

CAMPUS INTERPERSONAL VIOLENCE IN THE LONE STAR STATE:
AVAILABLE RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS EXPERIENCING RELATIONSHIP
VIOLENCE, SEXUAL ASSAULT, AND STALKING

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

DEGREE OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

BY

IRAIS D. ANDERTON CHAVEZ, M.A.

DENTON, TEXAS

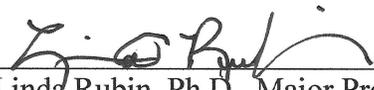
MAY 2016

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
DENTON, TEXAS

February 26, 2016

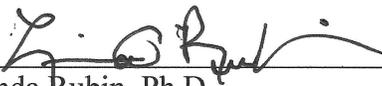
To the Dean of the Graduate School:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Irais D. Anderton Chavez entitled "Campus Interpersonal Violence in the Lone Star State: Available Resources for Students Experiencing Relationship Violence, Sexual Assault, and Stalking." I have examined this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Counseling Psychology.

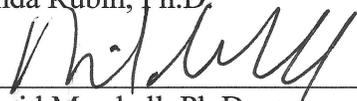


Linda Rubin, Ph.D., Major Professor

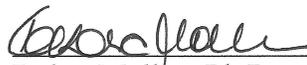
We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:



Linda Rubin, Ph.D.



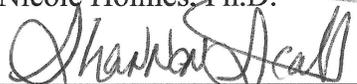
David Marshall, Ph.D.



Debra Mollen, Ph.D.



Nicole Holmes, Ph.D.



Shannon Scott, Ph.D., Department Chair

Accepted:



Dean of the Graduate School

Copyright © Irais D. Anderton Chavez, 2016 all rights reserved.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am eternally grateful for those who offered unwavering support throughout all phases of this project. I would especially like to thank my parents and friends for your love and encouragement. I would also like to recognize my dissertation committee, Drs. Holmes, Marshall, and Mollen, and give a special “thank you” to my advisor, Dr. Linda Rubin; this dissertation would not have been possible without your patience and guidance.

ABSTRACT

IRAIS D. ANDERTON CHAVEZ

CAMPUS INTERPERSONAL VIOLENCE IN THE LONE STAR STATE: AVAILABLE RESOURCES FOR STUDENTS EXPERIENCING RELATIONSHIP VIOLENCE, SEXUAL ASSAULT, AND STALKING

MAY 2016

At colleges and universities, students are at particular risk of experiencing interpersonal violence. College students have experienced relationship violence, unwanted sexual contact, and stalking, which have impacted them physically, emotionally, and psychologically. Federal initiatives have called for the implementation of policies and resources to address and decrease interpersonal violence on campuses across the nation. The author of the current study sought to investigate the variety of resources and policies available to students in colleges and universities in Texas. The author further sought to examine the impact of institution size and location on the availability of resources for students. Student Life or Student Affairs personnel were asked to complete a questionnaire packet incorporating an Institutional Profile Questionnaire and an Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire. Hypotheses for the present study were tested using logistical regressions, scatter plots, and correlational analyses. Results indicated that urban colleges and universities were statistically significantly more likely than rural colleges and universities to use focus groups and lack ways to make sexual assault policies available to students, faculty, and staff. It was further found that 4-year colleges and universities were statistically

significantly more likely than community colleges to have sexual assault policies that included a detailed response to reports of sexual violence; to provide sexual assault educational programs, such as PowerPoint presentations and experiential activities; and to not provide educational information on verbal abuse as a form of relationship violence. Results also demonstrated that private 4-year colleges and universities were statistically significantly more likely than public colleges and universities to utilize workshops to offer education; to provide information about informal reporting options of rape and sexual assault; and to lack information about community partnerships in policies. The present study also found that 4-year colleges and universities with more violence intervention and response resources tended to have more violence prevention programs, and those with more victimization prevention curricula tended to provide more programs preventing perpetration of relationship violence and sexual assault. Overall, colleges and universities with policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations had more educational resources available to students. Implications for policy, research, practice, and training are discussed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
COPYRIGHT.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
Violence in Colleges and Universities.....	5
Interpersonal Violence on College and University Campuses.....	7
Relationship Violence.....	8
Cyberbullying.....	10
Multicultural Relationship Violence	11
Unwanted Sexual Contact.....	13
Greek life.....	18
Stalking.....	20
Multicultural stalking.....	23
National and Federal Initiative for Addressing Sexual Violence.....	25
Title IX.....	25
Addressing Sexual Assault on Campus.....	27
Best Practices for Violence Prevention in Colleges and Universities.....	31
Interpersonal Violence Response and Prevention.....	32
Legislative Resources Addressing Campus Interpersonal Violence.....	34
Texas legislation for primary and secondary schools.....	34
Resources for college and university students under Title IX.....	36
Usage and Knowledge of Campus Programs.....	38
Summary of Literature Review.....	40
Purpose of the Current Study.....	41
Hypotheses.....	41

III. METHODS.....	44
Participants.....	44
Instruments.....	44
Information Letter.....	44
Informed Consent Form.....	45
Institutional Profile Questionnaire.....	45
Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire.....	46
Model Policy for the Prevention and Response to Sexual Assault.....	46
U.S. Department of Justice Promising Practices.....	47
A Guide to Addressing Dating Violence in Texas Schools.....	48
Incentive Information.....	49
Participation Reminders.....	49
Procedure.....	50
Hypotheses.....	51
Statistical Analysis.....	52
IV. RESULTS.....	54
Research Participants.....	54
Research Findings.....	55
Frequency Data for Policy and Programming.....	63
V. DISCUSSION.....	69
Summary of Findings.....	69
Changes Following the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013...	74
Implications for Policy.....	75
Implications for Research.....	76
Implications for Practice.....	77
Implications for Training.....	79
Limitations.....	80
Conclusion.....	81
REFERENCES.....	82
APPENDIXES	
A. Information Letter.....	95
B. Informed Consent Form.....	97
C. Institutional Profile Questionnaire.....	100

D. Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire	102
E. Incentive Information	110
F. Participation Reminder.....	112

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Demographic Profiles of Participating Colleges and Universities.....	58
2. Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying 4-Year Colleges and Universities.....	59
3. Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying 4-Year Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming.....	59
4. Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying Urban Colleges and Universities.....	60
5. Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying Urban Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming.....	61
6. Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying Private Colleges and Universities.....	62
7. Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying Private Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming.....	63
8. Number of Institutions with Specific Policies and Educational Resources for Interpersonal Violence.....	67
9. Number of 4-Year Institutions with Specific Policies on Interpersonal Violence and Educational Resources Based on Location.....	68

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Correlation between violence intervention and response resources and violence prevention programs and initiatives among 4-year colleges and universities.....	64
2. Correlation between preventing victimization and preventing perpetration among 4-year colleges and universities.....	65
3. Correlation between adherence to Title IX policy recommendations and availability of resources among 4-year colleges and universities.....	66

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There has been an increasing commitment in recent years to the prevention of violence, particularly in schools (Foubert, Garner, & Thaxter, 2006; Peterson & Skiba, 2001). The impact of campus violence extends far beyond the perimeter of a school campus and has generally been a reflection of culture and society. From name-calling and bullying in elementary schools to acts of physical violence on college campuses, school violence can be experienced as a private, personal matter and as a nationwide media event. Either way, the emotional and psychological impact on those individuals involved can permeate the campus community.

As a form of campus violence, interpersonal violence, in particular, has been more prevalent (Wilson, Kirkland, & LaBanc, 2014). Students' experiences with violating or unwanted interactions have mirrored the experiences of individuals who do not identify as students. Interpersonal violence has been shown to have a number of psychological effects on the victims/survivors. In some cases, instances of campus violence have been seen as overwhelming experiences that lead victims and survivors to experience symptoms of traumatic stress. College students who have gone through interpersonal violence have experienced emotional and psychological reactions, such as anxiety, fear, shock, and isolation (International Society for Traumatic Stress Studies [ISTSS], 2010).

College students, particularly women, are at high risk of becoming victims of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking (e.g., Baum & Klaus, 2005; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010), placing these students at great risk of experiencing traumatic stress. As stated by Roark (1987), college students have been vulnerable to being victims of violence, with approximately 20-35% of college students having experienced relationship violence during their college years (National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education, 2012; Wasserman, 2003). As traditional-age college students, they have typically been in new settings with different environmental stressors without the direct supervision provided by parents, guardians, and old support systems (Roark, 1987).

As defined by the California Coalition Against Sexual Assault (Malloy, 2003), relationship violence is a pattern of controlling behaviors in which an intimate partner “uses physical violence, and/or emotional, sexual, economic, or cultural abuse to control the other partner in a relationship” (pp. 2-3). The National Center for Victims of Crime (NCVC) (2012a) has defined sexual assault as taking many forms, including rape, forced sexual intercourse, or attempted rape, as well as any unwanted sexual contact or threats. Stalking, as defined by the Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN) (2009b), is behavior directed at a specific person characterized by repeated visual or physical proximity, nonconsensual communication, and/or verbal, written, or implied threats, that cause feelings of fear.

Though the college years can be a time of growth, increased independence, and new relationships, they can also be a time of uncertainty, isolation, and for some students, danger. While some students may never experience violence during their tenure at their

respective colleges and universities, others may experience different forms of relationship and sexual violence. While many educational institutions offer legal and counseling services upon student request, and as a means of providing preventative information to students, faculty, and staff, some institutions do not offer an abundance of resources (U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs [DOJ], 2005).

Intervention and prevention programs across the nation have worked to provide trainings for students, faculty, and staff not only to raise awareness about the prevalence and impact of school violence, but also to educate on issues of consent, awareness, and conflict resolution (e.g., Foubert et al., 2006; Lee, Caruso, Goins, & Southerland, 2003). Under Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments to the Civil Rights Act, policies have been created for implementing guidelines, procedures, and resources aimed at preventing and addressing student discrimination. Title IX has also addressed initiatives for all schools to address and reduce incidents of interpersonal violence (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 2011).

To date, no research can be found on the availability of particular campus resources for students who have experienced interpersonal violence in Texas. As one of the largest states in the nation, with a total of 186 public and independent institutions of higher education, the number of students at risk of experiencing some form of interpersonal violence is substantial (Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, 2011). The present study was conceptualized to examine the types of campus resources available for students who have experienced relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking. Particular attention was given to higher education institution characteristics, with the

hope of learning whether available funding and campus location have any bearing on availability of policies, programs, and resources.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a summary of the different kinds of violent and aggressive acts students may experience on college and university campuses. This chapter also provides an overview of legislative incentives and best practices aimed at addressing incidents of violence on college campuses.

Violence in Colleges and Universities

Violence in schools has occurred in many forms. From bullying in elementary schools to terroristic threats on college campuses, school violence has overtly and silently impacted school communities. In a national survey for the Department of Justice's Bureau of Statistics, which measured the rate of crime victimization of college students (ages 18-24) from 1995 to 2002, Baum and Klaus (2005) asked participants to indicate incidents they had experienced during the 6 months prior to the study. Participants were asked to select from a number of different kinds of victimizations. Simple assault was defined as an attack without the use of a weapon in which individuals were uninjured or received minor injuries, such as bruising or black eyes. An aggravated assault was defined as an attack or attempted attack with the use of a weapon and an attack without a weapon when it resulted in a serious injury. Additionally, the authors included robbery, completed or attempted theft by force or threat of force, and rape and sexual assaults as categories of violent victimization.

Baum and Klaus (2005) found that male students were twice as likely to be victims of violence, not including sexual violence, as female students. The authors also found that White college students were at greater risk of violent victimization than students of other races. Of the violent victimizations experienced by college students, not including rape or sexual assaults, Baum and Klaus found that 58% were committed by strangers, 41% of offenders were perceived to be using alcohol or drugs, and 93% of crimes occurred off campus, of which 72% occurred at night. Survey results also indicated that only 35% of violent victimizations were reported to the police. Specifically, “the most common reasons given by college students for not reporting to the police were that the violence was a private or personal matter (31%) and that the crime was minor or resulted in no loss (25%)” (p. 6). For the study period, the authors found that college students experienced violence at an annual rate averaging 61 per 1,000 students.

According to Carr’s (2007) analysis of campus violence patterns and types of violence, simple assaults accounted for approximately two-thirds of college student violent crimes (63%) occurring on college campuses. Male college students were twice as likely to be victims of overall violence as were female students. In a national survey of 27,774 college students from 44 different institutions, the American College Health Association (2012) found that, during the 12 months prior to the study, 9.8% of male students and 3.8% of female students had experienced a physical fight, while 24.0% of male students and 15.3% of female students experienced verbal threats. Survey results also indicated that some college students experienced emotionally, physically, and

sexually abusive intimate relationships (6.6%, 2.0%, 0.9% respectively for male students; 11.1%, 2.4%, 2.1% respectively for female students).

As presented by Lipka (2008), the violent crime rate on college campuses in 2004 was 62 incidents of crime per 100,000 students, with the national rate at 466 per 100,000 residents. These incidents of crime had direct and indirect impacts on those involved and contributed to an environment of fear and insecurity, particularly for crimes that targeted individuals. Though male college students were more likely to be victims of violence (e.g., homicide, assault, robbery) than female students, college women were more likely to be victims of sexual violence and other forms of interpersonal violence (Baum & Klaus, 2005; Carr, 2007; Lipka, 2008; Truman & Langton, 2015). In the following section, the different types of interpersonally violent acts that college students, especially women, experienced during their years on college campuses, as well as prevalence rates for sexual violence, are reviewed.

Interpersonal Violence on College and University Campuses

Of the different types of violent acts that occur on college campuses, interpersonal violence, in the forms of relationship violence, sexual assaults, and stalking, have often been the most common and the least openly discussed (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Though interpersonal violence has been inflicted on both women and men, women have been at greater risk of becoming victims and men have been more likely to be perpetrators of interpersonal violence (Baum & Klaus, 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a). In this section, research on the prevalence and different types of behaviors

college students have experienced, when involved in incidents of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking, is presented.

Relationship Violence

In 2007, 14% of all homicides, 2,340 deaths, were a result of relationship violence. Of these deaths, 70% were women and 30% were men (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012). College students have been particularly vulnerable to relationship violence. In fact, in one of the most widely cited studies from the Department of Justice (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000b), it was found that severe relationship violence has been significantly higher among college students than among individuals in the general population. Sellers and Bromley (1996) administered a random survey to Florida university students and found that 21% of students reported having experienced violence in a relationship with a current partner, and 32% reported having experienced violence in a relationship with a previous partner. Similar research (National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education, 2012; Wasserman, 2003) has also indicated that at least 20-35% of college students have experienced some form of sexual harassment, physical violence, or abuse in their dating relationships.

Relationship violence, also known as dating violence, interpersonal violence, or domestic violence, has included a pattern of controlling, physically abusive, and aggressive behaviors experienced within a relationship (Malloy, 2003; Wasserman, 2003). This pattern of abusive behavior, including physical assaults and sexual abuse, is used by violent intimate partners to undermine abused partners' ability to act independently (Pence & Paymar, 1993). Specific behaviors exhibited when using

physical violence are throwing objects, pushing, grabbing, shoving, punching, kicking, and attacking or threatening to attack with a weapon. Relationship violence has also encompassed emotional or psychological abuse, such as stalking, insulting, and isolating victims, as well as sexual abuse, which includes sexual assault, aggression, coercion, and rape. Economic abuse, as a form of relationship violence, is the withholding or controlling of financial resources to intimidate partners. Economically abusive partners may restrict their intimate partners' spending by providing monetary allowances, controlling bank accounts, or making all financial decisions (Malloy, 2003).

Relationship violence has been characterized by dynamics of power and control exerted by abusers on their intimate partners (O'Neil & Nadeau, 1999; Pence & Paymar, 1993). For some abusive men, for example, having control over their partners has been a way to validate their gender-role identity. Masculine gender-role stereotypes have often been dictated by societal, cultural, and familial messages. According to the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCADV) (2011), power and control in relationships can be identified by acts of intimidation, emotional abuse, isolation, minimizing, denying and blaming, using children to elicit guilt or fear, economic abuse, male privilege, and use of coercion and threats. Physical and sexual violence is then used to reinforce the power behind these acts (Pence & Paymar, 1993). The use of physical, sexual, psychological, and emotional violence in relationships has often been a means of gaining and maintaining power and control over increasingly oppressed or vulnerable partners. Abusive acts may also become automatic and used intentionally by abusers (NCADV, 2011; Pence & Paymar, 1993). International research has suggested that 17-

45% of university students have physically assaulted their intimate partners, and as many as 20% assaulted their partners to the point of injury (Straus, 2004). Approximately 4-20% of abusive students have used severe forms of violence, such as beating, kicking, threatening with a gun or knife, hitting with an object, choking, repeatedly slamming partners against a wall, and purposefully burning or scalding partners.

