.g., home, public space or at a party).

The current study also highlights that there are different types of interveners. This allows for a more thorough examination of what it means to be a bystander. In addition, the current study demonstrates the role of social norms, i.e., that the type of observed behavior was associated with the type of self-reported behavior. Future research should look closely at this connection. That is, is the connection temporal? Did a bystander see someone else help someone and then decide to help another person? Alternatively, was someone who generally helped others more likely to notice other helpers? Also, what was the quality or impact of the intervention? Was the outcome positive or negative? According to whom?

The role of victimization is also another interesting avenue for future research. That past victimization is associated with certain types of bystander behaviors is helpful to know but we do not want to increase victimization in order to increase bystander intervention. Therefore, future research should ask: What is the role of the type and severity of victimization experienced, the length of time since victimization and the types of bystander behaviors? Alcohol is another important avenue for future research. Studies have established that alcohol is associated with sexual assault on college campuses (Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Krebs et al., 2007) – but perhaps we need to know more about the role beliefs about alcohol (i.e., absolving the offender of a crime) or even bystander intoxication plays in the ability to intervene.

Future studies could also be better at measuring the self-efficacy of the respondents – especially since this is an important component from the early bystander intervention studies (e.g., Huston et al., 1981; Latané & Darley, 1970). Future studies may also need to include interaction effects or single-group analyses to better understand the role sex plays in bystander interventions. In addition, future studies must improve on measuring the opportunity to

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intervene. There has been some progress in this area lately but more can be accomplished. Lastly, as was discussed at length in the previous chapter, improvements should be made to the measurement of rape myths and attitudes supporting violence.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Currently, there is pending legislation that would update the Clery Act and, among other mandates, would require interpersonal violence prevention and bystander intervention programs for all incoming students (Clery Center, 2012). This legislation, called the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act, was included in the Violence Against Women Act reauthorization that was passed by the Senate but has not been passed by the House of Representatives (Dietrich, 2012). If passed, colleges and universities will be looking to implement bystander intervention education programs - many of which have either not been formally evaluated or have only been evaluated on one or two campuses. In addition, "there is a limited amount of research demonstrating the efficacy of programs for both reactive and proactive bystander intervention. (Lonsway et al., 2009, p.8). The current study is one step towards a better understanding of bystanders on college campuses and the factors associated with different types of bystander interventions. Still, there are some measurement issues to be dealt with before "evidence-based practice" in bystander intervention on college campuses will exist.

Another major implication for policy and practice is related to the persistence of rape myths. These myths affect disclosure of sexual assault (Ullman, 2010), reporting of sexual assault to authorities, accountability for the offender, jury verdicts and public policy formation (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). These myths, coupled with the enduring fear of rape, demonstrate another aspect of social control that may negatively affect bystander intervention. Therefore, while social norms related to helping encourage reactive bystander interventions, social norms related to "legitimate" victims or "real rape" may discourage disclosures and therefore reduce opportunities to help.

Conclusion

Violence is preventable, yet it persists. Bystander intervention is a promising approach to preventing sexual assault and dating violence on college campuses (Banyard et al., 2007; Coker et al., 2011). This approach complements existing programs and policies at universities nationwide by transforming the environment into one where students look out for one another. In time, studies like this one will help to improve prevention and intervention efforts on college campuses and young people will increasingly have the power to create a new social world where they recognize, in the words of Martin Luther King, Jr. (1964): "Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere. We are caught in an inescapable network of mutuality, tied in a single garment of destiny. Whatever affects one directly, affects all indirectly."

APPENDIX A

DEFINITIONS

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2009b) defines sexual violence as:

- "the use of physical force to compel a person to engage in a sexual act against his or her will, whether the act is completed;
- 2) attempted or completed sex act involving a person who is unable to understand the nature or condition of the act, to decline participation, or to communicate unwillingness to engage in the sexual act, e.g., because of illness, disability, or the influence of alcohol or other drugs, or because of intimidation or pressure; and
- 3) abusive sexual contact (i.e., unwanted touching)" (CDC, 2009a) and
- non-contact sexual abuse (e.g., threatened sexual violence, exhibitionism, verbal sexual harassment)" (CDC, 2009b).

Dating violence (also called intimate partner violence) is defined as:

"physical, sexual, or psychological harm by a current or former partner or spouse. This type of violence can occur among heterosexual or same-sex couples and does not require sexual intimacy. Intimate partner violence can vary in frequency and severity" (CDC, 2009a). There are four types of intimate partner violence including:

- "**Physical violence** is the intentional use of physical force with the potential for causing death, disability, injury, or harm. Physical violence includes, but is not limited to, scratching; pushing; shoving; throwing; grabbing; biting; choking; shaking; slapping; punching; burning; use of a weapon; and use of restraints or one's body, size, or strength against another person.
- **Sexual violence** [see above for the definition]
- Threats of physical or sexual violence [is the use of] words, gestures, or

weapons to communicate the intent to cause death, disability, injury, or physical harm.

- Psychological/emotional violence involves trauma to the victim caused by acts, threats of acts, or coercive tactics. Psychological/emotional abuse can include, but is not limited to, humiliating the victim, controlling what the victim can and cannot do, withholding information from the victim, deliberately doing something to make the victim feel diminished or embarrassed, isolating the victim from friends and family and denying the victim access to money or other basic resources. It is considered psychological/emotional violence when there has been prior physical or sexual violence or prior threat of physical or sexual violence" (CDC, 2009a).
- Stalking is also a form of psychological or emotional violence that can occur within intimate relationships (CDC, 2009a; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). The National Center for Victims of Crime's Model Stalking Code (2007) defines stalking behavior as:
 - (9) Any person who purposefully engages in a course of conduct directed at a specific person and knows or should know that the course of conduct would cause a reasonable person to:
 - (a) fear for his or her safety or the safety of a third person; or
 - (b) suffer emotional distress.

• Reproductive coercion or control:

"occurs when women's partners demand or enforce their own reproductive intentions whether in direct conflict with or without interest in the woman's intentions, through the use of intimidation, threats and/or actual violence. It can take numerous forms: economic (not giving the woman money to buy contraception or obtain an abortion), emotional (accusing her of infidelity if she recommends contraception or denying paternity of the pregnancy), as well as physical (beating her up upon finding her contraception or threatening to kill her if she has an abortion)" (Moore, Frohwirth & Miller, 2010).

It can also include "birth control sabotage" (interference with contraception) and/or "pregnancy coercion," such as telling a woman not to use contraception and threatening to leave her if she doesn't get pregnant" (Miller, Jordan, Levonson & Silverman, 2010).

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APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE WITH SURVEY PARTICIPANTS Introductory (prenotice) letter DATE

NAME ADDRESS

Dear NAME,

You were randomly selected to participate in a research study by a PhD student at American University. The purpose of this study is to learn more about how to prevent dating and sexual violence on college campuses. The study consists of a web-based survey. Students at other college campuses from across the United States will also be participating in this study.

It is your choice whether to complete the questionnaire. Should you decide to participate in this research study, your responses will be kept confidential and may help us understand more about dating and sexual violence on your campus. Any information that is published or presented about this study will not identify any study participant. You are free to skip any questions or discontinue at any time. The survey takes about 20 minutes to answer all questions. Please find a time to complete this survey when you are alone.

Payment for your time is enclosed with this letter in the form of two dollars cash. We hope to receive completed web-based questionnaires from about 1000 students enrolled at [THIS UNIVERSITY], so your responses are very important to us. Although we have tried to minimize this, it is possible that some questions may make you upset or feel uncomfortable and you may choose not to answer them. If some questions do upset you, feel free to contact any of the resources on the attached page.

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Participation in this survey may not benefit you directly, however it may benefit the [UNIVERSITY NAME] community in that it will help to inform [UNIVERSITY NAME] and other college campuses how to prevent these types of violence.

While individual responses are confidential, aggregate data will be compiled representing averages or generalizations about responses as a whole. All data will be stored in a secure location accessible only to the researcher. The aggregated results of this research will be shared with [UNIVERSITY NAME] administrators and may be presented in journal articles or at conference presentations.

If you have questions or concerns during the time of your participation in the study, or after its completion or if you would like to receive a copy of the final aggregate results of the study, please contact:

Jane Palmer, MSW, PhD studentCONTACT INFORMATIONDepartment of Justice, Law and SocietyOF STAFF MEMBER FROMAmerican UniversityON-CAMPUS SEXUAL(XXX) XXX-XXXXASSAULT PROGRAMjane.palmer@american.eduHERE

The American University Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviews all research projects

that involve human participants to be sure the rights and welfare of participants are protected.

If you have questions about your rights as a research subject, please contact:

[IRB CHAIR NAME]

[IRB COORD. NAME]

IRB Coordinator
American University
IRB COORD. PHONE #
irb@american.edu

You will receive a link to the survey at your [UNIVERSITY NAME] email address, XXXXX@UNIVERSITYNAME.edu.

If this is not correct, or if you would prefer to receive the survey at a different email address, please send Jane an email: <u>jane.palmer@american.edu</u>.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Jane Palmer

SEXUAL ASSAULT PROGRAM STAFF NAME

Email Reminder #1

Subject: Letter with \$2 – please complete survey

Hello!

On Monday, I mailed a letter to you about an online survey about dating and sexual violence. This survey is being conducted by a PhD student at American University to know more about dating and sexual violence on campus in order to inform prevention activities at [UNIVERSITY NAME].

You have been randomly selected to participate in this survey. Of course, you have a choice about whether to complete the survey. If you do participate, you are free to skip any

questions or discontinue at any time. The survey takes about 20 - 25 minutes to complete. Your responses will be kept completely confidential. No one will know that you completed the survey.

As a token of my appreciation, I enclosed two dollars in the letter I sent you. This letter was sent to the address the registrar has on file for you.

Please find a time to complete the survey when you are alone. If you have any questions, please contact me at <u>jane.palmer@american.edu</u>. Should you not want to participate in the study, please let me know and I will remove you from the mailing list.

When you are ready to begin the survey, click on the link below.

Please complete this survey as soon as possible. Thank you very much for your time! I really appreciate it!

Sincerely

Jane Palmer

PhD student

Department of Justice, Law and Society

American University

(XXX) XXX-XXXX

Email Reminder #2

On Apr 1, 2011, at 12:01 PM, Jane Palmer wrote:

<u>Subject: reminder – don't forget to complete the survey!</u>

Hello and Happy Friday!

I know you are very busy this time of the year but this is a friendly reminder to encourage you to complete the survey on dating and sexual violence. You are receiving this email because you are part of the randomly selected sample of students for this survey. **It is important that we have a representative sample so your response is very important to the integrity of the study.** The survey has a variety of questions so please continue until the end of the survey. You can skip any questions you are uncomfortable answering. I sent a letter earlier this week asking you to participate in the study. I hope you received the letter by now because as a token of my appreciation, I enclosed two dollars in the letter. This letter was sent to the "local address" you have on file with the university (for some of you this address was not actually local).

Of course, you have a choice about whether to complete the survey. **Again, if you do participate, you are free to skip any questions or discontinue at any time.** The survey takes about 20 - 25 minutes to complete. Your responses will be kept completely confidential. Please find a time to complete this survey when you are alone.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (202) 885-6329 or jane.palmer@american.edu (email is the best way to get a hold of me - I only check voicemail about once per day). Should you not want to participate in this study, please email me at jane.palmer@american.edu and I will take you off the mailing list.

The link for the survey is listed below. If you already started to fill out the survey but did not complete it, the link should direct you to where you left off. Please complete this survey as soon as possible.

Thank you for your time! I really appreciate it!

Sincerely,

Jane Palmer PhD student Department of Justice, Law and Society American University (XXX) XXX-XXXX Email Reminder #3

On Sun, Apr 3, 2011 at 8:52 PM, [SEXUAL ASSAULT STAFF] wrote:

Subject: one more week!

Hello-

My name is [NAME] and I'm working with Jane on the survey on dating and sexual violence. **The survey will be available for you to complete for one more week. We want to hear from you.** The survey has a variety of questions so please continue until the end of the survey. You can skip any questions you are uncomfortable answering.

If you already completed the survey - thank you! You are still receiving this reminder because your completion did not register with the program. If you believe you completed the survey already and you have a moment, click the link below and make sure you click past the 'resources' page. Once you do, you should not receive another reminder email.

For those of you that have not yet completed the survey, we will send a couple more reminders between now and next Sunday. Of course, you have a choice about whether to complete the survey. Again, if you do participate, you are free to skip any questions or discontinue at any time. The survey takes about 20 - 25 minutes to complete. Your responses will be kept completely confidential. Please find a time to complete this survey when you are alone.

If you have any questions, please contact me[EMAIL] or Jane (jane.palmer@american.edu). Should you not want to participate in this study, please email Jane and she will take you off the mailing list (or click "opt out" below).

The link for the survey is listed below. If you already started to fill out the survey but did not complete it, the link should direct you to where you left off.

Thank you for your time! I really appreciate it!

Sincerely,

SEXUAL ASSAULT PROGRAM STAFF NAME

(XXX) XXX-XXXX

Email Reminder #4

On Wed, Apr 6, 2011 at 2:27 PM, Jane Palmer <<u>jane.palmer@american.edu</u>> wrote: <u>Subject: Is violence preventable?</u>

Hello!

I know it is a busy time of year but this is a quick reminder about the survey on dating and sexual violence. It will be available for you to complete until Sunday at midnight. It asks a variety of questions including a section on whether these types of violence are preventable or how these types of violence could be prevented. Your opinion is valued. Also, three other universities are participating in this same study. Again, all of your responses are confidential. You may skip any question and the survey should only take about 20 minutes of your time. If you already completed the survey - thank you! You are still receiving this reminder because your completion did not register with the program. If you believe you completed the survey already and you have a moment, click the link below and make sure you click past the 'resources' page. Once you do, you should not receive another reminder email.

For those of you that have not yet completed the survey, we will send a couple more reminders between now and Sunday. Of course, you have a choice about whether to complete the survey. If you choose to complete it, please try to find a time to complete this survey when you are alone.

If you have any questions, please contact me or SEXUAL ASSAULT PROGRAM STAFF MEMBER (EMAIL ADDRESS). Should you not want to participate in this study, please email Jane and she will take you off the mailing list (or click "opt out" below).