Relationship violence can impact victims in numerous ways. Students who have experienced physical violence in their relationships may suffer serious physical injuries, such as broken bones, internal bleeding, bruising, cuts, scratches, and even death. In response to relationship violence, emotionally and psychologically, students may develop low self-esteem, difficulty trusting others, substance abuse problems, and eating disorders (CDC, 2012; Malloy, 2003). Students who have experienced relationship violence may also exhibit symptoms of depression (e.g., sadness, difficulty sleeping, and thoughts of suicide) and academic difficulties (CDC, 2012).

Cyberbullying. As a form of interpersonal violence, bullying has been associated with verbal and emotional forms of abuse (i.e., manipulation, spreading rumors) and having similar impact than other forms of abuse (i.e., experiencing fear, anxiety, depression) (Burgess, Garbarino, & Carlson, 2006). With the increased use of social networking and social media, cyberbullying has become a more common experience for adolescents and adults alike and equally distressing (Bauman & Newman, 2013). Abusive partners have increasingly used threatening text messages, phone calls, or phone tracking to try to intimidate and exert control over their partners (Schnurr, Mahatmya, & Basche, 2013). Abusers might also limit their partners' financial resources by

electronically emptying bank accounts and tampering with their credit.

Though college women and men have both been victims of cyberbullying, research has found that women have experienced cyberbullying to be more distressing than men and having partners share explicit pictures was found to be the most upsetting form of victimization (Bauman & Newman, 2013). Some research, however, has shown that college women have been more likely than men to be perpetrators of relational cyber aggression, including sending angry text messages and engaging in arguments via social media (Schnurr et al., 2013).

With technology becoming an increasingly pervasive form of communication in relationships, the use of technology and social networks has unfortunately become another avenue by which abusive individuals might harass and threaten others (Sugarman & Willoughby, 2013). While prevalence rates have indicated that college students in general are at greater risk of experiencing relationship violence than the general population, the following section describes the unique challenges that minority, immigrant, and international students face in their experiences with relationship violence.

Multicultural relationship violence. Immigrant and international students are vulnerable to experiences of relationship violence. As a form of relationship violence, cultural abuse can be used by aggressive individuals as a means of controlling and isolating their culturally diverse partners. With incidents of cultural abuse, violent partners often use culture or traditions to cause emotional harm, such as making racist remarks or ridiculing religious beliefs in an effort to show disrespect or exert privilege (Malloy, 2003).

Abusive individuals have often used their partners' immigration status to exert control over them. Abusers may isolate international and immigrant partners from friends and family members who speak their language and prevent them from learning the dominant language. Abusers may also threaten student victims with deportation or threaten to sabotage their chances of obtaining citizenship or residency. International and immigrant students may have important documents (e.g., passport, ID cards) destroyed or have cultural mementos ridiculed or destroyed (NCADV, 2011).

As a group, racial minorities have experienced higher rates of relationship violence than their White counterparts (Truman & Langton, 2015). There are differences, however, under the racial minority umbrella. In general, American Indian/Alaska Native women have experienced higher rates of relationship violence than women of other racial backgrounds, while Asian/Pacific Islander women and men have significantly lower rates of relationship violence than other racial and ethnic groups. Compared to White women and men, African American women and men have also tended to have more experiences of interpersonal violence (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a).

Traditional beliefs about gender roles and relationships have often contributed to the prevalence of relationship violence among different cultural groups (Coker, Sanderson, Cantu, Huerta, & Fadden, 2008; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a). Researchers have found that approximately 43% of Mexican American college women have experienced some form of relationship violence in a given year. Approximately 30% of Mexican American college women have experienced psychological abuse (i.e., name calling, yelling, screaming, blaming, monitoring time, suspiciousness toward friends,

interfering with relationships with friends and family, jealousy, and treating as a personal servant) and 20% have undergone dominance and isolation. Additionally, approximately 16% have lived through battering, while 15.5% have experienced emotional violence and 12.1% have been subjected to moderate to severe physical violence (Coker et al., 2008).

College students in other countries also appear to be at risk of experiencing relationship violence. Among college students in Awassa, Ethiopia, approximately 46% of students experienced physical or sexual gender-based violence (Arnold, Gelaye, Goshu, Berhane, & Williams, 2008). The Ethiopian students' experiences (i.e., being kicked, dragged, pushed, and shoved) have been attributed to the country's adherence to rigid gender norms and cultural views and values. Relationship violence among college students in Chile has also been attributed to cultural norms and the legitimacy of partner violence (Lehrer, Lehrer, & Zhao, 2010). Approximately 25% of Chilean college women have experienced relationship violence since the age of 14, while 15% have experienced relationship violence during one year of college. Clearly, college students of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds have been particularly vulnerable to abusive relationships.

Unwanted Sexual Contact

Violence in colleges and universities has also included committing crimes of sexual aggression. The NCVC defines sexual assault as taking many forms, including rape, forced sexual intercourse, or attempted rape, as well as any unwanted sexual contact or threats (NCVC, 2012a). According to the Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN, 2009c), 1 in 6 women and 1 in 33 men have been sexually assaulted in their lifetimes, with college women four times more likely to have been sexually assaulted

than any other age group. Rape has continued to be a growing concern, and in 2005, 92% of rape or sexual assault victims were women and girls, with 16-19 year olds having the highest rate of sexual victimization of any age group (Catalano, 2006).

According to the NCVC (2012b), for the 2007-2008 academic school-year, 17.2% of all public schools in the United States (U.S.) reported one or more violent crimes. These violent crimes included rape, sexual battery other than rape, armed or unarmed robbery, threat of aggravated physical assault or fight, or physical attack with a weapon. Compared to college men, college women have been more likely to experience unwanted sexual encounters. In particular, women in their first year of college have been found to be at particular risk for sexual assault, while college men in their final years have been found more likely to become perpetrators of sexual violence (Lee et al., 2003).

The prevalence and types of unwanted sexual contact experienced by college students have been the focus of a number of eye-opening research studies. Such studies have not only demonstrated the prevalence of interpersonal violence of college students, but also the prevalence of re-victimization. According to results from the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987), 27.5% of college women reported experiencing, and 7.7% of college men reported perpetrating, an act of rape, including attempts. These rates translated into one out of four college women having been sexually assaulted. Additionally, approximately 2.9% of college women have experienced rape by intentional intoxication, 1.9% have experienced incidents of physical force, and 1.7% have experienced forcible oral or anal penetration. Upwards of 22.8% of college women have experienced multiple unwanted sexual experiences, which have

resulted in an incidence rate of 35.3 per 1,000 students (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). For a university campus with 10,000 women, the number of rapes could potentially exceed 350 per year.

Women's experiences with unwanted sexual contact have also varied during their tenures as students. Approximately 34% of college women have reported experiencing unwanted sexual contact, 20% have reported experiencing unwanted attempted rape, and 10% have reported experiencing unwanted completed rape (Koss, 1988). Verbal sexual abuse has also been a common experience among college women. Verbal sexual abuse has been defined as unwanted sexual comments, such as hearing general sexist remarks, catcalls, whistles, or noises with sexual overtones, obscene telephone calls or messages, and having false sexual rumors spread (Fisher et al., 2010). Approximately 76% of women have experienced at least one type of noncontact verbal abuse during any given academic school year; these women have experienced an average of eight such incidents. Noncontact visual sexual abuse has also been experienced by about 11% of college women, each reporting an average of 2.2 incidents per year. Types of visual abuse experienced have included unwanted exposure to pornographic pictures or material, unwanted showing of sexual organs, and being observed without consent while undressing, nude, or in a sex act.

For both completed and attempted rapes, women knew their offenders approximately nine out of ten times. Classmates, friends, boyfriends, or ex-boyfriends have committed 93.4% of completed rapes and the same percentage of attempted rapes. Acquaintances have committed 9.7% of incidents of unwanted sexual contact, while

strangers have committed only 6.2% of completed rapes and 10.1% of attempted rapes. Approximately 12.8% of rapes and 35.0% of attempted rapes occurred during a date (Fisher et al., 2010).

Research has also highlighted the locations and circumstances surrounding unwanted sexual contact (Fisher et al., 2000; Koss, 1988; Walsh, Banyard, Moynihan, Ward, & Cohn, 2010). Among the college population, the majority of sexual victimizations, such as unwanted sexual contact, have commonly occurred in on-campus student housing (34%) and in off-campus apartments (20%). Sixty percent of completed on-campus rapes have occurred in victims' residences, while 31% of on-campus rapes have occurred in other living quarters on campus, and 10.3% took place in fraternity housing. Most of the incidents of unwanted sexual contact have occurred during (59%) or after (16%) parties, especially at fraternity houses in 29% of incidents (Koss, 1988; Walsh et al., 2010). Additionally, off-campus victimizations have taken place while students were engaged in activities associated with Student Life or Student Affairs (Fisher et al., 2000).

When it comes to reporting their experiences, college students have tended to be selective in whom they confide. Fifty-eight percent of students who had been raped only told others with whom they had personal relationships (e.g., friends, acquaintances, family), while only 5% reported the rape to police. Compared to their female counterparts, college men who experienced unwanted sexual contact have been significantly less likely to tell others of their experience; 79% of women disclosed to others versus 44% of men (Koss, 1988; Walsh et al., 2010). Women have often chosen

not to report rapes to police because of uncertainty as to whether their experiences would qualify as rape, for fear that the police would not be able to do anything, and for fear of not being believed (Koss, 1988; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006). When women chose to tell of their experiences, they typically told roommates and close friends, but rarely told counselors. When the severity of the unwanted incident was high, the percentages of women who chose not to tell anyone tended to increase. Koss acknowledged the strong possibility of underreporting among students (Fisher et al., 2000; Koss, 1988).

College students who have experienced unwanted sexual contact, particularly attempted or completed rape, have tended to be vulnerable to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms, such as flashbacks, recurrent memories or dreams, feeling on edge and tense, and being easily startled (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; RAINN, 2009a). Depressive symptoms, such as sadness, difficulty sleeping, changes in appetite, and thoughts of suicide, have also been common for students who have experienced unwanted sexual contact. Students have also developed self-harm tendencies and substance abuse problems as a way of coping with uncomfortable and painful emotions (CDC, 2012; Malloy, 2003; RAINN, 2009a). Feelings of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and self-blame have been common among college students, including college men, who have experienced unwanted sexual contact (Sable et. al., 2006).

Social opportunities on- and off-campus have often been locations where different unwanted sexual experiences occurred. Among the most popular social functions on college campuses were those sponsored by fraternities and sororities.

Greek life. The social and extracurricular opportunities presented on college campuses have provided a unique environment for the potential for sexual violence. Fraternities and sororities on college campuses have often played a significant role in the social and cultural environments that many students encounter as part of their college experience. The following research highlights the potential relationship between fraternity and sorority membership and unwanted sexual experiences.

Research findings on the relationship between fraternity membership and aggression have been mixed. Though some researchers have found no relationship between fraternity membership and any form of aggressive behavior (Gidycz, Warkentin, & Orchowski, 2007), other researchers have found an association between fraternity affiliation and sexual aggression (Lackie & de Man, 1997). An association between sexual aggression and sustained belief systems in fraternities, which legitimized gender stereotyping, male sexual aggression, and female victimization, has been reported (Gwartney-Gibbs & Stockard, 1989). It appears that college women, sorority women in particular, have been at an increased risk of sexual assault, due to their frequent contact with fraternity men; this risk among sorority women was likely to be as great, if not greater, than that for the general female college population (Copenhaver & Grauerholz, 1991). Research has also suggested that members of social fraternities engaged in more sexually coercive and aggressive acts than other college men (Boeringer, 1996).

Approximately 51% of sorority women have experienced at least one act of sexual aggression since age 14. The majority of these sorority women (83%) have experienced at least one act of sexual aggression while attending college (Copenhaver &

Grauerholz, 1991). Nearly 25% of sorority women have experienced attempted rape and 17% have experienced completed rape. Many of these attempted and completed rapes (41%) have occurred at fraternity houses; over half (57%) of the acts occurred either during a fraternity function or by a fraternity member (Copenhaver & Grauerholz, 1991). The presence of alcohol and other drugs at fraternity and sorority functions has been linked to incidents of unwanted sexual contact. Sorority women who were most active in sorority functions were more likely than less active members to report having experienced attempted or completed rapes during fraternity functions or by fraternity members. Sorority women have also been found to be more than three times as likely as men to report alcohol-related sexual assault (Copenhaver & Grauerholz, 1991; Howard, Griffin, & Boekeloo, 2008).

Traditional, gender-stereotyped beliefs often held by fraternity members have also been linked to acceptance of sexual violence. Compared to sorority and non-sorority/fraternity members, fraternity members hold more stereotypical gender role attitudes about interactions between women and men (Robinson, Gibson-Beverly, & Schwartz, 2004). Fraternity members have traditionally accepted stereotypical beliefs about women, supported men's violence toward women, endorsed casual sex by women, rejected women's political leadership, opposed women's rights, and believed in differential gender-based work roles (Gwartney-Gibbs & Stockard, 1989; Robinson et al., 2004).

Views on gender roles and uncertainty about what qualified as unwanted sexual contact have also been found to play a role in interpreting individuals' consent to engage

in sexual acts. In particular, it is not uncommon for male fraternity members not to ask for consent before engaging in intimate sexual behaviors with women (Foubert et al., 2006). While some fraternity men have reported that they are able to clearly identify signals received from women, either to proceed with intimate behavior or not to proceed, many have reported uncertainty about whether women could consent to intimate behaviors if they had been drinking.

In summary, college women have been at particularly high risk of experiencing unwanted sexual contact. Involvement in fraternity and sorority life increased the likelihood that college women would experience unwanted sexual contact during their college careers. Seen as a subset of relationship and sexual violence (Fisher et al., 2010), stalking has also impacted women college students. The following section presents research on the prevalence and effects of stalking behavior on the lives of college students.

Stalking

According to the Stalking Resource Center (2012), 6.6 million people nationwide are stalked every year, with 16-25% of women and 5-8% of men having experienced stalking at some point throughout their lifetime. Stalking has been defined as a pattern of conduct (e.g., at least two incidents) focused at a specific person who causes that person to feel fear (NCVC, 2012c, "What is Stalking?"). Stalking has also been defined as incidents in which individuals exhibited seemingly obsessive behavior, which made the recipients afraid or concerned for their safety. As stalking has largely involved obsessive behavior toward women by men on the basis of their gender, stalking has also been

identified as a form of sexual victimization (Fisher et al., 2010). Stalking has been highly associated with sexual coercion and sexual assaults; for instance, up to 60% of individuals who experienced physical or sexual violence have also experienced stalking (Coker et al., 2008).

Stalking behaviors are directed at a specific individual and typically have included following an individual; showering with unwanted attention or gifts; stealing or destroying personal property; threatening harm; and using technology, such as electronic bugging, hidden cameras, and photography for tracking whereabouts and acquaintances. Additionally, stalking behaviors have also involved asking for personal information, making telephone calls, waiting outside or inside places for the individual, driving by work or residences, watching from afar, following, sending letters, and e-mailing incessantly (Fisher et al., 2010; Groves, Salfati, & Elliot, 2004).

Prevalence rates of stalking incidents among college students have been particularly telling regarding the experiences of many college women. Approximately 42.5% of students have experienced stalking, with the majority of stalking victims (94%) between 18 and 39 years old (McNamara & Marsil, 2012). Multiple stalking victimizations have led to higher prevalence numbers. In a study by Fisher et al. (2010), for example, 4,446 female students reported 696 incidents of stalking, which translated into an incidence rate of 156.5 per every 1,000 female students. Five hundred and eighty-one students (13.1%) endorsed having experienced an incident of stalking since the start of the school year, which was a period of approximately 6.9 months. Approximately 15% of the women in the study experienced more than one stalking incident, indicated by the

greater number of stalking incidents compared to the number of stalking victims. Over half of female victims and more than one-third of male victims experienced stalking before the age of 25, and among female stalking victims, approximately 98% of stalkers have been men (Fisher et al., 2010). Overall, approximately 78% of stalking victims have been women, while 87% of stalkers have been men (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998).