The link for the survey is listed below. If you already started to fill out the survey but did not complete it, the link should direct you to where you left off.

Thank you for your time! I really appreciate it!

Sincerely,

Jane Palmer

Final email reminder

On Sat, Apr 9, 2011 at 12:00 PM, Jane Palmer <<u>jane.palmer@american.edu</u>> wrote: <u>Subject: 36 more hours...</u>

Hi everyone,

The survey will remain open until midnight tomorrow. I will send one final reminder tomorrow night. I know you are very busy so if you do take the time to take the survey, please know that it is very appreciated. If you already completed the survey and are still receiving this email, it did not register with the system, please click the link below and be sure to click past the "resources" page.

You were randomly selected from a list of all [THIS UNIVERSITY] undergraduate students to participate in this survey on preventing dating and sexual violence. You have a choice about whether to complete the survey. If you choose to complete it, please try to find a time to complete this survey when you are alone. If you have any questions, please contact me or SEXUAL ASSAULT PROGRAM STAFF MEMBER (EMAIL ADDRESS). Should you not want to participate in this study, please email me and she will take you off the mailing list (or click "opt out" below).

The link for the survey is listed below. If you already started to fill out the survey but did not complete it, the link should direct you to where you left off.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Jane Palmer

Note: A brief final reminder was sent at 4 pm on 4/10/2011 reminding students that the survey closes at midnight.

APPENDIX C

SURVEY INSTRUMENT



Created: March 29 2011, 3:32 PM Last Modified: April 10 2011, 9:00 PM Design Theme: Basic Blue Language: English Button Options: Custom: Start Survey: "Start Survey!" Submit: "Next" Disable Browser "Back" Button: False

Survey - Spring 2011

Page 1 - Heading

Thank you for your interest in our survey!

Page 1 - Heading

This is a study looking at the prevention of dating violence and sexual violence. We are interested in knowing more about how to prevent dating and sexual violence on college campuses. You were randomly selected to participate in this survey and you have a choice to complete the questionnaire. If you do participate, you are free to skip any questions or discontinue at any time. The survey takes about 20 - 25 minutes to answer all questions.

That you participated in the survey will be kept confidential. Any information that is published or presented about this study will not identify any study participant.

Some questions may make you upset or feel uncomfortable and you may choose not to answer them. If some questions do upset you, please refer to the resources included in the letter we sent you. Also, at the end of the survey we will provide information for you including people who may be able to help you with these feelings and resources on campus and in your community.

Page 1 - Heading

Because of the sensitive nature of some of these questions, you may prefer to complete this survey in a private setting. If this is not a good time or place, please close this window now and return to the survey when you can.

Page 1 - Heading

If you have complaints, suggestions, or questions about your rights as a research volunteer, contact the American University Institutional Review Board at irb@american.edu or 202-885-3447.

If you have questions about the survey, please contact Jane Palmer at jane.palmer@american.edu.

Page 1 - Heading

Thank you for participating! Please note, if you click 'no' in the question below, you will not be able to complete the survey.

Page 1 - Question 1 - Yes or No

Do you want to complete the survey now?

- Yes
- No [Screen Out]

Page 2 - Question 2 - Choice - One Answer (Drop Down)	
How old are you?	

\mathbf{O}	17 or younger [Screen Out]
\mathbf{O}	18
\mathbf{O}	19
\mathbf{O}	20
\mathbf{O}	21
\mathbf{O}	22
\mathbf{O}	23
0	24
0	25 or older [Screen Out]

Page 2 - Question 3 - Choice - One Answer (B	Bullets)
--	----------

What is your year in school?

- Freshman
- O Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- O Other, please specify

Page 2 - Question 4 - Choice - One Answer (Bulle	ets)
--	------

Are you:

- Male
- Female
- O Transgender

Page 2 - Question 5 - Choice - Multiple Answers (Bullets)

How would you describe yourself? Check all that apply.

- American Indian or Alaska Native
 - Asian

[Mandatory]

[Mandatory]

189

- Black or African American
- Hispanic or Latino/Latina
- □ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- U White
- Other, please specify

Page 2 - Question 6 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

What is the highest level of schooling your mother or father has completed (select whichever is higher)?

- O Some elementary, middle, or high school
- High school graduate
- O GED
- Vocational school
- Some college
- College graduate
- Master's degree
- Doctorate
- O Professional degree such as MD, JD, Nursing

Page 3 - Question 7 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

People are different in their sexual attraction to other people. Which best describes you?

- Only attracted to females
- Mostly attracted to females
- Equally attracted to females and males
- Mostly attracted to males
- Only attracted to males
- Not sure

Page 3 - Question 8 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Which of the following best describes your dating status? By "dating," we mean anything from a casual to a committed relationship, including all of the following: Hooking up with someone, doing something sexual with someone, having an open relationship in which you are also dating other people, going out on dates with someone, being in a committed relationship with a boyfriend or girlfriend, living with a boyfriend or girlfriend.

- O Casual dating, not in a committed relationship [Skip to 25]
- O Doing something sexual with someone, not in a committed relationship [Skip to 25]
- O Not currently dating, but I have dated since the beginning of the Fall 2010 semester [Skip to 25]
- O Not currently dating, but I have in the past (before the beginning of the Fall 2010 semester) [Skip

to 25]

- I am in a committed relationship with my boyfriend or girlfriend, not living together [Skip to 25]
- O Living with my boyfriend or girlfriend, or married [Skip to 25]
- None of the above

[Mandatory]

	r been p	regnant o	r gotten s	some	eone preg	nant?								
YesNoI don	't know													
Page 4 - Headin	g												_	
These next q Fall semeste happened?														
	40 Dati				·									** 4
Page 4 - Questio Someone sho						iool w	hen yo	u did not	want th	em to.			7	[Mandator
0 times <mark>[Skip to 6]</mark>	1 t	ime 2	tim	e s	3-5 tir	n e s	6 - 9	times	10 or mo	re times	-	reginning of the 2010 Fall term	~	to answer [Skip to 6]
0 C	\bigcirc	1 (2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	0	1
Page 5 - Questio	on 11 - Rati	ng Scale - M	atrix										_	
Nho did this?				s of y	our relatio	onship	with th	ne persor	n at the	time of	the inci	dent(s).]	
					М	а		I	е	F	е	m	a	I
Curre	n t	par	t n e	r	0				1	0				4
Previ	ous	par	t n e	r	0				1	0				7
F r	i	e	n	d	0				1	0				7
Acqu	ai	n t a	n c	e	0				1	0				
Str	а	n g	e	r	0				1	0				/ 4
													٦	[Mandator
									or comr	nents/p	ictures	posted		
You received		sites (for e	xampie,		•		6 - 9	times	10 or mo	re times	Yes, but not since the b	enimino of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not	to answer <mark>[Skip to 8]</mark>
You received on social net times <mark>[Skip to 8]</mark>	working s 1 t	ime 2	tim	e s	~		~						\bigcirc	7
You received on social net o times [Skip to 8]	working s 1 t	ime 2			3-5 tir	mes 3	0	4		5	0	6	0	7
You received on social net times [Skip to 8] O 0 Page 7 - Questio	working s	i m e 2 1	t i m	e s 2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6		7
You received on social net times [Skip to 8] O 0 Page 7 - Questio	working s	i m e 2 1	t i m	e s 2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6		7
Page 6 - Questic You received on social net 0 times [Skip to 8] O 0 Page 7 - Questic Who did this	working s	i m e 2 1	t i m	e s 2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	a	7

Previous partner	0	1 O	2
Friend	0	1 O	2
Acquaintance	0	1 •	2
Stranger	0	1 •	2

Page 8 - Que	estion	14 - F	Rating S	cale ·	- One	Answer (F	lorizontal)	<u> </u>							[Ma	andatory]
Someone Facebook	•				•		•					(for exar	nple,			
0 times [Skip to			0,					•				ore times	Yes, but not since the begin	ming of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to answ	ver [Skip to 10]
0	0	0		1	0		2 O	3	0	4	\bigcirc	5	0	6	0	7

Page 9 - Question 15 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Who did this? Please indicate the status of your relationship with the person at the time of the incident(s).