The existence of a current or prior intimate relationship impacts stalking behaviors. Approximately 66% of female stalking victims and 41% of male victims identified their stalker as a former or current intimate partner (NCVC, 2012c). Stalkers who did not have prior sexual relationships with their victims tended to engage in infatuation style behaviors, such as writing letters and believing that they are in love with their victims (Groves et al., 2004). Conversely, stalkers with prior sexual relationships with their victims tended to engage in controlling behaviors, such as physically injuring or destroying victims' personal property.

The emotional and psychological effects of stalking have also been important factors to take into consideration when studying the prevalence of interpersonal violence on college campuses. Due to their experiences with stalking, students have reported feeling less trustful and more cynical of others (Fisher et al., 2010). Students who have experienced stalking have also endorsed feeling vulnerable, unsafe, anxious, depressed, overwhelmed, and afraid of what stalkers might do to them or others (NCVC, 2012c). The NCVC has also noted that students who have experienced incidents of stalking have also experienced feelings of stress, difficulty concentrating, sleep and appetite disturbances, disturbing thoughts, confusion, and isolation.

Some of the most common ways students cope with stalking have been to ignore or minimize the problem (Amar & Alexy, 2010). Students have also tended to distance and detach themselves from the stalking behaviors, asserted control by making attempts to end any relationship with a stalker, and attempted to control or restrict any interactions with the stalker. This evasive behavior has taken the form of actively avoiding the stalker, not answering phone calls, changing telephone numbers, and changing daily routes or routines (Björklund, Häkkänen-Nyholm, Sheridan, & Roberts, 2010). While reporting stalking to law enforcement officials is one way to cope with the unwanted experiences, students have been more likely to threaten stalkers with calling police than actually contacting police or filing a police report (Amar & Alexy, 2010; Björklund et al., 2010). Students have been more likely to ask friends and family members for help and protection than to contact law enforcement (Björklund et al., 2010).

Multicultural stalking. As stalking has become more prevalent, researchers have found that stalking behaviors are similar around the world. Comparisons between the U.S. and the United Kingdom, Italy, and Australia have found that, though definitions of stalking may differ, the experiences of stalking victimization do not (De Fazio, 2011; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012; Strand & McEwan, 2011). Globally, stalking victims who have prior relationships with their stalkers have been more likely to experience psychological, physical, and social challenges (e.g., increased distrust, sleep disturbances, having to give up friends or family) than victims who have not had prior relationships with their stalkers (Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012).

International researchers have also studied the relationships between stalking victims and perpetrators, and legal recourse. Among Swedish and Australian stalkers, approximately 16% of the Swedish and 20% of the Australians stalked individuals of the same gender (Strand & McEwan, 2011). Compared to other-gender stalkers, same-gender stalkers were less likely to have prior intimate relationships with their victims, and victims were more likely to report more intrusive stalking behaviors to law enforcement. Among the Finnish, stalkers who had prior relationships with their victims were more likely to violate restraining orders placed against them than stalkers with no prior relationships with their victims (Häkkinen, Hagelstam, & Santtila, 2003). Additionally, Finnish stalkers who violated restraining orders tend to engage in a greater number of stalking behaviors than those who adhere to restraining orders (Häkkinen et al.).

In Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Ireland, criminal prosecutions of stalking incidents have been rare, due to the wide and often vague definitions of stalking (Smartt, 2001). Dutch and Belgium stalking victims have struggled to view stalking behaviors as a crime due to months or years of police inaction (van der Aa & Groenen, 2011). Fears of retaliation and confrontation from a stalker after filing a police report have also prevented Dutch and Belgium victims from pursuing legal protection.

Multicultural research has highlighted the prevalence of stalking and its relationship to other forms of intimate partner violence. American Indian/Alaska Native women were more likely to be the victims of stalking than women of other racial or ethnic backgrounds, while African American women were least likely to experience stalking (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). The stalking experiences of Mexican American

college women have been associated with other forms of relationship violence. In Coker et al.'s (2008) study, 19.7% of their sample of Mexican American college women reported having experienced stalking during the preceding school year. Among the 43% of Mexican American college women who experienced partner violence, nearly half (45%) were stalked by a partner.

It is abundantly clear that women (and some men) experience interpersonal violence in their intimate relationships during their time as college students. Universities and colleges have put policies and programs in place to aid students in obtaining care, justice, and community resources.

National and Federal Initiatives for Addressing Sexual Violence

In an attempt to prevent and address sexual violence on campuses, the federal government has instructed colleges and universities to provide students with educational programming about sexual assault (Lee et al., 2003). Legislative focus on programming has been aimed at reducing discrimination and increasing the availability of resources for students. The following sections review Title IX's recommended guidelines for addressing sexual violence, as well as promising policies implemented by colleges and universities.

Title IX

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments to the Civil Rights Act, 20 U.S.C. §1681 *et seq.* guaranteed that all students, from kindergarten through graduate school, had equal educational opportunities free of sex-based discrimination (National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education [NCWGE], 2012; U.S. Department of Labor, 2013).

Title IX and regulations created under the legislation have provided recommendations, policies, and resources aimed at addressing acts of discrimination or unfairness that could adversely impact students' academic and personal endeavors (NCWGE, 2012).

According to Title IX mandates, “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance” (U.S. Department of Labor, 2013, “Prohibition against discrimination,” para. 1). Specifically, Title IX has protected students in “all academic, educational, extracurricular, athletic, and other programs of the school, whether those programs take place in a school’s facilities, on a school bus, at a class or training program sponsored by the school...or elsewhere” (U.S. Department of Education, 2011, p. 3).

In a review of Title IX programming by the NCWGE (2012), girls and women in STEM education (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) have a right to be treated equally when compared to boys and men, which included equal access to institutional resources, educational opportunities, and financial assistance. Female and male students are also protected against sex-based harassment, such as sexual violence, from their peers, teachers, staff, and campus visitors. One way of protecting students from harassment and discrimination has been to enforce increasingly strict limitations on gender-specific programs. Title IX has also required detailed policies prohibiting gender-based discrimination in schools. Appointed campus Title IX coordinators have been tasked to review grievance procedures and protect students against retaliation (NCWGE, 2012).

In a *Dear Colleague Letter* issued by the Office of Civil Rights (U.S. Department of Education, 2011), Assistant Secretary Rushlynn Ali reiterated and detailed schools' obligations under Title IX. According to Ali, obligations to respond to sexual harassment and sexual violence include, "taking immediate action to eliminate the harassment, prevent any recurrences, and address its consequences" (p. 4). Colleges and universities have been encouraged to eliminate harassment by publishing detailed statements that promise to prohibit gender-based discrimination and establishing prompt, unbiased grievance procedures for sexual harassment complaints (NCWGE, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Statements of grievance procedures are required to be provided in a language easily understandable to students, distributed electronically, and in campus publications for students, parents, faculty, and staff (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Title IX, and the derived recommendations for protecting students against sexual violence, provided specific initiatives for the implementation of policies and procedures on school campuses. Colleges and universities have worked to implement mandated programs into their curriculums. The following section highlights additional legislative requirements for addressing sexual violence and promising practices for campus adherence to requirements.

Addressing Sexual Assault on Campus

Additional laws have addressed issues of sexual assault reporting requirements for colleges and universities. According to the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice (2005), Congress passed legislation in the

early 1990s to guarantee the creation of prevention and intervention policies in colleges and universities that addressed sexual assaults on campus, and provided accurate and current information about campus crime to students, parents, and the community. Federal laws include the Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990 (i.e., the “Clery Act”) (20 U.S.C. § 1092) and the Campus Sexual Assault Victims’ Bill of Rights of 1992.

The Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990 required that colleges and universities provide annual reports on campus crimes, including information about specific sexual crimes (i.e., forcible and non-forcible sexual violence, including rape and acquaintance rape). The Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990 also required colleges and universities to adopt and provide students with policy statements about educational programs, trainings, law enforcement notification, mental health services, and disciplinary actions. An amendment to the 1990 Act, the Campus Sexual Assault Victims’ Bill of Rights of 1992, required that colleges and universities develop sexual assault prevention guidelines and make sure that sexual assault victims were provided with an emergency response plan, enforceable disciplinary procedures, and campus resources. In 1998, the law was again amended to expand reporting requirements of all crimes to law enforcement agencies (Clery Center, 2012; DOJ, 2005).

According to Hayes-Smith and Hayes-Smith (2009), in response to the Clery Act, 18 states have passed legislation requiring colleges and universities to develop security measures and crime reporting procedures specific to sexual assault. Although both state and federal legislation have required campus resources for students, enforcement of these

requirements has been an issue. When it comes to complying with federal laws, consistent application of resources has not been achieved (DOJ, 2005). Specifically, in a report to the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice (2005), researchers found that 4-year and historically Black institutions were surpassing other schools in complying with reporting requirements and spelling out specific policy goals. Additionally, while most institutions have followed reporting requirements, only about one-third of schools have reported campus crime rates in ways that comply with federal guidelines. The U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice (DOJ, 2005) also found that, while approximately 80% of schools have submitted annual security reports as required by the Clery Act to the U.S. Department of Education, only 37% of reported statistics have met Department of Education reporting standards.

In their study of 2,500 colleges and universities, researchers for the National Institute of Justice (DOJ, 2005) identified eight colleges and universities with promising practices for addressing campus sexual assaults. One of the practices that researchers found most promising involved coordinating campus-wide sexual assault educational programs that included “comprehensive education about rape myths, common circumstances under which the crime occurs, rapist characteristics, prevention strategies, rape trauma responses and the healing process, campus policies, and support services” (p. 12).

Researchers also found campus sexual assault policies, with clear definitions of all forms of sexual violence and campus sanctions for policy violations, to be promising.

Effective sexual assault policies also included information on the prevalence of acquaintance rape, described high risk circumstances, advised students on emergency and reporting procedures, identified specific points of contact, and designated when and where to file complaints (DOJ, 2005). Another promising practice described in the DOJ report was the development of sexual assault policies that encouraged victims to report incidents to campus authorities and local law enforcement. These policies detailed information about available reporting, investigative, and adjudication options and provided campus statements prohibiting retaliation against individuals who filed reports. With regard to best investigative policies, the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice (DOJ, 2005) researchers identified protocols, which (1) ensured confidentiality for victims and perpetrators during investigations, (2) collected and used information in a way that prevented victims from having to retell their experiences multiple times, and (3) provided victims with access to certified Sexual Assault Nurse Examiners.

As presented in the research, legislation, such as the Clery Act and Title IX, called for responses from colleges and universities to implement prevention and response strategies for incidents of unwanted sexual contact on campus. In response to these initiatives, colleges and universities were presented with guidelines and suggestions for the implementation of practices. The following sections present examples of prevention and response programs that have been identified as best practices for addressing violence in colleges and universities.

Best Practices for Violence Prevention in Colleges and Universities

Schools at all education levels have had to respond to campus violence for a number of years. Prompted by national attention to highly publicized events, such as school shootings, policymakers in federal agencies have recently demonstrated an official interest (Drysdale, Modzeleski, & Simons, 2010; Pagliocca & Nickerson, 2001).

In their review of task force reports and study groups across the country, O’Neill, Fox, Depue, and Englander (2008) highlighted the most common practices in campus safety and violence prevention. Among the recommended practices were: (1) creating a campus emergency response plan to address small- and large-scale crises; (2) implementing emergency mass notification systems to relay information through various delivery methods (e.g., alarms, e-mails, text messages, digital displays); (3) establishing a threat assessment team to respond to suspicious behaviors and threats, and (4) training personnel on the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPPA), and other privacy and information sharing policies. O’Neill et al. also recommended: (5) drafting a Memorandum Of Understanding with local and community agencies to enhance campus resources; (6) facilitating trainings and drills to practice emergency procedures; (7) training the campus community on their responsibility in identifying and using mass notification systems; (8) educating the campus community on mental health safety assessment and concerns; (9) conducting regular campus risk and safety assessments; (10) having communication systems that are compatible with systems used by area first responders; and (11) ensuring that all first responder agencies are trained in the responsibilities outlined by National

Incident Management System and the Incident Command System (O'Neill et al., 2008; Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team, 2007).

Extreme acts of violence, such as mass shootings, have tended to be the focus of media, legislative, and research attention (O'Neill et al., 2008); however, more common forms of violence impact students of all ages. Specifically, members of college and university communities are more likely to become victims of sexual assault, rape, and other forms of interpersonal violence than of mass shootings (Drysdale et al., 2010). Notably, the majority of victims of interpersonal violence have tended to be women, while the majority of perpetrators have tended to be men (American Psychological Association [APA], 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a). Such acts of violence have prompted the creation and incorporation of guidelines for best practices and prevention of interpersonal violence among students. For this reason, the current investigation focused on interpersonal violence.

Interpersonal Violence Response and Prevention

Prevention and response initiatives on incidents of interpersonal violence among students have recently shifted focus from guidelines to implementation. Educational programs, focusing on teaching college students about the importance of consent in healthy relationships, have been one way to implement prevention programming on college campuses (Foubert et al., 2006). College students have gained more from brief educational programs, 10 to 15 minutes, when they discussed campus policy on sexual misconduct and consent, and when they participated in activities dealing with real world implications, as opposed to listening to policies being read aloud (Foubert et al., 2006).

In an effort to aid university administrators, Lee, Caruso, Goins, and Southerland (2003) provided information aimed at assisting campus officials in designing and conducting a week dedicated to sexual assault prevention and awareness. The authors identified key components for creating successful campus programs, such as planning, funding, design, advertisement, attendance, and evaluations. By providing educational programs, colleges and universities could increase students' awareness of sexual violence, minimize the number of sexual assaults that occur on or off campus, encourage victims to report incidents, and embolden victims to seek campus and community resources (Lee et al., 2003; Peterson & Skiba, 2001).

One way administrators have provided awareness on some college campuses has been to have literature and resources available for student use. In a website content analysis of the availability of women's resource centers on college campuses within the U.S., with a particular focus on sexual assault-related resources, Hayes-Smith and Hayes-Smith (2009) found that 33% of institutions had some form of women's resource facility. Among the institutions with resource facilities, the most common service (80%) was a resource library. Additionally, the authors classified 35% of campuses as having poor resources due to having either no sexual assault literature, very little literature, or literature that was potentially harmful by contributing to rape myths.

Unfortunately, institutions of higher education have unintentionally condoned victim blaming through the use of circulated materials focused primarily on individual victims' responsibilities to avoid sexual assault, without including prevention education that focuses on perpetrators' responsibilities (Carr, 2007). With the increased call for

accountability in adherence to federal standards for campus crime prevention, response, and reporting, research has been conducted to address best practices and effective ways for institutions of higher education to prevent and respond to acts of interpersonal violence on campus. Whether institutions have been abiding by these suggestions has varied from state to state and region to region (DOJ, 2005).

Legislative Resources Addressing Campus Interpersonal Violence

While the current study focuses on responses to and prevention of interpersonal violence among college students, the bulk of existing research on violence prevention has addressed deterrence efforts among elementary, middle, and high school students. This section briefly highlights Texas legislation aimed at protecting students in primary and secondary schools, as well as federal legislation that protects college-aged students.

Texas legislation for primary and secondary schools. Though research has provided comprehensive suggestions for school safety, laws have also been passed to ensure the safety and well-being of students. Beginning in May 2007, Texas legislation, House Bill 121, required school districts in Texas to adopt a dating violence policy. The Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team (TDVPT) (2007) developed programs based on the *Guide to Addressing Dating Violence in Texas Schools*, referred to as the Guide. These programs fulfill legislative requirements, including “(1) a definition of dating violence, (2) safety planning, (3) enforcement of protective orders, (4) school-based alternatives to protective orders, (5) [dating violence] training for teachers and [school] administrators, (6) counseling for affected students, and (7) awareness education for students and parents/guardians” (Introduction section, para. 1).

The Guide (TDVPT, 2007) recommended specific definitions for teen dating violence and sexual violence for inclusion in dating violence programs implemented in Texas school districts. The Guide defined teen dating violence as:

The intentional use of physical, sexual, verbal, or emotional abuse by a person to harm, threaten, intimidate, or control another person in a dating relationship...a pattern of coercive behavior that one partner exerts over the other for the purpose of establishing and maintaining power and control. (p. 1)

Per the Guide:

Sexual violence [was] defined as sexual assault, sexual abuse, or sexual stalking of a minor child or teenager, including sexual violence committed by perpetrators who are strangers to the victim and by perpetrators who are known or related by blood or marriage to the victim. Behaviors...include but are not limited to incest, molestation, child abuse, stranger rape, and non-stranger rape. (p. 2)

Training for school staff, students, and parents/guardians was also highlighted in the Guide (TDVPT, 2007). Suggestions for awareness trainings included providing dating and sexual violence definitions and warning signs, identifying and discussing confidentiality and safety assessments, describing interpersonal violence laws, and specifying campus interventions. Additionally, counseling services by school counselors and local domestic violence or rape crisis center advocates were recommended for those students affected by dating or sexual violence. Specifically, campuses have been encouraged to refer victims to school-based support groups and their abusers to counseling or intervention programs.

Resources for college and university students under Title IX. In her *Dear Colleague Letter*, Ali (U.S. Department of Education, 2011) discussed ways to implement Title IX initiatives on school campuses to address and reduce incidents of sexual violence. Per Ali's suggestion, school districts, colleges, and universities could provide prevention and intervention resources in response to sexual harassment or violence on campuses in a number of educational and administrative ways.

Instruction on the definitions of sexual harassment and sexual violence; information on campus victim services, campus policies, and disciplinary procedures; as well as encouragement to report incidents of sexual violence would be important to Student Life or Student Affairs programming provided during campus orientations, residence hall advisor trainings, athletics trainings, and school assemblies (Garcia, Lechner, Frerich, Lust, & Eisenberg, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Additional educational resources for students have also been recommended, such as published media (e.g., print materials available on campus and online) and campus staff members (e.g., residence hall assistants, medical and counseling services providers, crisis line personnel) (Garcia et al., 2012).

A number of campus resources have been identified as instrumental in fostering safety and security among college students. Security officers, campus escorts, transportation, and call boxes have helped students to feel safe as they move between residence halls, classes, and campus activities (Fleck-Henderson, 2012; Garcia et al., 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Campus policies that guarantee student victims and their abusers will not be attending the same classes or living in the same

residence halls have also been thought to improve student victims' sense of safety (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Title IX recommendations include training for Title IX policy and procedure coordinators, campus police, and other campus staff to provide information on sexual violence and sexual harassment. The processing, investigating, and resolving of complaints are intended to hold college and university administrators aware of and accountable for Title IX requirements (NCWGE, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Employee training also allows campus staff to better inform students of their reporting and assistance options (Fleck-Henderson, 2012).

Violence prevention committees to be led by students and administrators are recommended to address student needs. As suggested by Ali (U.S. Department of Education, 2011), effective committees would: (1) identify strategies to ensure awareness of campus bans against sexual harassment and sexual violence; (2) provide information on how and to whom reports are to be made; (3) address the connection between substance abuse and sexual violence; and (4) create the expectation of prompt and impartial responses from campus officials to reports of sexual harassment and sexual violence from students. It has also been suggested that campus leaders issue policy statements that openly communicate administrators' commitment to responding to all incidents and reports of sexual violence (NCWGE, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Outcome assessments designed to measure the effectiveness of campus efforts to promote violence-free environments provide useful information on the impact of Student

Life or Student Affairs programming activities. As proposed by Ali (U.S. Department of Education, 2011), conducting campus “climate check[s],” (p. 18), would gauge the openness of university communities to addressing sexual violence and supporting respectful, non-violent relationships. Students’ willingness and ability to seek support services also reflects information about successful program outcomes (Fleck-Henderson, 2012; Garcia et al., 2012). As these programs, resources, and outcome measures have been put in place, the matter of reaching students has continued to be a struggle. The following section provides information on the extent to which students have utilized available resources.

Usage and Knowledge of Campus Programs

Though colleges and universities have strived to implement campus resources to curb incidents of interpersonal violence, research has shown that students have not always taken advantage of such resources. There has been a trend toward low reporting rates for incidents of relationship and dating violence (Wasserman, 2003). Students have often chosen not to report incidents of relationship violence due to feelings of guilt, self-blame, or a tolerance of interpersonal violence. Students have also expressed a lack of confidence in campus administrators’ ability and willingness to help and have believed that they could better handle their experiences alone (Wasserman, 2003).

College and university students have also felt uncertain about whether or not their experiences qualify as abusive or criminal. This uncertainty has prevented some students from seeking academic, health, or mental health services. In a study by Walsh, Banyard, Moynihan, Ward, and Cohn (2010), of the 1,230 college students who identified as

victims of unwanted sexual contact, 97% had not used sexual assault center services. Additionally, 94% of victims of unwanted sexual intercourse reported that they had not used campus academic, health, or mental health services. Though 64% of students reported that they believed unwanted sexual experiences were a problem on campus, 42% (34% women and 56% men) reported that they would not use services provided by a campus sexual assault center. Students cited a number of reasons for not using the sexual assault center, among the most common were perceiving that the unwanted sexual contact was not serious enough (70%) and feeling that the experience was a private matter (40%). For those participants who experienced unwanted sexual intercourse, 48% reported that it was not a serious incident and 73% perceived the experience to be a private matter.

Walsh et al. (2000) also reported that only 3% of victims reported using any campus services, including the sexual assault center, health services, ministry, police, or a resident advisor or dormitory hall director. Concern about negative consequences for the perpetrator, fear of not being believed, fear of being blamed for the incident, and feelings of shame and embarrassment prevented students from using campus programs and resources.

Use of campus resources, particularly mental health counselors, has also been limited among African American college women. Compared to White college women, African American women have been less likely to use mental health resources to cope with interpersonal violence (El-Khoury et al., 2004). Views on relationship violence are one of the possible reasons African American college women have not sought out

counseling resources. Research has found that African American college women have been more likely to characterize physical and verbal, but not sexual, abuse as descriptors of abusive relationships (Berkel, Furlong, Hickman, & Blue, 2005). These characterizations might create vulnerabilities among African American college women, as they might not recognize incidents of sexual violence as abusive. A tendency to attribute characteristics of abuse victims to causes of abuse (i.e., low self-esteem, ignorance, poor decision-making) and a willingness to tolerate some verbal abuse were also found among African American college women. Though less likely to seek campus resources, African American college women, compared to White college women, identified faith, prayer, and the support of their church community as more helpful resources for women experiencing relationship violence (Berkel et al., 2005; El-Khoury et al., 2004).

The Dating Violence Resource Center of the National Center for Victims of Crime stressed the importance of showing students that their colleges and universities take dating violence seriously (National Center for Victims of Crime, 2012b; Palmer, 1996). While reporting incidents of violence might illustrate the prevalence of interpersonal violence on college campuses and might prompt school administrators to take action, campuses have at times minimized the seriousness of incidents and have discouraged students from reporting their experiences (Palmer, 1996).

Summary of Literature Review

Research on the prevalence of interpersonal violence, including dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking among students has brought to light the pervasive nature of

this problem in college communities. Though some men attending colleges and universities have experienced interpersonal violence, women students have been at a particularly high risk for interpersonal violence, particularly sexual violence, throughout their time in college. The increasing focus on student victimization prompted legislative action to address the need for policies, procedures, and programming in colleges and universities to provide prevention, resources, and intervention services for victimized students. Though models for best practices are available and campus programs have been developed based on Title IX guidelines, many students have neither been aware of nor taken advantage of these resources or programs.

Purpose of the Current Study

Given the high rates of relationship violence on college and university campuses, the dearth of research on related programming and available resources is surprising. Few studies have addressed the availability and implementation of specific student services, programming, and resources based on models of best practices. In the current exploratory study, the researcher examined campus resources available to college students in Texas who have experienced interpersonal violence in the forms of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking. The extent to which relevant administrative policies, training programs, educational programs, and student support services are available to college students in campus communities was also examined.

Hypotheses

Previous research has suggested that campus resources and educational programs addressing relationship violence have been limited in both variety and availability, with

the majority of available programs being victimization intervention and response resources (Carr, 2007; Hayes-Smith & Hayes-Smith, 2009). Additionally, community colleges have been found to have fewer available resources than 4-year colleges and rural colleges (Garcia et al., 2012). It has been shown that, by adhering to Title IX policy recommendations, colleges and universities would have more resources available to their campus communities (Clery Center, 2012). Based on these previous findings, it was hypothesized that:

1. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than will community colleges and technical schools;
2. Four-year colleges and universities in metropolitan and urban areas will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than schools in rural areas;
3. Private 4-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than state-funded 4-year colleges and universities;
4. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more intervention and response resources available for students who have experienced interpersonal violence than violence prevention programs and initiatives;
5. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more program curriculum on preventing victimization than preventing perpetration of relationship violence and sexual assault;

6. Four-year colleges and universities with policies that adhere to Title IX recommendations will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available for students than 4-year colleges and universities without policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Participants

Participants in this study were Student Life or Student Affairs Coordinators or Deans, or their equivalents, from colleges and universities in Texas. Colleges and universities chosen for this study were those listed by the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (THECB). According to the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board website (2011), there were a total of 186 possible public and independent university and college campuses in Texas. Public institutions included 50 community colleges with multiple campuses, 38 universities, 10 health-related institutions, 4 technical college systems, and 3 state colleges. Independent institutions included 38 universities, 2 chiropractic institutions, 1 junior college, and 1 health-related institution. Participants provided demographic information, the number and type of prevention and intervention programs, and policy descriptions about their respective colleges and universities.

Instruments

Materials for the present study included an information letter, a packet consisting of an informed consent form, an institutional profile questionnaire, and a campus interpersonal violence response questionnaire.

Information Letter

A brief informational letter (see Appendix A) was sent to potential participants

approximately one week prior to receiving the research packet. The information letter informed potential participants of the forthcoming questionnaire packet, contained a brief description of the study, and included details for an opportunity to win a \$50 gift card. Potential participants were told that the purpose of the research study was to learn about the institution's interpersonal violence protocols and resources, and were assured of the voluntary nature of the research study. The information letter included contact information for the principal investigator and research advisor.

Informed Consent Form

An informed consent form (see Appendix B) was included in the materials, detailing the purpose of the study and its voluntary nature. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to gain knowledge of the types of institutional responses and procedures implemented following an incident of interpersonal violence among students on or off campus. Participants were asked to sign the form to indicate that they had read the form and were aware of their participant rights. The informed consent form also detailed steps that were taken to ensure participants' confidentiality throughout the study. Research materials were uniquely coded and separated from any identifying information.

Institutional Profile Questionnaire

A brief profile questionnaire (see Appendix C), which has been developed by the author, was used to ask participants to describe institutional demographics. Specifically, the questionnaire asked Student Life or Student Affairs personnel the total university enrollment, the approximate ethnic distribution of the student population (i.e., African

American/Black, Asian American, Caucasian/White, Hispanic American/Latino(a), Native American, Multi-Ethnic/Bi-Racial, Don't Know), the type of institution (e.g., public, independent, health-related, technical, community), and the location of the institution (e.g., urban, suburban, rural).

Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire

An Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire (see Appendix D), developed by the author, was used to ask participants about the types of policies, resources, interventions, and protocols used by campus personnel to address incidents of interpersonal violence on campus. Questions were designed to determine the extent to which resources were used and by whom. The Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire used for this study were adapted from the Model Policy for the Prevention and Response to Sexual Assault template (McMahon, 2008), promising practices provided by the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ, 2005), and school district guidelines provided by the Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team under the Teen Dating Violence Policy, TX Education Code 37.0831 (2007). These models are outlined in the following sections.

Model Policy for the Prevention and Response to Sexual Assault. Developed in 2008 by McMahon, the template for the Model Policy for the Prevention and Response to Sexual Assault was designed to aid institutions of higher education to benchmark campus policy compliance with federal laws directed at sexual assault. According to McMahon, sexual assault prevention and response policies should include, in part: (1) a definition of sexual assault and other relevant terms, including an explanation of consent

and descriptive scenarios of sexual assault with non-stranger offenders; (2) a sexual assault policy with a clear statement of commitment to deter sexual assault, methods for policy distribution to the campus community, and ease of policy accessibility; (3) provisions for training for resident assistants and resident coordinators, students, faculty, and staff; (4) methods to support student reporting that include information about what students should do if sexually assaulted, the institution's response to a report, a plan to protect victim confidentiality, and availability of anonymous victim reporting; (5) prevention efforts and victim resources that included published resources supporting sexual assault prevention programs, campus safety, on-campus forensic services, and victims' physical and mental health; and (6) guidelines to investigate and punish perpetrators that included methods of addressing dual jurisdiction, methods for investigating sexual assault, and procedures for discipline and punishment of perpetrators. As part of the researcher-developed Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire, participants were asked to indicate whether their institutions' policies included the aforementioned items.

U.S. Department of Justice Promising Practices. Researchers for the National Institute of Justice, through the U.S. Department of Justice (2005), identified promising practices for addressing sexual assault on campus. Promising practices included: (1) a campus sexual assault education program that included comprehensive education about rape myths, common circumstances under which the crime occurred, rapist characteristics, prevention strategies, rape trauma responses and the healing process, and campus policies and support services; (2) a campus sexual assault policy that clearly

defined all forms of sexual misconduct and the school's sanctions for policy violations, discussed the prevalence of acquaintance sexual assault, described circumstances in which sexual assault most commonly occurred, advised on what to do if students knew someone who was sexually assaulted, and identified a specific person or office to contact when a sexual assault occurred, as well as when and where to file a complaint; (3) sexual assault procedures that encouraged victims to report the incident to campus authorities and to the local criminal justice system, provided information on available reporting options, detailed an official statement prohibiting retaliation against individuals who reported rape or sexual assault, specified the school's disciplinary actions for retaliation attempts, and presented an official statement noting the separate actions available to the victim; (4) protocols for ensuring confidentiality for victims and offenders during the investigation, sharing collection and use of information to eliminate the need for victims to retell their experience multiple times, and providing victims access to a trained, certified Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner; (5) a range of adjudication options, from informal administrative actions, which did not require a formal complaint, to a formal adjudication board hearing; and (6) partnerships between the school and the community to provide student victims access to medical, psychological, advocacy, legal, and safety services. Participants in this study were asked to indicate if their institutional policies included the aforementioned items.

A Guide to Addressing Dating Violence in Texas Schools. Developed by the Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team, the Guide to Addressing Dating Violence in Texas Schools (2007) provided definitions for teen dating violence, sexual harassment,

sexual violence, bullying, alleged perpetrator, and victim. The guide further outlined safety planning, enforcement of protective orders, school-based alternatives to protective orders, training for teachers and administrators, counseling for affected students, awareness education for students and parents/guardians, community coordination, documentation of incidents, and protocols for campus intervention for staff, administrators, and counselors. Participants were asked to indicate if their institutional policies included the aforementioned items.

Incentive Information

An Incentive Information form (see Appendix E) was included in the research materials detailing requirements for a chance to win one of two \$50 gift cards. Participants were asked whether they would like the opportunity to be placed in a random drawing. If interested, participants were asked to provide a mailing address to which gift cards could be sent should the participant's name be selected. Following completion of the data collection process, recipients of the two gift cards were randomly selected by the researcher from those participants who completed all of the research materials, expressed their interest in the drawing, and provided a mailing address. Completed Incentive Information forms were placed in a box and two forms were selected at random.

Participation Reminders

Participant reminder postcards (see Appendix F) were sent at two weeks and four weeks after mailing the questionnaire packets. The postcards mentioned the previously sent study packet and encouraged potential participants to complete and return the questionnaires if they had not already done so.

Procedure

An information letter was sent via the postal service to Student Life and Student Affairs Coordinators or Deans, or their equivalents, at colleges and universities in Texas. The letter informed potential participants of the forthcoming questionnaire packet and provide a brief description of the study. One week following the information letter, a questionnaire packet, which included the informed consent form, the profile questionnaire, the Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire, and the Incentive Information form, was mailed. Each potential participant's research materials was provided a unique code.

Participants were asked to review and sign an informed consent form, detailing the confidentiality of the study, the strictly voluntary nature of participation, and the assurance that they could have withdrawn from the study at any time without penalty. Participants were asked to respond to questionnaires presented in the following order: the Institutional Profile Questionnaire and the Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire. Participants who completed the informed consent form and all other packet materials were eligible to be entered in the random drawing to win one of two \$50 gift cards. A self-addressed, stamped, return envelope was included with the materials for participant convenience.