	Μ	а	I	е	F	е	m	а	I	e
Current partner	0			1	0					2
Previous partner	0			1	0					2
Friend	0			1	0					2
A c q u a i n t a n c e	0			1	0					2
Stranger	0			1	0					2

Page 10 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times did someone:

Page 10 - Question 16 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal)

Mał	ke gesture:	s, ru	de rem	narks	oru	use se	exual b	ody la	anguage t	o emt	oarrass or	upset y	ou?				
0	times	1	tiı	n e	2	tin	nes	3 - 5	tim e s	6 - 9	tim e s	10 or mo	ore times	Yes, but not since the beginning	g of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not t	o answer
Ο	0	0		1	0		2	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	5	0	6	0	7

Page 10 - Question 17 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal)

Keep	p asking y	ou o	ut on a	date	e or a	asking you t	to hoo	okup even	thou	gh you sai	d "No	'?				
0 t	imes	1	tim	е	2	times	3 - 5	tim e s	6 - 9	tim e s	10 or n	nore times	Yes, but not since the	e beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not	t to answer
Ο	0	\bigcirc		1	0	2	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	5	0	6	\bigcirc	7

Page 11 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester:

Page 11 - C	Questic	n 18	Rating	Scale	e - Or	ne Ar	nswe	er (Ho	orizonta	l)							[N	landatory
How man unaware?		es d	o you :	susp	ect	or k	nov	/ tha	t som	eone pu	ut a dru	g into your	drink w	/hen you	ı were			
0 times [Skip	to 13]	1	tin	n e	2	ti	m	e s	3 - 5	time	s 6-9	times	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since the beg	inning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to an	swer [Skip to 13]
	0	\bigcirc		1	\bigcirc			2	\bigcirc	1	3 0	1	\bigcirc	5		6	\bigcirc	7

Page 12 - Question 19 - Choice - Multiple Answers (Bullets)

Where did this happen? (check all that apply)

- In a bar
- In a fraternity
- In a sorority
- In a dorm
- In a house or apartment
- Other, please specify

Page 12 - Question 20 - Choice - Multiple Answers (Bullets)

What happened when you suspected or knew you were drugged? (check all that apply)

- Became physically ill
- Experienced unwanted sexual touching
- Was physically hurt (hit, slapped, beat up)
- Forced to have sexual intercourse
- Other, please specify

Page 13 - Heading

These next questions are about unwanted sexual activity you may have experienced. Unwanted sexual activity means touching private areas of the body, oral or anal sex, or intercourse that you didn't want. Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times have you:

Page 13 - Que	stior	n 21 -	Ratir	ng Sca	le - Or	ne Answ	er (Ho	rizonta	I)							[Mandatory]
	lad unwanted sexual activities with someone because they threatened to end your relationship if you lidn't, or you felt pressured by the other person's arguments or begging?															
0 times [Skip to 1	5]	1	ti	m e	2	tim	e s	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or m	nore times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall ter	m Choose	not to answer [Skip to 15]
Ο	0	0		1	0		2	0	3	\bigcirc	4	0	5	•	5 O	7

Page 14 - Question 22 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Who did this? Please	indicate the status of	your relation	ship with the	e person at	the t	ime of	the inci	dent(s).			
		м	а	I	е	F	е	m	а	I	e
Current	partner	0			1	0					2
Previous	partner	0			1	0					2
Fri	e n d	0			1	0					2
Acquai	n t a n c e	0			1	0					2
Stra	n g e r	0			1	0					2

[Skip Unconditionally to 19]

Page 15 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times have you:

Page 15 - Question 23 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) Had unwanted sexual activities with someone because you were too drunk or high on drugs to stop them? 0 times [Skip to 17] 1 t i m e 2 t i m e s 3 - 5 t i m e s 6 - 9 t i m e s 10 or more times [skiutdischelging/th/Mildle													p	1]	/landatory]		
0 times [Skip t	to 17]	1	ti	me	e 2	tim	es	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since the	beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to a	nswer [Skip to 17]
	0	\bigcirc		1	C		-		-	\sim	4	\bigcirc	_	\frown	_	\sim	

Page 16 - Question 24 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Who did this? Please indicate the status of your relationship with the person at the time of the incident(s).

	М	а	I	е	F	е	m	а	I	е
Current partner	О			1	0					2
Previous partner	0			1	0					2
Friend	0			1	0					2
Acquaintance	0			1	0					2
Stranger	0			1	0					2

[Skip Unconditionally to 21]

Page 17 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times have you:

Page 17 - Que	estio	n 25 -	Ratir	ng Scal	e - Or	ne Ans	swer (H	orizonta	l)							_ [[Mandatory]
Had unwanted sexual activities because the other person threatened to use or used physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc)?														9			
0 times [Skip to 2	4]	1	ti	m e	2	tiı	mes	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since the	beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to a	answer [Skip to 24]
0	0	\bigcirc		1	0		2	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	5	\bigcirc	6	\bigcirc	7

Page 18 - Question 26 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Page 18 - Question 26 - Rating Scale - Matrix								_		
Who did this? Please indicate the status of	your relation	ship with th	e person at	the t	time of	the inci	dent(s).			
	М	а	I	е	F	е	m	а	I	e
Current partner	Ο			1	0					2
Previous partner	0			1	0					2
Friend	0			1	0					2
Acquaintance	0			1	0					2
Stranger	0			1	0					2

[Skip Unconditionally to 23]

Page 19 - I	Heading	3															
Since the	e begi	nning) of th	ne 20	10 F	all se	emeste	er, hov	w many	times h	ave you:						
Page 19 - 0	Questio	n 27 -	Rating	g Scal	e - Oi	ne Ans	wer (Ho	orizonta	l)								[Mandatory
Had unw them?	anted	sexu	ual ac	tiviti€	es w	ith so	meon	e beca	ause yo	u were	too drunk	or high	on drug	s to st	top		
0 times [Skip	to 21]	1	ti	m e	2	tin	nes	3 - 5	time	s 6-9	times	10 or mo	ore times	Yes, but not sinc	ce the beginning of the 2010 Fall terr	n Choose	not to answer [Skip to 21]
0	0	\bigcirc		1	\bigcirc		2	\bigcirc		3 O	4	\bigcirc	5	\bigcirc	6	5 O	7
Page 20 - 0	Questio	n 28 -	Rating	g Scal	e - M	atrix											
Who did	this?	Plea	se in	dicat	e the	e stati	us of y	our re	elationsl	nip with	the perso	n at the	time of	the in	cident(s)).	
								м		а	I	е	F	е	m	а	l e
C u r	r e	n t	I	o a	r t	n	e r	0				1	0				2

Pro	e v i	ious	s p	a r	t n e	r	0	1	0	2
F	r	i	e	1	n	d	0	1	0	2
A c	q	u a i	n t	а	n c	e	0	1	0	2
S	t	r a	n	g	e	r	0	1	0	2

Page 21 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall seme	ester, how many times have you:

Page 21 - Question 29 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) Had unwanted sexual activities because the other person threatened to use or used physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc)?															andatory]
(twisting your arm, holding you down, etc)?															
															wer [Skip to 23]
O (0		1	0	2	0	3	\bigcirc	4	0	5	0	6	\bigcirc	7

Page 22 - Question 30 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Who did this? Please indicate the status of your relationship with the person at the time of the incident(s).