Once questionnaire packets were returned, materials were de-identified using the unique packet codes. The Incentive Information form for entry in the random drawing for a prize were not coded in any way. Contact information for those participants interested in the \$50 gift cards was separated from their questionnaire packets to ensure anonymity.

Once questionnaire data were gathered, SPSS software was utilized to conduct statistical analyses.

Hypotheses

For the purposes of this study, it was hypothesized that:

1. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than will community colleges and technical schools;
2. Four-year colleges and universities in metropolitan and urban areas will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than schools in rural areas;
3. Private 4-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than state-funded 4-year colleges and universities;
4. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more intervention and response resources available for students who have experienced interpersonal violence than violence prevention programs and initiatives;
5. Four-year colleges and universities will have statistically significantly more program curriculum on preventing victimization than preventing perpetration of relationship violence and sexual assault;
6. Four-year colleges and universities with policies that adhere to Title IX recommendations will have statistically significantly more violence intervention and

prevention programming available for students than 4-year colleges and universities without policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations.

Statistical Analysis

Quantitative methodology was used to examine questionnaire responses in order to compare relationship violence and sexual assault programs and resources in Texas with national suggestions. A minimum of 30 institutions were needed to run the analyses.

Hypothesis 1

Logistic regression was used to predict the type of institution (4-year colleges and universities, community colleges and technical schools) by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available.

Hypothesis 2

Logistic regression was used to predict institution location (metropolitan and urban, rural areas) by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available.

Hypothesis 3

Logistic regression was used to predict type of institution (private, state-funded) by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available.

Hypothesis 4

Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare the total number of violence intervention and response resources with the total number of violence prevention programs and initiatives.

Hypothesis 5

Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare the total number of program curricula on preventing victimization with the total number of program curricula on preventing perpetration.

Hypothesis 6

Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare adherence to Title IX recommendations with the total number of violence intervention and prevention programming available for rape and sexual assault.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Research Participants

For the present study, representatives from 186 college and university campuses in Texas (Student Life, Student Affairs Coordinators, Deans, or their equivalents) were sent an Information Letter during the Spring 2014 semester. One Information Letter was returned to the researcher, as the institution was no longer open. Sixty-four representatives indicated that they wanted their institution to participate in the study and were subsequently sent research packets. Thirty-six completed research packets were returned by July of 2014. The return rate was 19% of the original solicitation and 56% of those colleges and universities that expressed an interest in participation. Fourteen of the 36 institutions were located in urban settings, 11 were located in rural settings, and 11 were located in suburban settings. It was noted that one of the institutions, a community college, was self-described as being in all three types of settings. Based on the community college's geographic location, the college was classified as suburban for the purposes of this study.

Out of the 36 institutions, 18 (50%) were identified as community colleges, 9 (25%) were state or public 4-year colleges and universities, 7 (19%) were private 4-year universities, and 2 (6%) were medical schools; there were no technical schools in the sample. With regard to the ethnic composition of the institutions, 16 participants reported that their institution was composed predominately of Caucasian/White students,

9 reported that their institution was ethnically diverse to an equal degree, and 6 reported that their institution was composed predominately of Hispanic American/Latino(a) students. Three participants reported that their institution was composed predominately of Caucasian/White and Hispanic American/Latino(a) students, one reported that their institution was composed predominately of Caucasian/White students and was ethnically diverse to an equal degree, and one reported that their institution was composed predominately of African American/Black, Caucasian/White, and Hispanic American/Latino(a) students. No institutions were reported as having a predominately African American/Black, Asian American, Native American, or Multi-Ethnic/Bi-Racial student population (see Table 1).

Research Findings

The current study's first three hypotheses were examined using logistic regressions. Scatter plots and correlational analyses were used to examine Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6. Given the sample size of 36 participating institutions, the current study yielded 60% power for detecting large effects.

The first hypothesis predicted that 4-year colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available than community colleges and technical schools. Logistic regression was used to predict the type of college by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available. Results indicated that four variables combined to discriminate between 4-year colleges and universities and the community colleges. Specifically, results suggested that having a policy for rape and sexual assault, which included a

detailed response to reports of sexual violence, having educational programs, such as PowerPoint presentations and experiential activities (i.e., plays, skits, role plays) for rape and sexual assault, and not providing educational information on verbal abuse as a form of relationship violence, distinguished between 4-year colleges or universities and community colleges (see Table 2). None of the variables achieved significance on its own, but the combined effect of the variables provided significant separation and accurate placement of the two groups. The analysis yielded a strong ability to predict correctly that 4-year colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming than community colleges and technical schools, and thus the hypothesis was supported (see Table 3).

The second hypothesis predicted that 4-year colleges and universities in metropolitan and urban areas would have statistically significantly more available violence intervention and prevention programming than colleges in rural areas. Logistic regression was used to predict college and university location by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available. Results indicated that two variables combined to discriminate between 4-year urban colleges and universities and 4-year rural colleges and universities. Providing educational information through focus groups and not including ways of making sexual assault policies available to students, faculty, and staff, distinguished between urban colleges or universities and rural colleges (see Table 4). None of the variables achieved significance on its own, but the combined effect of the variables provided significant separation and accurate placement of the two groups. The analysis yielded a strong ability to predict correctly that urban colleges and universities

had statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming than colleges in rural areas, thus the hypothesis was supported (see Table 5).

The third hypothesis predicted that private 4-year colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming than state-funded, public, 4-year colleges and universities. Logistic regression was used to predict the type of college by the amount of violence intervention and prevention programming available. Results indicated that three variables combined to discriminate between 4-year private colleges and universities and 4-year public colleges and universities. Results suggested that using workshops to provide education about rape and sexual assault, providing information about informal reporting options of rape and sexual assault, and not including information about community partnerships in policies distinguished between private 4-year colleges or universities and public 4-year colleges or universities (see Table 6). None of the variables achieved significance on its own, but the combined effect of the variables provided significant separation and accurate placement of the two groups. The analysis yielded a strong ability to predict correctly that private colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming than public colleges and universities, thus the hypothesis was accepted (see Table 7).

Table 1

Demographic Profiles of Participating Colleges and Universities

College	Location			Type of College/University				Ethnic Composition			
	Urban	Suburban	Rural	Public	Private	Community	Medical	African American/Black	White	Hispanic/Latino	Equally Diverse
1		x			x				x		
2			x		x				x		x
3			x		x				x		
4	x				x				x		
5	x				x				x		
6			x		x						x
7	x				x				x		
8		x				x			x	x	
9			x	x					x		
10			x	x						x	
11		x		x							x
12		x		x						x	
13		x		x					x		
14	x			x							x
15		x		x							x
16	x			x						x	
17	x			x							x
18	x	x	x			x			x	x	
19		x				x			x		
20	x					x		x	x	x	
21			x			x			x		
22			x			x				x	
23			x			x			x		
24		x				x					x
25	x					x			x		
26	x					x			x		
27		x				x					x
28			x			x				x	
29		x				x			x	x	
30	x					x			x		
31	x					x			x		
32	x					x					x
33			x			x					x
34			x			x			x		
35	x						x		x		
36	x						x			x	

Table 2

Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying 4-Year Colleges and Universities

Model Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_β</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>
Response to Reporting Sexual Assault	20.339	7908.555	.001	.998	6.806E8
Verbal Abuse as Relationship Violence	-39.721	11229.755	.001	.997	.001
PowerPoint Presentations about Sexual Assault	20.364	7357.625	.001	.998	6.980E8
Experiential Activities about Sexual Assault	39.750	12978.831	.001	.998	1.833E17
Constant	-.288	.764	.142	.706	.750

Note. Model significance: $\chi^2(4, 36) = 36.53$, * $p \leq .001$. Wald is $\chi^2 = (B/SE_{\beta})^2$ where SE_{β} is the standard error of the population of B values assuming zero is the true value. $EXP(B) = e^B$ for each predictor, where “e” is the base of the natural logs, and e^B defines the proportionate increase in the odds of group membership for a unit increase in the predictor variable. Large values of SE may indicate collinear predictors; large values of EXP(B) may indicate quasi-complete separation (overfitting) for some predictors.

Table 3

Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying 4-Year Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming

Observed	Predicted		
	Colleges and Universities		
	Community	4-Year	Percentage Correct
Community	17	1	94.4
4-Year	3	15	83.3
Overall Percentage			89.9

Note. $R^2 = .64$

Table 4

Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying Urban Colleges and Universities

Model Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_β</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>
Identified Ways of Making Sexual Assault Policy Available	-22.456	14210.361	.001	.999	.001
Focus Groups	42.406	42631.083	.001	.999	2.610E18
Constant	1.253	.802	2.441	.118	3.500

Note. Model significance: $\chi^2(2, 18) = 15.20$, * $p \leq .001$. Wald is $\chi^2 = (B/SE_{\beta})^2$ where SE_{β} is the standard error of the population of B values assuming zero is the true value. $EXP(B) = e^B$ for each predictor, where “e” is the base of the natural logs, and e^B defines the proportionate increase in the odds of group membership for a unit increase in the predictor variable. Large values of SE may indicate collinear predictors; large values of EXP(B) may indicate quasi-complete separation (overfitting) for some predictors.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that 4-year colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and response resources available for students who had experienced interpersonal violence than violence prevention programs and initiatives. Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare the total number of violence intervention and response resources with the total number of violence prevention programs and initiatives. Analysis yielded a strongly positive correlation ($r = .88$, $p < .001$); thus, the hypothesis was rejected. The data suggested that 4-year colleges and universities placed similar emphasis on violence intervention resources and violence prevention resources. Colleges and universities with more violence intervention and response resources tended to have more violence prevention programs (see Figure 1). The numbers on the axes represent the number of questions on the Institutional Interpersonal

Violence Response Questionnaire regarding violence prevention programs and initiatives and violence intervention and response resources.

Table 5

Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying Urban Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming

Observed	Predicted		Percentage Correct
	Location		
	Rural	Urban	
Rural	8	2	80.0
Urban	0	8	100.0
Overall Percentage			88.9

Note. $R^2 = .57$

The fifth hypothesis predicted that 4-year colleges and universities would have statistically significantly more program curriculum on preventing victimization than program curriculum preventing perpetration of relationship violence and sexual assault. Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare the total number of victimization prevention curricula with the total number of perpetration prevention curricula. Analysis yielded a strongly positive correlation ($r = .80, p < .001$); thus, the hypothesis was rejected. The data suggested that 4-year colleges and universities placed similar emphasis on victimization prevention as they did on perpetration prevention. Colleges and universities with more victimization prevention curricula tended to provide more violence perpetration prevention curricula (see Figure 2). The numbers on the axes

represent the number of questions on the Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire regarding perpetration prevention curricula and victimization prevention.

Table 6

Logistic Regression Model Predictors, Intervention and Prevention Programming, for Identifying Private Colleges and Universities

Model Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_β</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(B)</i>
Community Partnerships	-41.596	25658.257	.001	.999	.001
Workshops about Sexual Assault	21.087	10947.809	.001	.998	1.438E9
Informal Reporting for Sexual Assault	39.401	17311.884	.001	.998	1.293E17
Constant	-40.094	17311.884	.001	.998	.001

Note. Model significance: $\chi^2(3, 18) = 20.238$, * $p \leq .001$. Wald is $\chi^2 = (B/SE_{\beta})^2$ where SE_{β} is the standard error of the population of B values assuming zero is the true value. $EXP(B) = e^B$ for each predictor, where “e” is the base of the natural logs, and e^B defines the proportionate increase in the odds of group membership for a unit increase in the predictor variable. Large values of SE may indicate collinear predictors; large values of EXP(B) may indicate quasi-complete separation (overfitting) for some predictors.

The sixth hypothesis predicted that 4-year colleges and universities with policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations would have statistically significantly more violence intervention and prevention programming available for students than 4-year colleges and universities without policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations. Scatter plot and correlational analyses were used to compare adherence to Title IX recommendations with the total number of intervention and prevention programming available for rape and sexual assault. Analysis yielded a positive correlation ($r = .68$, $p < .002$); thus, the hypothesis was supported. The data suggested that 4-year colleges and universities with policies that adhered to Title IX recommendations were more likely to

have more violence intervention and prevention resources available to students (see Figure 3). The numbers on the axes represent the number of questions on the Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire regarding Title IX recommended policies and violence intervention and prevention resources.

Frequency Data for Policy and Programming

According to the data, 14 of the 36 colleges and universities (39%) had relationship violence policies, 28 of the 36 colleges and universities (78%) had sexual assault policies, and 11 of the 36 colleges and universities (31%) had stalking policies. Additionally, 28 (78%) colleges and universities indicated that they provided educational programming for students on relationship violence, 27 (75%) provided educational programming on sexual assault, and 12 (33%) provided educational programming on stalking (see Tables 8 and 9).

Table 7

Predictive Ability of Logistic Regression Model for Identifying Private Colleges and Universities by Intervention and Prevention Programming

Observed	Predicted		Percentage Correct
	Colleges and Universities		
	Public	Private	
Public	11	0	100.0
Private	1	6	85.7
Overall Percentage			94.4

Note. $R^2 = .68$

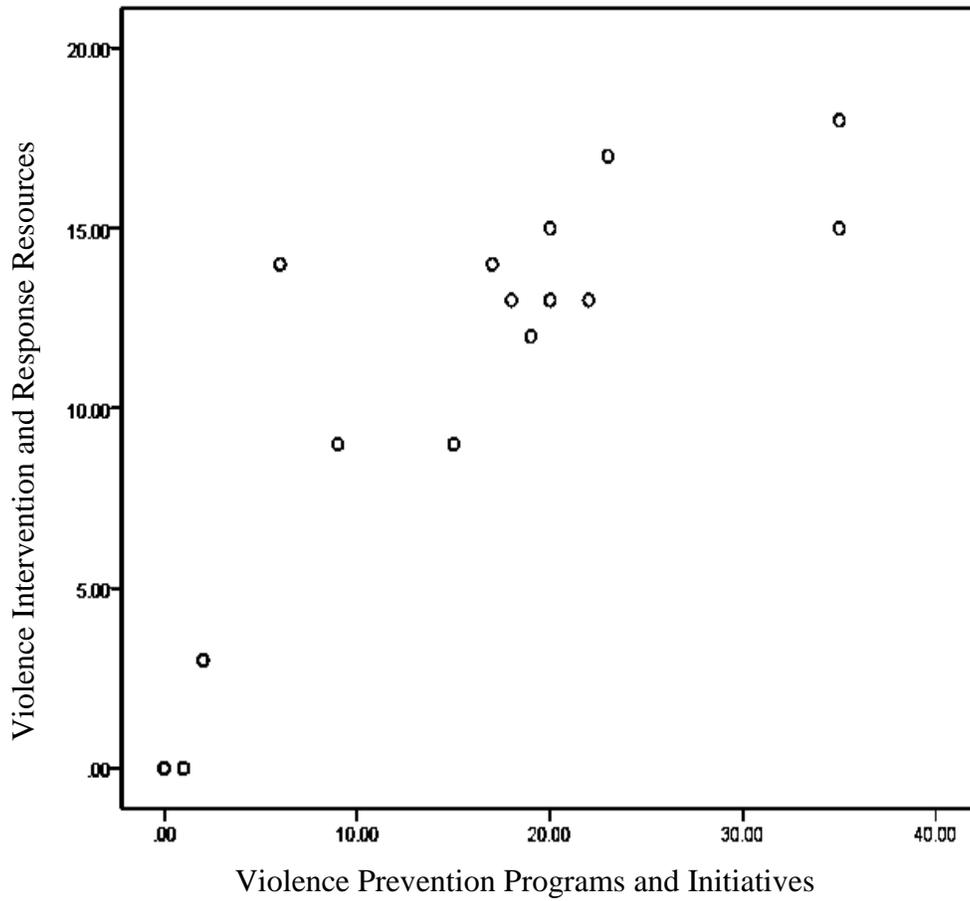


Figure 1. Correlation between violence intervention and response resources and violence prevention programs and initiatives among 4-year colleges and universities.