	м	а	I	е	F	е	m	а	I	е
Current partner	0			1	0					2
Previous partner	0			1	0					2
Friend	0			1	0					2
Acquaintance	0			1	0					2
Stranger	0			1	\bigcirc					2

	3 - Questio						,		,	•						7	
	Have you been hurt as a result of unwanted sexual activities? Otimes 1 time 2 times 3-5 times 6-9 times 10 or moretimes "suurinsbeimidtem"///////////////////////////////////																
0 ti	mes	1	tir	n e	2	tim	es	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or mor	re times	Yes, but not since the beginn	ing of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not	to answer
Ο	0	\bigcirc		1	\bigcirc		2	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	5	\bigcirc	6	\bigcirc	7

Page 23 - Question 32 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Have you talked to a friend, family member, or counselor, called a hotline, gone online, sought medical care or called police as a result of unwanted sexual activities?

o Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term

Talked with a friend	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a family member	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a Resident Advisor (RA)	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a counselor	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a victim advocate	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a social worker	0	1 •	2 •	3
Talked with a therapist or other mental health provider off-campus	0	1 •	2 •	3
Contacted the Wellness Center, Women's Resource Center or GLBTA Resource Center	0	1 •	2 •	3
Went online to get help	0	1 •	2 •	3
Contacted Student Health Center	0	1 •	2 •	3
Sought medical care off-campus	0	1 •	2 •	3
Called a hotline	0	1 •	2 •	3
Called police	0	1 •	2 •	3

Hav	ve you mis	sed o	classes o	or w	ork a	s a result	of un	wanted se	xual a	activities?						
0	times	1	tim	е	2 t	imes	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since the	beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to	o answer
Ο	0	\bigcirc		1	0	2	0	3	\bigcirc	4	0	5	0	6	0	7

Page 23 - Question 34 - Yes or No

Have your grades gotten worse as a result of unwanted sexual activities?

• Yes

O No

Page 24 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, have YOU done the following to someone that you may have been romantically interested in now, or in the past:

Showed								or g					- ,	2 110	want	,00 10 .				
	nes	-	ti	m e)	2 t	im		3 - 5	tim		~	time		~	ore times	Yes, but not since t	he beginning of the 2010 Fall term	\sim	e not to ans
)	0	0		1		0		2	0		3	0		4	\bigcirc	5	0	6	0	
age 24 -	Quest	ion 36	- Pati		_ ماد	One	Answe	ar (Ho	vrizonta	I)										
											hone	e calls	. comi	men	ts or pi	ctures p	osted	on		
ocial n																oto. o				
	nes	•	ti	m e	•	2 t	i m		3 - 5	tim		~	time		10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since t	he beginning of the 2010 Fall term	-	se not to ans
	0	0		1		0		2	0		3	0		4	0	5	0	6	\bigcirc	
age 24 -	Quest	ion 37	- Ratii	na Sca	ale -	- One	Answe	er (Ho	orizonta	D										
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Page 49 - Question 68 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) My partner said to me, "You want us to use birth control, condoms or other protection so you can sleep around with other people" or something similar. 0 times 1 time 2 times 3-5 times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term 6-9 times 10 or more times Choose not to answer 2 Ο $0 \quad \bigcirc$ 1 \bigcirc \bigcirc 3 \bigcirc Page 49 - Question 69 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) My partner said to me, "If we have a baby, you will never have to worry about me leaving you. I will always be around" or something similar. 0 times 1 time 2 times 3-5 times 6-9 times 10 or more times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term Not Applicable Choose Not to Answer \bigcirc Ο 0 0 1 \cap 2 3 \cap \cap 5 \cap 6 \bigcirc \cap Page 49 - Question 70 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) My partner forced me to have sex without using birth control, condoms or other protection. time 2 times 3-5 times 6-9 times 0 times 1 10 or more times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term Choose not to answer Ο 0 \cap 2 \cap 3 Δ \bigcirc 5 \mathbf{O} \bigcirc ()6 Page 50 - Heading Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester: Page 50 - Question 71 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) Have you ever been physically hurt or injured by a partner? time 2 times 3-5 times 0 times 1 6-9 times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term 10 or more times Choose not to answer Ο 0 0 \bigcirc 2 \bigcirc \bigcirc Δ \cap 5 \bigcirc 6 1 Page 50 - Question 72 - Rating Scale - Matrix Have you talked to a friend, family member, or counselor, called a hotline, gone online, sought medical care or called police as a result of BEING physically hurt or injured by your partner? Ν Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term Talked with a friend \mathbf{O} 1 0 \bigcirc 3 2 Talked with a family member \bigcirc 3 \bigcirc \bigcirc 1 2 Talked with a Resident Advisor (RA) 0 \bigcirc 2 \bigcirc 3 1 Talked with a counselor 0 3 1 \mathbf{O} 2 \bigcirc Talked with a victim advocate 0 \mathbf{O} 2 \bigcirc 3 1 Talked with a social worker \bigcirc 1 \mathbf{O} 2 \mathbf{O} 3

Went online to get help	0		1	0		2	0		3
Contacted Student Health Center	0		1	0		2	0		3
Sought medical care off-campus	0		1	0		2	0		3
Called a hotline	0		1	0		2	0		3
Called police	0		1	0		2	0		3
Have you missed classes or work because 0 times 1 time 2 times	s 3-5	times	6-9 ti	mes	10 or more ti		ince the beginning of the 2010 Fa	-	e not to answer
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Page 50 - Question 74 - Yes or No Have your grades gotten worse because yo Yes No Page 51 - Heading	ou partr	ner physic	cally hurt of	r injure	ed you?	5 0			
Page 50 - Question 74 - Yes or No Have your grades gotten worse because yo Yes	ou partr ster, ho <u>Horizonta</u> I body	w many ti	cally hurt of	r injure omeon	ed you? e:	,	ince the beginning of the 2010 Fig		e not to answer
Page 50 - Question 74 - Yes or No Have your grades gotten worse because you Yes No Page 51 - Heading Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semes Page 51 - Question 75 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Make gestures, rude remarks or use sexual 0 times 1 time 2 time	ou partr ster, ho <u>Horizonta</u> I body	w many ti	to embarra	r injure omeon	ed you? e: upset you?	,	ince the beginning of the 2010 Fa		e not to answer
Page 50 - Question 74 - Yes or No Have your grades gotten worse because yo Yes No Page 51 - Heading Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semes Page 51 - Question 75 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Make gestures, rude remarks or use sexua times 1 time 2 times 0 times 1 time 2 times Page 51 - Question 76 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Make gestures)	Du partr Du partr Ster, ho Horizonta Horizonta	mer physic w many ti al) anguage t i m e s 3 al)	to embarra	r injure omeon ass or m e s 4	ed you? ee: upset you? 10 or more ti	, nes Ys,but	ince the beginning of the 2010 Pr	lim Choose	e not to answer
Page 50 - Question 74 - Yes or No Have your grades gotten worse because yo Yes No Page 51 - Heading Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semes Page 51 - Question 75 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Make gestures, rude remarks or use sexual times 1 time 2 times 0 0 1 0 2	bu partr bu partr ster, ho Horizonta bouto ho	w many ti al) anguage t i m e s 3 al) pokup eve	to embarra	r injure omeon ass or m e s 4	ed you? ee: upset you? 10 or more ti o id "No"?	nes Tajund 5 O	ince the beginning of the 2010 PF	dian Choose 6 O	e not to answer 7

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Page 53 - C	Questior	n 79 - Ch	noice -	Mult	iple Ans	wers (Bı	ullets)											
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Page 54 - H	leading																	
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activity m	eans	touchir	ng pri	vate	e areas	of the	body,	oral o	or ana	al sex	, or int	erco						
Since the	e begir	ining o	t the	201	0 Fall	semes	ter, ho	w mar	ny tin	nes ha	ave yo	u:						
Page 54 - C	Questior	n 80 - Ra	atina S	cale	- One A	nswer (H	Horizonta	d)									٢N	landatory
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[Skip Unconditionally to 60]

Page 56 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term, how many times have you:	
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Page 56 - Question 82 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) Had unwanted sexual activities with someone because you were too drunk or high on drugs to stop them?

0 times [Skip to 58] time 2 times 3-5 times 6-9 times 10 or more times Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term 1 Choose not to answer [Skip to 58] Ο 0 0 1 O 2 0 3 🔾 4 \bigcirc 5 🔾 6 O 7

Page 57 - Question 83 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Who did this?									
	м	а	I	e	F	е	m	а	1 (
Current partner	0			1	0				2
Previous partner	0			1	0				2
Friend	0			1	0				2
A c q u a i n t a n c e	0			1	0				2
S t r a n g e r	0			1	0				2

[Skip Unconditionally to 62]

Page 58 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times have you:

[Mandatory]

Page 58 - Question 84 - Rating Scale - One Answer (H Had unwanted sexual activities because the (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc)?			reaten	ed to use	or used	l physic	al for	ce		[Mandatory]
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Page 59 - Question 85 - Rating Scale - Matrix Who did this?										
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Previous partner	0				1	0				2
Friend	0				1	0				2
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	0				1	0				2
Stranger	0				1	\bigcirc				2
[Skip Unconditionally to 64] Page 60 - Heading Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semest Page 60 - Question 86 - Rating Scale - One Answer (H Had unwanted sexual activities with someon them?	orizontal)		-	or high (on drug	is to st	top]	[Mandatory]
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Page 61 - Question 87 - Rating Scale - Matrix Who did this?										
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Previous partner	0				1	0				2
Friend	0				1	0				2
A c q u a i n t a n c e	0				1	0				2
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Have y	- Questic ou bee	n hurt a	as a res	sult of	unwai	nted	sexua	l activit											
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Page 64 Have y	- Questic	on 91 - Ra ed to a	ating Sca friend,	ale - Ma family	mem	ber,	or cou		cal		hotlin		one onli	U					/

	Ν	0	Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall	term	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fal	term
Talked with a friend	0	1	0	2	0	3
Talked with a family member	0	1	0	2	0	3
Talked with a Resident Advisor (RA)	0	1	0	2	0	3

Talked with a counselor	0	1 Q	2 •	3
Talked with a victim advocate	0	1 O	2 •	3
Talked with a social worker	0	1 •	2 O	3
Talked with a therapist or other mental health provider off-campus	0	1 •	2 •	3
Contacted the Wellness Center, Women's Resource Center or GLBTA Resource Center	0	1 •	2 •	3
Went online to get help	0	1 O	2 •	3
Contacted Student Health Center	0	1 O	2 •	3
Sought medical care off-campus	0	1 O	2 •	3
Called a hotline	0	1 O	2 •	3
Called police	0	1 Q	2 •	3

Page 64 - Question 92 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal)

Hav	/e you miss	sed	classes	or ۱	vork	as a result	of un	wanted se	exual a	activities?						
0	times	1	tim	е	2	times	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or mor	e times	Yes, but not since th	e beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not	to answer
Ο	0	\bigcirc		1	\bigcirc	2	\bigcirc	3	\mathbf{O}	4	\bigcirc	5	\bigcirc	6	0	7

Page 64 - Question 93 - Yes or No

Have your grades gotten worse as a result of unwanted sexual activities?

0 Yes \mathbf{O} No

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, have YOU done the following to someone that you may have been romantically interested in now, or in the past:

Page 65 - Question 94 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal)

Showed up where someone lives, works or goes to school when they did not want you to? 0 times 1 time 2 times 3-5 times 6-9 times 10 or more times "subtrivite kinds with a line of the state of the school with the school when the school whe															
0	times	1	time	2	times	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since	the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose n	ot to answer
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Page 65 - Heading

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	- Question 109 - Rating Scale - C			to hoo		thractanad to u		7
Have physic	sexual activities with someo al force (twisting their arm,	holding the	ey didn't want m down, etc)?		ause you	Inreatened to us	se or used	
	mes 1 time 2	-			times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to answer
0	0 O 1 O	2	O 3	\mathbf{O}	4	O 5	O 6	• 7
Page 6	- Question 110 - Rating Scale - C	ne Answer (H	orizontal)					[Mandatory
Have	/ou or someone you know p	out drugs in	someone else	e's drinl	k on purpo	ose?		
-	kip to 71] 1 t i m e 2		3-5 times		times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose not to answer [Skip to 71]
0	0 O 1 O	2	• 3		4	• 5	• 6	• 7
	- Question 111 - Choice - Multiple							7
What	drug or drugs were used? (o	check all the	at apply)					
	Roofies (Rohypnol)							
	GHB Cocaine							
	Ecstasy							
	Methamphetamine							
	Other, please specify							
Page 7	- Question 112 - Choice - Multiple	e Answers (Bu	illets)					
Where	did this happen? (check al	I that apply))					
	In a bar							
	In a fraternity							
	In a sorority							
	In a dorm							
	In a house or apartment							
	Other, please specify							
	- Question 113 - Yes or No							٦
Did yc	u or someone you know en	gage in any	/thing sexual v	vith this	person?			
0	Yes							
0	No							
Page 7	- Heading							
	5							7

The next section is about talks, trainings, or classes on dating violence or sexual violence.

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Page 71 - Question 114 - Yes or No

Were you a student at a different college or university before coming to [THIS UNIVERSITY]?

YesNo [Skip to 74]

Page 72 - Question 115 - Yes or No

When you were a student at your previous college, did you hear a talk or attend a training about preventing dating violence or sexual violence?