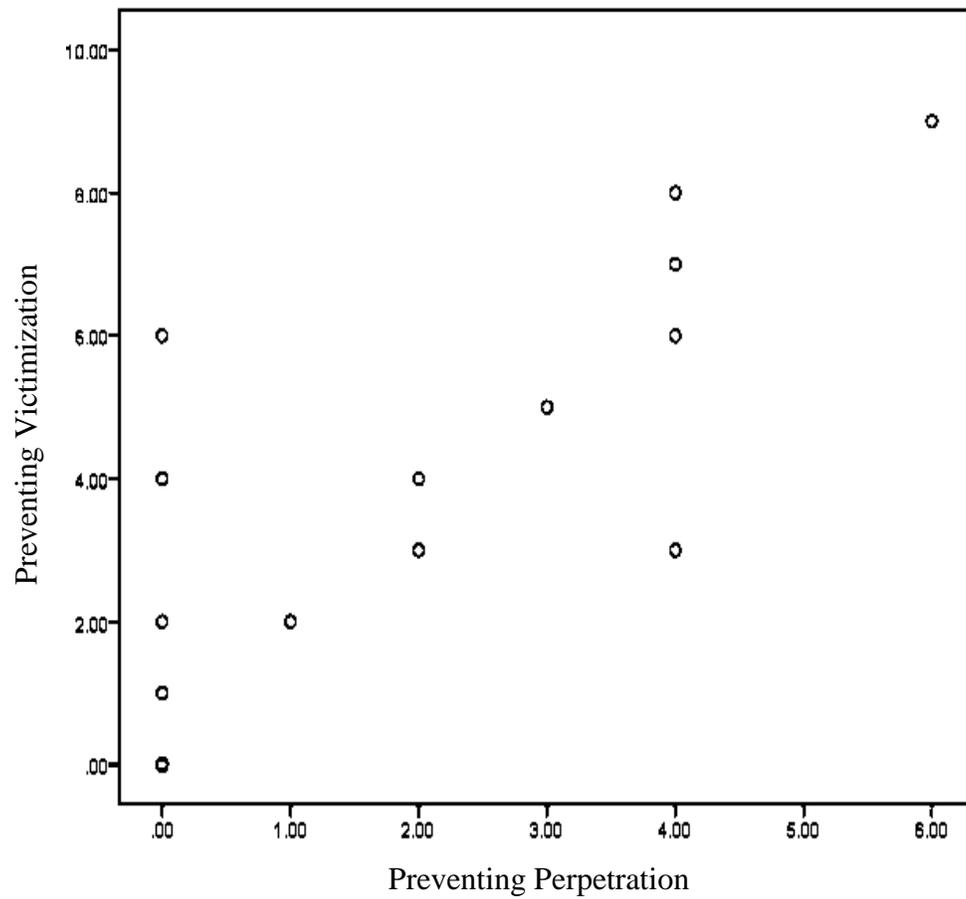


Figure 2. Correlation between preventing victimization and preventing perpetration among 4-year colleges and universities.

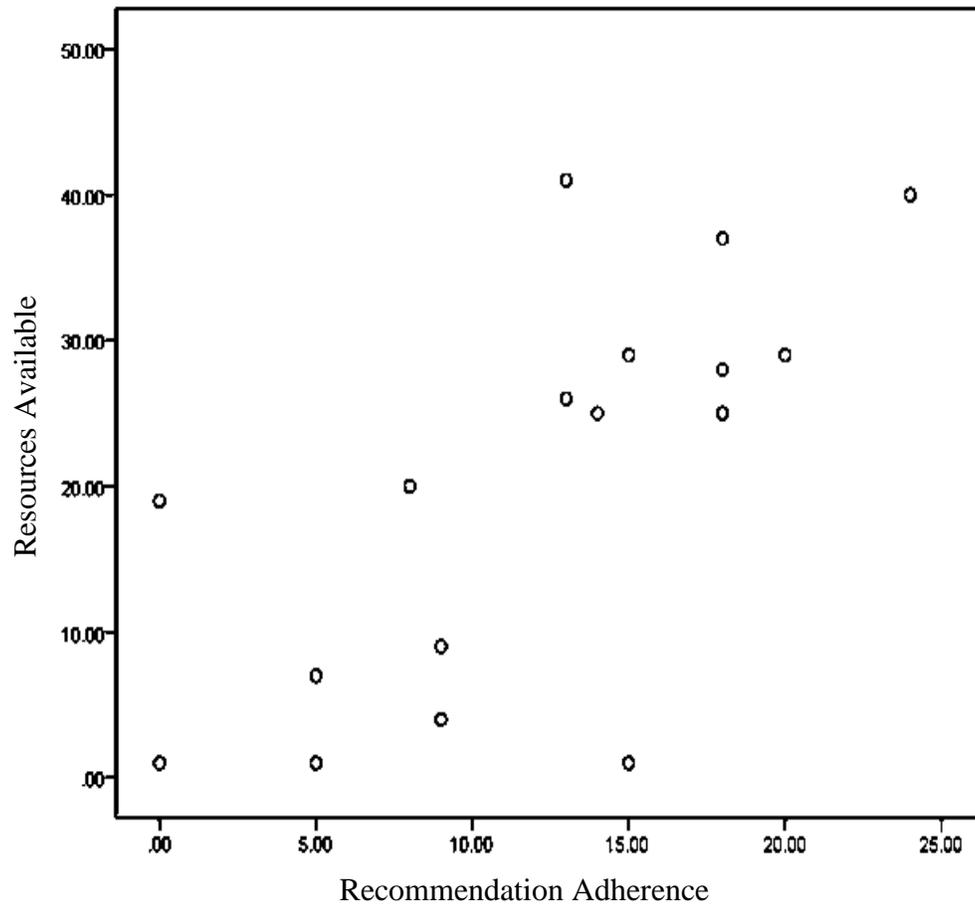


Figure 3. Correlation between adherence to Title IX policy recommendations and availability of resources among 4-year colleges and universities.

Table 8

Number of Institutions with Specific Policies and Educational Resources for Interpersonal Violence

Policies	4-year Institutions		
	Public (n = 9)	Private (n = 7)	Community (n = 18)
Relationship Violence	6	3	5
Sexual Assault	8	6	12
Stalking	4	3	4
Educational Resources			
Relationship Violence	7	6	15
Sexual Assault	7	7	12
Stalking	4	3	5

Table 9

Number of 4-Year Institutions with Specific Policies on Interpersonal Violence and Educational Resources Based on Location

Policies	Rural (<i>n</i> = 5)	Urban (<i>n</i> = 6)
Relationship Violence	2	3
Sexual Assault	4	5
Stalking	3	1
Educational Resources		
Relationship Violence	4	6
Sexual Assault	4	6
Stalking	2	2

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

The purpose of the present study was to explore the availability and types of campus violence intervention resources available to college students in Texas who have experienced interpersonal violence in the forms of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking. While there has been limited research addressing the availability and implementation of programs and resources, previous research has suggested that resources have been limited in scope and accessibility (Carr, 2007; Hayes-Smith & Hayes-Smith, 2009). Results from this study indicated that different types of violence intervention policies, resources, and programming were more common among certain types of colleges and universities.

Prior research has noted that colleges and universities have created policies and programming addressing interpersonal violence on an inconsistent basis, and among those universities that have policies, those addressing sexual assaults on college campuses have been the most common (U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice [DOJ], 2005; O'Neill et al., 2008). Findings from this study followed a similar trend, with the most common policies among colleges and universities being for sexual assault, followed by relationship violence, and lastly, stalking. However, colleges and universities in this study were more likely to provide

educational programming for both relationship violence and sexual assault; educational programming about stalking was the least common.

Overall, 4-year and community institutions provided rape and sexual assault policies for student viewing at similar rates. Consistent with previous research findings (Garcia et al., 2012), 4-year colleges and universities were more likely than community colleges to have policies on rape and sexual assault that included specific information on how institutions would respond to reports of sexual violence. In providing detailed descriptions about grievance procedures, protecting confidentiality, and academic and housing accommodations, 4-year colleges in Texas have been more likely than community colleges to adhere to this national recommendation (McMahon, 2008; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Four-year colleges and universities were also more likely to have specific policies for relationship violence and stalking, suggesting that community colleges may not have placed as much emphasis on creating such policies. For all colleges and universities, stalking policies were the least common.

Having educational resources and initiatives on college campuses has been an important recommendation for prevention and intervention efforts toward addressing relationship violence at colleges and universities across the country (O'Neill et al., 2008). As demonstrated in this study, across Texas, a comparable number of 4-year universities and community colleges have provided educational resources and information about relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking. That community colleges provided resources comparable to 4-year colleges showed that community colleges have improved in their ability to provide violence-related resources to their students, whereas in the past,

they have lagged behind their 4-year counterparts (Garcia et al., 2012). Similar to the availability of policies, few 4-year universities and community colleges provided educational resources about stalking. This scarcity of information and intervention on stalking may have been due to the current prominence placed on addressing and preventing sexual assaults on college campuses and the relatively new emphasis placed on stalking (U.S. Department of Labor, 2013).

Results from this study identified specific types of educational tools used among colleges as a whole and among certain types of 4-year colleges. Compared to community colleges, 4-year colleges and universities were more likely to use PowerPoint presentations and experiential activities, such as plays, skits, and role plays, to educate students, faculty, and staff about sexual assault. Among 4-year institutions, private colleges and universities were more likely than public colleges and universities to use workshops, while colleges and universities in urban areas were more likely than rural colleges and universities to use focus groups as a means of providing information and resources about sexual assault prevention and intervention. With regard to specific educational information provided to campus communities, private 4-year colleges were also more likely than public colleges to provide education on informal reporting options for sexual assaults.

It has been noted that the use of brief educational programs, as well as experiential learning techniques, has been found to increase student engagement and knowledge, facilitate talks of diversity and ethical decision-making, and help foster critical thinking and advanced problem-solving skills (Foubert et al., 2006; Meaney,

Bohler, Kopf, Hernandez, & Scott, 2008). By using PowerPoint presentations, workshops, and experiential activities as mediums of providing education about sexual assault, 4-year colleges and universities in this study have used learning techniques shown to reach students in effective and engaging ways (Meaney et al., 2008; O'Neill et al., 2008). Similarly, by using focus groups, urban colleges and universities in this study have implemented brief educational programs that could facilitate discussion, awareness, and prevention of relationship violence.

It was interesting to note that colleges and universities in urban areas were less likely than those in rural areas to offer specific ways for making policies on rape and sexual assault available. Four-year private colleges and universities were less likely than 4-year public colleges and universities to include information about available resources and community partnerships, such as rape crisis centers and domestic violence shelters. By omitting this information, colleges were not providing recommended, arguably essential, on-campus or off-campus resources to students, faculty, and staff, limiting options for counseling and advocacy (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Results from this study highlighted an absence of information provided to students about verbal abuse among colleges and universities in Texas. For instance, though 4-year colleges as a whole were apt to provide educational programs about relationship violence, they were less likely to include information about verbal abuse as a form of relationship violence. The lack of education on verbal abuse is troubling, as members of campus communities may not identify verbally aggressive experiences as abusive and may not seek assistance or resources (Walsh et al., 2010).

Findings from this study suggested an important shift in the violence prevention programming available to college students in Texas. Results indicated that public and private 4-year colleges and universities provided intervention and prevention resources on college campuses at comparable rates. Similarly, 4-year colleges and universities provided program curricula on victimization prevention and perpetration prevention at similar rates. These findings contradicted previous research, which suggested that colleges focused primarily on victim-blaming and sexual assault survivors' responsibilities as opposed to engaging in perpetrator prevention efforts (Carr, 2007). The emphasis on providing both victimization and perpetration prevention may be a result of colleges and universities complying with national recommendations seeking to increase prevention initiatives and ongoing educational programs, such as bystander intervention programs (DOJ, 2005; Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

The call for national recommendations and guidelines has been in large part aimed at providing resources and policies in order to identify, prevent, and protect students from discrimination and violence (Clery Center, 2012; National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). It has been suggested that, by adhering to national policy recommendations, there would be more resources, such as sexual assault prevention programs, sexual violence awareness programs, and on- and off-campus mental health resources, available for students (Clery Center, 2012). The present study found this relationship between adherence to policies and availability of intervention and violence prevention resources to be the case. Results

indicated that colleges and universities with rape and sexual assault policies based on Title IX recommendations provided more violence intervention, prevention, and education resources for students on campus.

Changes Following the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013

During the inception of this study, the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 was signed and became law on October 20, 2014. The Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 brought about modifications to the Higher Education Act of 1965 to implement changes to the Clery Act and incorporate requirements added to the Clery Act by the Higher Education Opportunity Act of 2008 (Department of Education, 2014). Colleges and universities in Texas and the rest of the U.S. were required to comply with regulations that provided students with prevention and intervention information and resources, such as maintaining statistics and policies on incidents of relationship violence, providing detailed descriptions of disciplinary procedures, and providing descriptions of ongoing campus prevention and awareness campaigns by July 1, 2015.

Participants in the current study were contacted before the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act was signed into law. Unanticipated by the researcher, this legal requirement would mean that participants were contacted during a time when colleges and universities were likely aware that new regulations were forthcoming, but before the regulations went into effect. Among the provisions made by the reauthorization were requirements for colleges and universities to maintain statistics on incidents of interpersonal violence (i.e., relationship violence, sexual assault, and

stalking); provide security reports to all incoming students and new employees; describe disciplinary proceedings and list all possible sanctions; revise definitions for dating violence, domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and rape to coincide with updated national definitions; and to identify and describe ongoing prevention and awareness programs (Department of Education, 2014).

Due to the timing of the study, participants' responses about the type and quantity of resources and policies on their college campuses may not be accurate representations of what is now available. Those colleges and universities which stated that they did not have policies for relationship violence, sexual assault, and/or stalking would have had to develop policies to meet the new federal requirements. The same could be said for institutions with few violence education resources. It should be noted that several participants included personalized messages to the researcher explaining circumstances in which their colleges did not have consistent programming or policies (e.g., being in the early stages of creating policies).

Implications for Policy

The availability of policies and resources for students who experienced interpersonal violence varied by type and location of colleges and universities. The challenges and obstacles to implementing essential resources may result in a range of complications for policy development, such as the creation of policy without providing educational programming or the implementation of educational programming for sexual assault, but not for relationship violence or stalking. New ways of addressing challenges that colleges and universities face may emerge in their efforts to abide by the updated

federal requirements in the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013. With new guidelines requiring colleges and universities to update definitions and provide educational programming for relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking, it is expected that community colleges, 4-year colleges, and universities will develop new intervention and prevention policies and programs, providing campus communities in Texas with increased protections from and resources for combatting violence.

Previous research has highlighted low reporting rates for incidents of interpersonal violence among college students and has cited students' beliefs that their experiences were not serious enough to warrant formal or informal reporting (Walsh et al., 2010; Wasserman, 2003). With institutions called to provide more nuanced policies and to add to their educational programming, students may feel increasingly willing and comfortable to report their experiences of interpersonal violence. The shift toward reduced victim-blaming rhetoric, by emphasizing both violence intervention and violence prevention, may prove to be a catalyst in encouraging students to use resources available at their colleges and universities. Similarly, federal requirements calling for the creation of policy and resources for stalking on college campuses may encourage new ways of conceptualizing and addressing stalking as a safety concern among college students.

Implications for Research

Replication studies both inside and outside of Texas with larger and more diverse sample are needed, particularly the inclusion of technical and medical schools. In light of the 2013 Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act requirements (Department of Education, 2014), future researchers may find more similarities between colleges and

universities, resulting in more violence intervention resources and programming available to students across the state of Texas and across the nation.

It would be enlightening to explore the availability of violence intervention and prevention resources among colleges and universities in rural areas, with attention to the obstacles encountered. Institutions in low-income areas or with minimal funding resources may struggle to provide a breadth of programming and learning opportunities for students. Future researchers should explore the economic feasibility of developing new programs and policies in rural communities.

Prior research has suggested that interpersonal violence-oriented programming has primarily focused on victim responsibility and interventions aimed at addressing violence after it has occurred (Carr, 2007). Results from this study have challenged this assumption by suggesting that Texas colleges and universities have provided both intervention and prevention resources at similar rates. With colleges shifting their focus from victim-blaming to perpetrator accountability, future researchers should evaluate these new programs and initiatives, exploring students' perceptions of the availability, quantity, breadth, and effectiveness of the resources provided on their college campuses.