O Yes

• No [Skip to 74]

Page 73 - Question 116 - Yes or No Was it a Green Dot talk or speech?

• Yes

O No

Page 74 - Question 117 - Yes or No

When you were in high school or middle school, did you hear a talk or attend a training about preventing dating violence or sexual violence?

• Yes

O No [Skip to 76]

Page 75 - Question 118 - Yes or No

Was it a Green Dot talk or speech?

YesNo

Page 76 - Heading

Since the beginning of the 2010 Fall semester, how many times:

Page 76 -	Questic	on 119	- Rating Sca	lle - One /	Answer (H	orizont	al)							٦	
Has a fri	iend o	r acq	uaintance	talked v	vith you	about	the impo	rtance	of reduci	ng sexu	ual or da	ting vio	lence?		
0 tim	nes	1	time	2 ti	mes	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	tim e s	10 or m	ore times	Yes, but not since the b	ginning of the 2010 Fall term	Choose no	ot to answer
0	0	\bigcirc	1	\bigcirc	2	\bigcirc	3	0	4	\bigcirc	5	0	6	\bigcirc	7

[Mandatory]

[Mandatory]

[Mandatory]

dating vio										ou cou	uld do tha	t might hei	p pre	vent sexual o	pr	
) tim	e s	1	tim	пe	2	tim	e s	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or more	times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall	ten Choose no	ot to answ
C	0	0		1	0		2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6 🔾	
9age 76 - C	Questic	on 121	- Ratin	g Sca	le - O	ne Ans	wer (H	lorizonta	al)							
-lave yoι hings yo										sed of	ther techr	nology to d	iscus	s activities or	,	
) tim		1	tim	ı e	2	tim	e s	3 - 5	times	6 - 9	times	10 or more	times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall	im Choose no	ot to ansv
C	0	\bigcirc		1	0		2	\bigcirc	3	\bigcirc	4	\bigcirc	5	0	6 🔾	
age 76 - C	Questic	on 122	- Ratin	g Sca	le - O	ne Ans	wer (H	lorizonta	al)							
			th you	r frie	nds a	about	what	you c	an do to l	keep y	ourself o	r others sa	fe fro	m sexual or		
lating vio					~		_	а F		~ ~		10		Martin a face de la chaire de la Anto Falla	0	11
tim. D	e s 0	1	tin	1 e	2	tim	e s 2	3 - 5	times 3	6 - 9	times 4	10 or more	times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall t	firm Choose no	ot to ans
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				e 20	10 Fa	all ser	neste	er, hov	v many tin	nes ha	ave YOU	done follov	ving:			
Since the	begi	inning	g of the							nes ha	ave YOU	done follov	ving:			
Since the	begi	nning on 123	g of the	g Sca	ıle - Oı	ne Ansv	wer (H	lorizonta	al)			done follov		nim or her.		
Since the lage 77 - C	begi Questio d cor e s	nning on 123	g of the	g Sca riend	ile - Oi d who	ne Ansv	wer (H artner	lorizonta	al)	y jealo			ntrol ł	nim or her. Ys but of size freigining of the 2001 Fall	IST No friend had a	a jealous pa
Since the Page 77 - C Expresse	begi Questic	on 123	g of the	g Sca riend	ile - Oi d who	ne Ansv DSE pa	wer (H artner	lorizonta	al) acting ver	y jealo	ous and t	rying to cor	ntrol ł	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall t	IVIN No friend had a	a jealous pa
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Page 77 - C	Question 12	27 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizoı	ntal)					
Talked to	a friend	who was	s rape	d by som	eone otl	her than a	partne	r.			
0 tim			•	•		5 times	•	times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	No friend had this happen
0	0 0)	1 ()	2 O	3	0	4	O 5	O 6	O 7
Page 77 - C	Question 12	28 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizoi	ntal)					
Asked so	meone t	hat looke	ed very	y upset if	they we	re okay or	neede	d help.			
0 tim		tim	e 2	time	s 3-	5 times	6 - 9	times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	Didn't see anyone upset
0	0 0)	1 (2 0	3	0	4	• 5	O 6	O 7
Page 77 - C											
		•				en home					
0 tim			e 2	time	÷ ~	5 times	\sim	times	10 or more times	-	No opportunity
0	0 0	,)	2 0	3	0	4	O 5	O 6	
D 77 0			0	0	(11	- (- 1)					
Page 77 - C											
O tim		tim		tim e		ng excuse 5 tim e s			10 or more times	sex with them. Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2000 Fall term	Didn't hear comeans cay this
\mathbf{O}			e z		$2 \bigcirc$	s times	~	4 times	O 5	0	Didn't hear someone say this
•	0		1	-	4	5			• •	•	
Page 77 - Q	Duestion 13	31 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizo	ntal)					
							sex or	were hur	t by a partner.		
0 tim		t i m		time		5 times		times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	No friend had this happen
Ο	0 🔾)	1 ()	2 O	3	-	4	• 5		• 7
Page 77 - C	Question 13	32 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizoi	ntal)					_
Got help f	for a frie	nd becau	use the	ey had be	en force	ed to have	sex by	someone	e other than a j	partner.	
0 tim		tim	e 2	time	s 3-	5 times	6 - 9	times	10 or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term	No friend had this happen
0	0 0)	1 (2 •	3	0	4	• 5	O 6	• 7
Page 77 - C	Question 13	33 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizoi	ntal)					
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-		~	m e		ime		time	_	-		Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term
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D 77 0			. .	• •		())					
Page 77 - Q											
						•		4 :	10	Van hen van alse eine bestering, state aanaar in s	Heres annound should be the state
0 tim	es 1 0 0	tim	e 2	time	2	5 times 3	-	times 4	10 or more times	_	Never concerned about a friend's drinking
•	0 0		1 4	2	1	5		1	9	•	
Page 77 - Q	Juestion 13	35 - Rating	Scale -	One Answ	er (Horizo	ntal)					
						for being	a victi	n of viole	nce.		
			m e	•	ime	-	time) or more times	Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term
0	0	0	1			2 0		3 0	4 (• 6

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 Page 77 - Question 137 - Rating Scale - One Answer (Horizontal) Made sure someone who had too much to drink got home safely. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 Made sure someone who had too much to drink got home safely. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 • • Page 77 - Question 138 - Open Ended - Comments Box •		es	1	tim	•	2	time		-	time			time		vasted."		Yes, but not since the beginning of the	2010 Fall form	Didn't hear someone
Value sure someone who had too much to drink got home safely. I t i m e s 1 t i m e s 2 t i m e s 3 - 5 t i m e s 6 - 9 t i m e s 10 or more times turnschippt/fillion termsverkidate Page 77 - Question 138 - Open Ended - Comments Box What things to prevent sexual and dating violence have you done, other than those listed above?	~		0		1				0		-	\sim			-	_		-	~
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Page	79 - Que	stion 1	44 - Ra	iting S	Scale	- On	ie Ans	wer (H	Horiz	ontal)						
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Page	79 - Que	stion 1	46 - Ra	ting S	Scale	- On	e Ans	wer (I	Horiz	ontal)						
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Ask a	a friend	if the	v nee	ded	no D		2000										
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Page 80 - Questio	on 167 - Rating Scal	le - Or	ne Ar	nswe	r (Ho	rizor	ntal)									-			
A woman who	dresses in skim	тру с	loth	ies s	shou	ld n	iot b	be s	urpr	ised if	a mai	n tries	to forc	e her t	to have sex.				
Strongly	disagree	D	i	s	а	g	r	е	е	Α	g	r	е	е	Strongl	y	аç	y r	ее
0	1	0							2	0				3	0				4

Page 81 - Heading

The next questions are in regard to the way	v vou mav have felt about things.
	j jeaniaj nate ien abeat anniger

Page 81 - Question 168 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Have you ever felt so sad or hopeless almost every day for 2 weeks or more in a row that you stopped doing some usual activities?