Implications for Practice

Based on the findings of the present study, policies, resources, and education about sexual assault have been more common on colleges and universities campuses than policies, resources, and education about relationship violence and stalking. Resources have included the *Guidelines for Psychological Practice with Girls and Women* (APA, 2007), which provides gender- and culturally-sensitive recommendations for working

with girls and women who have experienced relationship violence and other traumas. Though policies and resources for relationship violence and stalking may be more commonplace now than they were a couple of years ago, students, faculty, and staff may not be aware of available information, aid, or protections. Regardless of location and type, few colleges and universities in this study provided policies or educational resources about stalking, and few community, rural, and private colleges had policies on relationship violence.

For university faculty, staff, and administrators working with students, more information and education about relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking could mean an increased use of campus resources by students as they gain awareness of the types of behaviors that are associated with interpersonal violence. Increased knowledge and awareness could lead students to label instances of interpersonal violence as experiences of abuse and could reduce the stigma of reporting acts of interpersonal violence. Thus, faculty, staff, and administrators may see an increase in the number of formal and informal reports from students who have experienced not only sexual assault but also relationship violence and stalking. An increase in reporting could create a need for more extensive training and more specialized personnel, working with different campus offices, and networking with community organizations.

As mental health practitioners, it is important for counseling psychologists working in university counseling centers and student affairs positions to be knowledgeable on the new requirements set forth by the 2013 Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act. By being aware of current legal definitions for relationship

violence, sexual assault, and stalking, counseling psychologists will be in a position to increase campus awareness via workshops, therapy, and other forms of outreach and training to address interpersonal violence intervention and prevention, particularly primary prevention for perpetrators of relationship violence. Prevention and awareness efforts for staff psychologists in university counseling centers may include coordinating daily campaigns, information tables, guest speakers, and contests (Lee et al., 2003; National Sexual Violence Resource Center, 2015).

With current national attention devoted to violence on college campuses, it is an ideal time for advocacy initiatives to provide education and resources to college students on and off campus. By providing information and support for those impacted by interpersonal violence, college campuses can create a greater sense of physical and emotional safety and security.

Implications for Training

It is important that psychologists and other mental health practitioners continue to educate themselves and others on the nuances and many faces of interpersonal violence. Results from this study indicated that verbal abuse was not always identified as a type of relationship violence. Similarly, colleges and universities tended not to provide policies or educational programming on stalking. Unfortunately, this exclusion may prevent students who experience verbal abuse and stalking by their intimate partners from seeking help (Malloy, 2003; Walsh et al., 2010). In being mindful that relationship violence is not limited to physical aggression, psychologists are valuable resources in a college community, validating students' experiences about the seriousness of verbal

abuse and stalking, and helping to educate the campus community on the psychologically harmful impact of verbal abuse and stalking behaviors (American College Health Association, 2012; Björklund et al., 2010).

Counseling psychology training programs must model advocacy and encourage sensitivity for diverse student populations, such as ethnic, racial, and sexual minority groups who have experienced interpersonal violence. Such training is instrumental in increasing awareness on interpersonal violence among underrepresented groups and encouraging the creation of more resources for students.

Limitations

Out of the 187 colleges and universities that were contacted, only 87 institutions responded to indicate whether or not they wanted to participate in the study. Of these 87, 64 indicated that they wanted to participate in the study. Only 36 of these 64 individuals representing colleges and universities in Texas returned completed questionnaires. With many Texas colleges and universities not included in the study, findings may not provide an accurate representation of the state of resources and education on violence intervention and prevention available to Texas college students. A number of factors could have contributed to the low response rate. Initial contact was made during April 2014, toward the latter part of the typical college semester, a predictably busy time for students and administrators. As a result, potential participants may not have contributed. Potential participants were presented with the research materials via a hardcopy paper format and it is possible that college administrators may have been more responsive to an online format. The self-report aspect of the present study also assumed that participants

accurately conveyed the different policies and programs available at their respective college and university campuses.

With the implementation of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 (Department of Education, 2014), colleges and universities may have been wary of a study inquiring about policies, recourses, and programming for students on relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking. Potential participants may not have wanted to share information about their resources, especially if they thought their responses would result in their college or university appearing inadequate.

Conclusion

Policies and resources for college students, which speak to institutions' commitment to awareness and prevention of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking, are important factors in providing a safe and social-justice-minded learning environment. Students' experiences with interpersonal violence have been an ongoing topic of discussion in colleges and universities and it is crucial that these institutions of higher education continue offering the most current and accurate information and programming for students. By providing easily accessible resources, university and college students, faculty, staff, and administrators will be better informed about the complexities of interpersonal violence. Better information will help to eliminate often harmful myths and misconceptions about interpersonal violence and will provide useful resources to students. Demonstrating colleges' commitment to addressing violence on campus is a vital step toward reducing the stigma and silence often felt by students who are victims of relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking.

REFERENCES

- Amar, A. F. & Alexy, E. M. (2010). Coping with stalking. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing, 31*, 8-14. doi: 10.3109/01612840903225602
- American College Health Association (2012). American college health association- National college health assessment II: Reference group executive summery fall 2011. Hanover, MD: American College Health Association. Retrieved from http://www.acha-ncha.org/docs/ACHA-NCHA-II_ReferenceGroup_ExecutiveSummary_Fall2011.pdf
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- American Psychological Association. (2007). Guidelines for psychological practice with girls and women. *American Psychologist, 62*, 949-979. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.62.9.949
- Arnold, D. A., Gelaye, B., Goshu, M., Berhane, Y. B., & Williams, M. A. (2008). Prevalence and risk factors of gender-based violence among female college students in Awassa, Ethiopia. *Violence and Victim, 23*, 787-800. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.23.6.787
- Baum, K. & Klaus, P. (2005). National crime victimization survey: Violent victimization of college students, 1995-2002. *U.S. Department of Justice*, 1-7. Retrieved from <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/vvcs02.pdf>

- Bauman, S. & Newman, M. L. (2013). Testing assumptions about cyberbullying: Perceived distress associated with acts of convention and cyber bullying. *Psychology of Violence, 3*, 27-38. doi: 10.1037/a0029867
- Berkel, L.A., Furlong, A. N., Hickman, A. A., & Blue, E. L. (2005). A qualitative examination of black college women's beliefs about abuse in relationships. *Professional Psychology Research and Practice, 36*, 283-290. doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.36.3.283
- Björklund, K., Häkkänen-Nyholm, H., Sheridan, L., & Roberts, K. (2010). Coping with stalking among university students. *Violence and Victims, 25*, 395-408. doi: 10.1891/0886-6708.25.3.395
- Boeringer, S. B. (1996). Influences of fraternity membership, athletics, and male living arrangements on sexual aggression. *Violence Against Women, 2*, 134-147. doi: 10.1177/1077801296002002002
- Burgess, A. W., Garbarino, C., & Carlson, M. I. (2006). Pathological teasing and bullying turned deadly: shooters and suicide. *Victims and Offenders, 1*, 1-14. doi: 10.1080/15564880500498705
- Carr, J. L. (2007). Campus violence white paper. *Journal of American College Health, 55*, 304-319. doi:10.3200/JACH.55.5.304-320
- Catalano, S. M. (2006). Criminal Victimization, 2005. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from the Bureau of Justice Statistics website: <http://bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv05.pdf>

- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2012). Understanding intimate partner violence: Fact sheet. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pub/ipv_factsheet.html
- Clery Center. (2012). Jeanne Clery Act full text. Retrieved from <http://clerycenter.org/summary-jeanne-clery-act>
- Coker, A. L., Sanderson, M., Cantu, E., Huerta, D., & Fadden, M. K. (2008). Frequency and types of partner violence among Mexican American college women. *Journal of American College Health, 56*, 665-673. doi: 10.3200/JACH.56.6.665-674
- Copenhaver, S. & Grauerholz, E. (1991). Sexual victimization among sorority women: Exploring the link between sexual violence and institutional practices. *Sex Roles, 24*, 31-41. doi: 10.1007/BF00288701
- De Fazio, L. (2011). Criminalization of stalking in Italy: One of the last among the current European member states' anti-stalking laws. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law, 29*, 317- 323. doi: 10.1002/bsl.983
- Department of Education (2014). Violence against women act. *Federal Register, 79*, 62751- 62790. Retrieved from <http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/FR-2014-10-20/pdf/2014-24284.pdf>
- Drysdale, D. A., Modzeleski, W., & Simons, A. B. (2010). Campus attacks: Targeted violence affecting institutions of higher education. Retrieved from the Federal Bureau of Investigation website: <http://www.fbi.gov/stats-services/publications/campus-attacks/campus-attacks-pdf>

- El-Khoury, M. Y., Dutton, M. A., Goodman, L. A., Engel, L., Belamaric, R. J., & Murphy, M. (2004). Ethnic differences in battered women's formal help-seeking strategies: A focus on health, mental health, and spirituality. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 10*, 383-393. doi: 10.1037/1099-9809.10.4.383
- Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2000). The sexual victimization of college women. *National Institute of Justice*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/182369.pdf>
- Fisher, B. S., Daigle, L. E., & Cullen, F. T. (2010). *Unsafe in the ivory tower: The sexual victimization of college women*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Fleck-Henderson, A. (2012). Beyond Title IX: Guidelines for Preventing and Responding to Gender-based Violence in Higher Education. Retrieved from the National Online Resource Center on Violence Against Women website: http://www.vawnet.org/summary.php?doc_id=3160&find_type=web_sum_GC
- Foubert, J., Garner, D., & Thaxter, P. (2006). An exploration of fraternity culture: Implications for programs to address alcohol-related sexual assault. *College Student Journal, 40*, 361-373. Retrieved from http://www.projectinnovation.biz/cs_j_2006.html
- Garcia, C. M., Lechner, K. E., Frerich, E. A., Lust, K. A., & Eisenberg, M. E. (2012). Preventing sexual violence instead of just responding to it: Students' perceptions of sexual violence resources on campus. *Journal of Forensic Nursing, 8*, 61-71. doi: 10.1111/j.1939-3938.2011.01130.x

- Gidycz, C. A., Warkentin, J. B., & Orchowski, L. M. (2007). Predictors of perpetration of verbal, physical, and sexual violence: A prospective analysis of college men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 8, 79–94. doi: 10.1037/1524-9220.8.2.79
- Groves, R. M., Salfati, C. G., & Elliot, D. (2004). The influence of prior offender/victim relationship on offender stalking behavior. *Journal of Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiling*, 1, 153-167. doi: 10.1002/jip.013
- Gwartney-Gibbs, P., & Stockard, J. (1989). Courtship aggression and mixed-sex peer groups. In M. A. Pirog-Good & J. E. Stets (Eds.), *Violence in dating relationships*. New York: Praeger.
- Häkkinen, H., Hagelstam, C., & Santtila, P. (2003). Stalking actions, prior offender-victim relationships and issuing of restraining orders in a Finnish sample of stalkers. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, 8, 189-206. doi: 10.1348/135532503322362960
- Hayes-Smith, R. & Hayes-Smith, J. (2009). A website content analysis of women's resources and sexual assault literature on college campuses. *Critical Criminology*, 17, 109–123. doi 10.1007/s10612-009-9075-y
- Howard, D. E., Griffin, M. A. & Boekeloo, B. O. (2008). Prevalence and psychosocial correlates of alcohol-related sexual assault among university students. *Adolescence*, 43, 733-750. Retrieved from http://www.researchgate.net/journal/0001-8449_Adolescence

- International Society for Traumatic Stress Studies. (2010). What is traumatic stress?
Retrieved from <http://www.istss.org/public-resources/what-is-traumatic-stress.aspx>
- Koss, M. P., Gidycz, C. A., & Wisniewski, N. (1987). The scope of rape: Incidence and prevalence of sexual aggression and victimization in a national sample of higher education students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55*, 162-170.
- Koss, M.P. (1988). Hidden rape: Sexual aggression and victimization in the national sample of students in higher education. In M.A. Pirog-Good & J.E. Stets (Eds.), *Violence in dating relationships: Emerging social issues* (pp. 145-168). New York, NY: Praeger.
- Lackie, L. & de Man, A. F. (1997). Correlates of sexual aggression among male university students. *Sex Roles, 37*, 451-457. doi: 10.1023/A:1025613725757
- Lee, R. W., Caruso, M. E., Goins, S. E., & Southerland, J. P. (2003). Addressing sexual assault on college campuses: Guidelines for a prevention/awareness week. *Journal of College Counseling, 6*, 14-23. doi:10.1002/j.2161-1882.2003.tb00223.x
- Lehrer, J. A., Lehrer, E. L., & Zhao, Z. (2010). Physical dating violence victimization in college women in Chile. *Journal of Women's Health, 19*, 893-902. doi:10.1089=jwh.2009.1583
- Lipka, S. (2008). Colleges have better-prepared police and less crime than they used to, report says. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.com*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/daily/2008/02/1852n.htm>

- Malloy, A. (2003). Dating violence and domestic violence. *California Coalition Against Sexual Assault, 4*, 1-15. Retrieved from http://www.uncfsp.org/projects/userfiles/File/DCE-STOP_NOW/Campus_Dating_and_DV.pdf
- Meaney, K. S., Bohler, H. R., Kopf, K., Hernandez, L., & Scott, L. T. (2008). Service-learning and pre-service educators' cultural competence for teaching: An exploratory study. *Journal of Experiential Education, 31*, 189-208. doi: 10.5193/JEE.31.2.189
- McMahon, P. P. (2008). Sexual violence on the college campus: A template for compliance with federal policy. *Journal of American College Health, 57*, 361-366. doi: 10.3200/JACH.57.3.361-366
- McNamara, C. L., & Marsil, D. F. (2012). The prevalence of stalking among college students: The disparity between researcher-and self-identified victimization. *Journal of American College Health, 60*, 168-174. doi: 10.1080/07448481.2011.584335
- National Center for Victims of Crime. (2012a). Bulletins for teens: Sexual assault. Retrieved from <http://www.victimsofcrime.org/help-for-crime-victims/get-help-bulletins-for-crime-victims/bulletins-for-teens/sexual-assault>
- National Center for Victims of Crime. (2012b). School and campus crime. Retrieved from <http://victimsofcrime.org/library/crime-information-and-statistics/school-crime-and-victimization#ftn16>

- National Center for Victims of Crime. (2012c). Stalking information. Retrieved from <http://www.victimsofcrime.org/our-programs/stalking-resource-center/stalking-information#what>
- National Coalition Against Domestic Violence. (2011). Domestic violence facts. Retrieved from [http://www.ncadv.org/files/DomesticViolenceFactSheet \(National\).pdf](http://www.ncadv.org/files/DomesticViolenceFactSheet(National).pdf)
- National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education. (2012). Title IX at 40: Working to ensure gender equity in education. Retrieved from <http://www.ncwge.org>
- National Sexual Violence Resource Center. (2015). Sexual assault awareness month: Event planning guide. Retrieved from http://www.nsvrc.org/sites/default/files/saam_2015_event-planning-guide_0.pdf
- O'Neill, D., Fox, J. A., Depue, R., & Englander, E. (2008). Campus violence prevention and response: Best practices for Massachusetts higher education. Report to Massachusetts Department of Higher Education. Retrieved from <http://www.mass.edu/library/Reports/CampusViolencePreventionAndResponse.pdf>
- O'Neil, J. M. & Nadeau, R. A. (1999). Men's gender-role conflict, defense mechanisms, and self-protective defense strategies: Explaining men's violence against women from a gender-role socialization perspective. In M. Harway & J. M. O'Neil (Eds.), *What causes men's violence against women?* (pp. 89-116). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Pagliocca, P. M. & Nickerson, A. B. (2001). Legislating school crisis response: Good policy or just good politics? *Law & Policy*, 23, 373-407. doi: 10.1111/1467-9930.00117
- Palmer, C. J. (1996). Violence and other forms of victimization in residence halls: Perspectives of resident assistants. *Journal of College Student Development*, 37, 268-278.
- Pence, E. & Paymar, M. (1993). *Education groups for men who batter: The Duluth model*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Peterson, R. L. & Skiba, R. (2001). Creating school climates that prevent school violence. *The Clearing House*, 74, 155-163. doi: 10.1080/00098650109599183
- Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (2009a). Effects of sexual assault. Retrieved from <http://www.rainn.org/get-information/effects-of-sexual-assault>
- Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network. (2009b). Stalking. Retrieved from <http://www.rainn.org/news-room/sexual-assault-issues/stalking>
- Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (2009c). Who are the victims? Retrieved from <http://www.rainn.org/get-information/statistics/sexual-assault-victims>
- Roark, M. L. (1987). Preventing violence on college campuses. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 65, 367- 371. doi: 10.1002/j.1556-6676.1987.tb00732.x
- Robinson, D. T., Gibson-Beverly, G., & Schwartz, J. P. (2004). Sorority and fraternity membership and religious behaviors: Relation to gender attitudes. *Sex Roles*, 50, 871-877. doi: 10.1023/B:SERS.0000029104.87813.d5

- Sable, M. R., Danis, F., Mauzy, D. L., & Gallagher, S. K. (2006). Barriers to reporting sexual assault for women and men: Perspectives of college students. *Journal of American College Health, 55*, 157-162. doi:10.3200/JACH.55.3.157-162
- Schnurr, M. P., Mahatmya, D., & Basche, R. A. III. (2013). The role of dominance, cyber aggression perpetration, and partner violence. *Psychology of Violence, 3*, 70-83. doi: 10.1037/a0030601
- Sellers, C. C. & Bromley M. L. (1996). Violent behavior in college student dating relationships: Implications for campus service providers. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 12*, 1-27. doi:10.1177/104398629601200102
- Sheridan, L. & Lyndon, A. E. (2012). The influence of prior relationship, gender, and fear on the consequences of stalking victimization. *Sex Roles, 66*, 340-350. doi: 10.1007/s11199-010-9889-9
- Sinozich, S. & Langton, L. (2014). Rape and sexual assault victimization among college-age females, 1995-2013. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from the Bureau of Justice Statistics website: <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/rsavcaf9513.pdf>
- Smartt, U. (2001). The stalking phenomenon: Trends in European and international stalking and harassment legislation. *European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law and Criminal Justice, 9*, 209-232. doi: 10.1163/15718170120519426

- Stalking Resource Center. (2012). Stalking fact sheet. Retrieved from the National Center for Victims of Crime website: http://www.victimsofcrime.org/docs/src/stalking-fact-sheet_english.pdf?sfvrsn=4
- Strand, S. & McEwan, T. E. (2011). Same-gender stalking in Sweden and Australia. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law*, 29, 202-219. doi: 10.1002/bsl.981
- Straus, M. A. (2004). Prevalence of violence against dating partners by male and female university students worldwide. *Violence Against Women*, 10, 790-811. doi: 10.1177/1077801204265552
- Sugarman, D. B. & Willoughby, T. (2013). Technology and violence: Conceptual issues raised by the rapidly changing social environment. *Psychology of Violence*, 3, 1-8. doi: 10.1037/a0031010
- Texas Dating Violence Prevention Team. (2007). Teen Dating Violence Policy, TX Code 37.0831. A guide to addressing dating violence in Texas schools. Retrieved from <http://www.tcfv.org/pdf/hb121/A%20Guide%20to%20Addressing%20Dating%20Violence%20in%20Texas%20Schools.pdf>
- Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board. (2011). List of Institutions. Retrieved from <http://www.txhighereddata.org/Interactive/Institutions.cfm>
- Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (1998). Stalking in America: Findings from the national violence against women survey. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Retrieved from <http://www.nij.gov/pubs-sum/169592.htm>

- Tjaden P., & Thoennes, N. (2000a). Extent, nature, and consequences of intimate partner violence: Findings from the national violence against women survey. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Retrieved from <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/181867.pdf>
- Tjaden P., & Thoennes, N. (2000b). Prevalence and consequences of male-to-female and female-to-male intimate partner violence as measured by the national violence against women survey. *Violence Against Women*, 6, 142-161. doi:10.1177/10778010022181769
- Truman, J. L. & Langton, L. (2015) Criminal Victimization, 2014. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from the Bureau of Justice Statistics website: <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv14.pdf>
- U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights. (2011). Dear colleague letter. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/letters/colleague-201104.html>
- U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice. (2005). Sexual assault on campus: What colleges and universities are doing about it. Retrieved from <http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/205521.pdf>
- U.S. Department of Labor. (2013). Title IX, education amendments of 1972. Retrieved from <http://www.dol.gov/oasam/regs/statutes/titleix.htm>

- van der Aa, S. & Groenen, A. (2011). Identifying the needs of stalking victims and the responsiveness of the criminal justice system: A qualitative study in Belgium and the Netherlands. *Victims & Offenders*, 6, 19-37. doi:10.1080/15564886.2011.534006
- Walsh, W. A., Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., Ward, S., & Cohn, E. S. (2010). Disclosure and service use on a college campus after an unwanted sexual experience. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, 11, 134–151. doi: 10.1080/15299730903502912
- Wasserman, C. (2003). Dating violence on campus: A fact of life. Retrieved from National Center on Domestic and Sexual Violence website: <http://www.ncdsv.org/>
- Wilson, D., Kirkland, C., & LaBanc, B. H. (2014). Addressing sexual assault and interpersonal violence: Athletics' role in support of healthy and safe campuses. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaa.org/sites/default/files/Sexual-Violence-Prevention.pdf>

APPENDIX A

Information Letter

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Irais Anderton-Chavez and I am a Counseling Psychology doctoral candidate at Texas Woman's University in Denton, Texas. I am presently working on my doctoral dissertation under the advisement of Dr. Linda Rubin. Within the next week, you will be sent a research packet inviting you to participate in my dissertation research about student resources available on college and university campuses. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time.

Each packet will include an institution profile questionnaire with brief demographic questions about your institution, and a survey with questions about the resources available to students at your particular institution. The purpose of the research study will be to learn about the institution's interpersonal violence protocols and resources. A return envelope with paid postage will be included for your convenience. The survey takes approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

There will also be an opportunity to win a \$50 gift card for participants who complete and return the entire research packet.

If you have questions, you may contact the principal investigator, Irais D. Anderton-Chavez by email at iandertonchavez@twu.edu, or Dr. Linda Rubin, Department of Psychology & Philosophy at 940-898-2314, or LRubin@twu.edu.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Respectfully,

Irais D. Anderton-Chavez, M.A.
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Candidate
Texas Woman's University

APPENDIX B
Informed Consent Form

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Campus Interpersonal Violence in the Lone Star State: Available Resources for Students Experiencing Relationship Violence, Stalking, and Sexual Assault

Investigator: Irais Anderton-Chavez, M.A.iandertonchavez@twu.edu/
817-XXX-XXXX

Advisor: Linda Rubin, Ph.D.LRubin@twu.edu/ 940-898-2314

Explanation and Purpose of the Research

You are being asked to participate in a research study for Ms. Anderton's doctoral dissertation at Texas Woman's University. The purpose of the research is to gain knowledge of the types of institutional responses and procedures implemented following an incident of interpersonal violence among students on or off campus. You have been asked to participate in this study because your institution's website identified you as a Student Affairs/Student Services representative.

Description of Procedures

As a participant in this study, you will be asked to complete the enclosed surveys. A time commitment of 20 to 30 minutes can be expected to complete both surveys. If you become tired or upset you may take breaks as needed. You may also stop answering questions at any time and end the survey without penalty. If you choose to complete the research packet, you will have the opportunity to enter to win a \$50 gift card.

Potential Risks

Participants may experience emotional discomfort due to the survey material. The questions asked in the survey may include sensitive subject matter, specifically questions about relationship violence, stalking, and sexual assault.

Another risk in this study is loss of confidentiality. There is a potential risk of loss of confidentiality in all postal transactions. Security of responses may be compromised by paper administration of the survey; however, confidentiality will be protected to the extent that is allowed by law. A code number will be used, in place of your real name, once the survey is completed and submitted. No one but the researcher and the faculty advisor will know your real name. Any identifiable information will be stored in a locked cabinet and destroyed approximately one year after the end of the study.

The researchers will try to prevent any problem that could happen because of this research. You should let the researchers know at once if there is a problem and they will

help you. However, TWU does not provide medical services or financial assistance for injuries that might happen because you are taking part in this research.

Participation

Your involvement in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time. If you would like to know the results of this study we will mail them to you.*

Questions Regarding the Study

If you have any questions about the research study you should ask the researchers; their phone numbers are at the top of this form. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research or the way this study has been conducted, you may contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Sponsored Programs at 940-898-3378 or via e-mail at IRB@twu.edu.

I have read and understood the information on this form and would like to participate in the current research study.

Participant's Signature

Date

*If you would like to know the results of this study, please provide where you want them to be sent in the text box below:

APPENDIX C

Institutional Profile Questionnaire

Institution Profile

Name of Institution _____
_____ (x) Prefer not to answer

Total Student Enrollment _____

Institution Location _____ (1) Urban setting
_____ (2) Suburban setting
_____ (3) Rural setting

Type of Institution _____ (1) State/Public four-year institution
_____ (2) Private four-year institution
_____ (3) Community College
_____ (3) Technical School
_____ (4) Medical School

Ethnic Composition of Student Population:
(Check all that apply)

_____ (1) Predominately African American/Black
_____ (2) Predominately Asian American
_____ (3) Predominately Caucasian/White
_____ (4) Predominately Hispanic American/Latino(a)
_____ (5) Predominately Native American
_____ (6) Predominately Multi-ethnic/Bi-Racial
_____ (7) Ethnically diverse to an equal degree
_____ (8) Don't Know

APPENDIX D

Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire

Institutional Interpersonal Violence Response Questionnaire

Campus Policies

1. Does your institution have a dating violence, relationship violence, or domestic violence, or intimate partner violence policy?

Yes

No

If Yes, which of the following are included in the institution's policy? Please check all that apply.

Definition of intimate partner violence

Definition of relationship violence

Definition of consent

Descriptive scenarios of relationship violence

A statement of commitment to deter relationship violence

Identified ways of making the policy available to students, faculty, and staff

Policy is readily available for viewing

Provision for training: resident assistants and/or coordinators

Provision for training: students

Provision for training: faculty

Provision for training: staff

Support for students choosing to report

Steps for students to take after an incident of relationship violence

Information on different reporting options

Steps to protect victim confidentiality

The institution's response to reporting

Procedures for discipline and punishment of perpetrators

Community partnerships

Options for formal reporting

Options for informal reporting

2. Does your institution have a rape and sexual assault policy?

Yes

No

If Yes, which of the following are included in the institution's policy? Please check all that apply.

- Definition of rape
- Definition of sexual assault
- Definition of consent
- Descriptive scenarios of sexual assault that include: non-stranger sexual assault
- Descriptive scenarios of sexual assault that include: stranger sexual assault
- Descriptive scenarios of sexual assault that include: date rape
- A statement of commitment to deter sexual assault
- Identified ways of making the policy available to students, faculty, and staff
- Policy is readily available for viewing
- Provision for training: resident assistants and/or coordinators
- Provision for training: students
- Provision for training: faculty
- Provision for training: staff
- Support for students choosing to report
- Steps for students to take after an assault
- Information on different reporting options
- Steps to protect victim confidentiality
- The institution's response to reporting
- Procedures for investigating sexual assault
- Procedures for discipline and punishment of perpetrators
- Community partnerships
- Options for formal reporting
- Options for informal reporting

3. Does your institution have a stalking policy?

Yes

No

If Yes, which of the following are included in the institution's policy? Please check all that apply.

- Definition of stalking
- Definition of consent
- Descriptive scenarios of stalking
- A statement of commitment to deter stalking
- Identified ways of making the policy available to students, faculty, and staff
- Policy is readily available for viewing
- Provision for training: resident assistants and/or coordinators
- Provision for training: students
- Provision for training: faculty
- Provision for training: staff
- Support for students choosing to report
- Steps for students to take after incidents of stalking
- Information on different reporting options
- Steps to protect victim confidentiality
- The institution's response to reporting
- Procedures for discipline and punishment of perpetrators
- Community partnerships
- Options for formal reporting
- Options for informal reporting

Prevention & Intervention Programing

4. Does your institution provide educational programing for students on relationship violence among students on campus?

- Yes
- No

If Yes, what types of materials and formats are used? Please check all that apply.

- Educational videos
- Pamphlets
- Research articles
- Books
- PowerPoint presentations
- Seminars
- Workshops

- Focus groups
- Experiential activities (plays, skits, role plays)
- Multi-day trainings
- Full -day trainings
- Half-day trainings
- 1-4 hour-long trainings

If Yes, which of the following topics are discussed as part of the educational programming on relationship violence? Please check all that apply.

- Definitions
- Physical abuse as relationship violence
- Sexual abuse as relationship violence
- Verbal abuse as relationship violence
- Emotional abuse as relationship violence
- Minimizing
- Self-Blame
- Controlling behaviors
- Economic abuse
- Religious abuse
- Impact of relationship violence
- Safety planning
- Intimidation
- Power and Control
- Social norms and socialization
- Offender accountability
- Victim accountability
- Role of drugs and alcohol
- Role of financial strain
- National statistics
- Escalation ladder
- Medical services
- Mental health services
- Options for reporting
- Options for informal reporting
- Crime Victims' Compensation
- Protective Orders

Published resources for students (literature)

Information on campus safety

5. Does your institution provide educational programming for students on rape and sexual assault among students on campus?

Yes

No

If Yes, what types of materials and formats are used? Please check all that apply.

Educational videos

Pamphlets

Research articles

Books

PowerPoint presentations

Seminars

Workshops

Focus groups

Experiential activities (plays, skits, role plays)

Multi-day trainings

Full -day trainings

Half-day trainings

1-4 hour-long trainings

If Yes, which of the following topics are discussed as part of the educational programming on rape and sexual assault? Please check all that apply.

Definitions

National statistics

Rape myths

Acquaintance rape

Rape in a relationship or marriage

Date rape

Stranger rape

Incest

Child sexual abuse

- Unwanted sexual touching
- Sexual harassment
- Minimizing
- Self-Blame
- Intimidation
- Power and Control
- Social norms and socialization
- Self-defense
- Safety planning
- Consent
- Emotional impact/responses of sexual abuse
- Offender accountability
- Victim accountability
- Role of drugs and alcohol
- Medical services
- Mental health services
- Options for formal reporting
- Options for informal reporting
- Crime Victims' Compensation
- Protective Orders
- Rape Kits
- Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE nurse)
- Published resources for students (literature)
- Information on campus safety

6. Does your institution provide educational programming for students on stalking among students on campus?

- Yes
- No

If Yes, what types of materials and formats are used? Please check all that apply.

- Educational videos
- Pamphlets
- Research articles
- Books

- PowerPoint presentations
- Seminars
- Workshops
- Focus groups
- Experiential activities (plays, skits, role plays)
- Multi-day trainings
- Full -day trainings
- Half-day trainings
- 1-4 hour-long trainings

If Yes, which of the following topics are discussed as part of the educational programming on stalking? Please check all that apply.

- Definitions
- National statistics
- Harassment
- Threatening behaviors
- Physical violence
- Emotional abuse
- Stalking in a relationship or marriage
- Cyber stalking and electronic monitoring
- Escalation
- Unwanted attention or gifts
- Emotional impact of stalking
- Minimizing
- Self-Blame
- Intimidation
- Offender accountability
- Unwanted sexual touching
- Social norms and socialization
- Safety planning
- Consent
- Mental health services
- Options for formal reporting
- Options for informal reporting
- Published resources for students (literature)
- Information on campus safety

APPENDIX E
Incentive Information

Enter for a chance to win a \$50 gift card!

- Please complete and return your research packet (including your signed consent form) for a chance to win one of two \$50 gift cards.
- Winners will be randomly selected after research packets have been received and data have been collected.
- Please provide your name and mailing address. So we know where to send gift cards!
 - Names and addresses will be separated from research materials to maintain anonymity.

Name: _____

Mailing Address: _____

City: _____, TX Zip Code: _____

Thank you & good luck in the drawing!

APPENDIX F

Participation Reminder

Don't Forget!

Please take a few moments to complete the dissertation research packet that was sent a couple of weeks ago. A self-addressed, pre-paid return envelope was included for your convenience. *

You could have a chance to win a \$50 gift card!

Thank you in advance,

Irais Anderton-Chavez, M.A.
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Candidate
Texas Woman's University

“Campus Interpersonal Violence in the Lone Star State: Available Resources for Students Experiencing Relationship Violence, Stalking, and Sexual Assault”

*Your involvement in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time.