- O No
- Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term
- Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term

Page 81 - Heading

In your life, have you ever had any experience that was so frightening, horrible or upsetting you:

Page 81 - Question 169 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Had nightmares about it or thought about it when you did not want to?

- O No
- Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term
- Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term

Page 81 - Question 170 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Tried hard not to think about it or went out of your way to avoid situations that reminded you of it?

- Yes, since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term
- Yes, but not since the beginning of the 2010 Fall term

Page 82 - Heading

The next questions are about drinking alcohol (this includes beer, wine, wine coolers, and liquor such as rum, vodka, bourbon or whiskey). Drinking alcohol does not include drinking a few sips of wine for religious reasons.

Page 82 - Question 171 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

In the past month, on how many days did you have 5 or more drinks of alcohol in a row (within a couple of hours)?

[Mandatory]

O No

- I never drink [Skip to 84]
- O 0 days
- 1-2 days
- 3-9 days
- 10-19 days
- 20-31 days
- Choose not to answer [Skip to 84]

Page 83 - Heading

During the past month, have you:

Page 83 - Question 172 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Been unable to remember things that happened while you were drinking alcohol? (things you would normally remember)

- O No, never
- Yes, in the past month
- Not in the past month, but in the past year

Page 83 - Question 173 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Done things when drinking alcohol that you normally would not do and you now regret doing?

- O No, never
- Yes, in the past month
- Not in the past month, but in the past year

Page 84 - Question 174 - Rating Scale - Matrix

Have you heard of or attended any of the following programs?

	Never heard of this program	Heard of this program	Attended or completed this program
ALCOHOL PROGRAM 1	O 1	Q 2	O 3
ALCOHOL PROGRAM 2	O 1	O 2	O 3
ALCOHOL PROGRAM 3	O 1	O 2	O 3
ALCOHOL PROGRAM 4	O 1	O 2	O 3

Page 85 - Heading

The next question is about drug use, by this we mean both illegal and prescription drugs.

Page 85 - Question 175 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

In the past month have you used drugs other than those required for medical reasons?

- O No, never
- Yes, in the past month
- O Not in the past month, but in the past year

Page 86 - Heading

The survey is almost over! Please indicate whether you believe the following statements to be true or false.

Page 86 - Question 176 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Sexual Assault Nurse Examiners (SANE nurses) are available to perform rape kits at any hospital in [THIS AREA].

O True

False

Page 86 - Question 177 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Rape kits are available on campus through [THIS UNIVERSITY]'s Health Services.

- True
- False

Page 86 - Question 178 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

I feel confident that if a student [AT THIS UNIVERSITY] were ever raped, [THIS UNIVERSITY] has the resources to help from crisis to recovery in terms of sexual assault.

- O True
- False

Page 86 - Question 179 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Sexual assault is a problem on [THIS UNIVERSITY'S] campus.

- True
- False

Page 86 - Question 180 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

I know someone who has experienced a sexual assault as a student at [THIS UNIVERSITY].

- True
- False

Page 86 - Question 181 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

[THIS UNIVERSITY'S] community educates students about resources available to victims of sexual assault so that I know where to go if this ever happens to me.

• True

• False

Page 86 - Question 182 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

[THIS UNIVERSITY'S] student handbook includes a sexual assault policy.

• True

False

Page 87 - Question 183 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

If someone you know were to experience sexual assault, outside of talking to friends or family, where would that person be most likely to go for help?

- An on-campus resources (such as XXXXXXX)
- [THIS UNIVERSITY'S] Public Safety
- O Off-campus community program or counseling center
- Local police department
- O On or off-campus medical/health services
- O Other, please specify

Page 87 - Heading

Last section! The last few questions are about you and where you live.

Page 87 - Question 184 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

What is your school or college affiliation? (If you are affiliated with more than one college, please select your primary affiliation.)

- Academic department 1
- Academic department 2
- Academic department 3
- Academic department 4
- Academic department 5
- Academic department 6
- O Undecided/Undeclared

Page 87 - Question 185 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Are you a full-time or part-time student?

- O Full-time
- Part-time

[Randomize]

O Other, please specify

Page 87 - Question 186 - Yes or No

Are you on an athletic team?

• Yes

O No

Page 87 - Question 187 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Are you...

- O In a fraternity
- In a sorority
- O Neither

Page 87 - Question 188 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

Where do you currently live?

- O On-campus dorm, apartment or house
- O On-campus fraternity or sorority house
- O Off-campus fraternity or sorority house
- O Off-campus

Page 87 - Question 189 - Choice - One Answer (Bullets)

With whom do you live?

- Live alone
- With my parents or other adult relatives
- With a roommate/roommates (not a romantic partner)
- With my husband/wife, boyfriend/girlfriend or other romantic partner

Page 88 - Heading

IMPORTANT: Please click 'Next' at the bottom of this page to officially submit your responses! Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey!The results will be used to help make college campuses safer and help reduce dating and sexual violence. If you are interested in receiving a report on the results, please contact Jane Palmer at jane.palmer@american.edu. Remember your participation in this survey is strictly confidential. Page 88 - Heading

Resources in the community:

The following are hotline numbers and websites that may be useful for you, a friend, or a family member. All these hotlines have staff available to talk anytime day or night. The 1-800 phone calls are free and anonymous.

If someone needs to talk about feeling alone, sad or depressed:

Call 1-800-784-2433 or go to www.thehopeline.com and click 'Get Help NOW' for a list of phone numbers and online chat websites.

If someone needs to talk about being hurt by or are afraid of a boyfriend or dating partner:

Call 1-800-799-SAFE (1-800-799-7233) or go to www.thehotline.org.

If someone needs to talk about being stalked, unwanted sexual activity or dating violence even if this happened a long time ago:

Call 1-800-656-HOPE (1-800-656-4673). You can also go to www.rainn.org and click 'Online Hotline' at the top of the page to chat with a counselor anonymously online.

Page 88 - Heading

Resources at [THIS UNIVERSITY]:

THIS SECTION LISTED SEVERAL CAMPUS-BASED RESOURCES FOR SURVIVORS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT OR DATING VIOLENCE. THEY ARE EXCLUDED FROM THIS VERSION OF THE SURVEY BECAUSE THE STUDY SITE IS TO BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL.

Thank You Page

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey!

Screen Out Page

Thank you for your interest in our survey!

Unfortunately if you do not agree to participate or if you are not between the ages of 18 - 24 you cannot take part in the survey.

Over Quota Page

Standard

Survey Closed Page

This survey is no longer available.

Thank you!

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