

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Sean Bogle for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Learning, Leadership and Community presented on March 22,
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Federal Guidance for Campus Sexual Violence.

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Sexual violence on college campuses is a prevalent issue that has received recent, federal guidance for how colleges should facilitate their student conduct administrative processes. The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. This study used a quantitative descriptive design to examine how the implementation of recent guidance for campus sexual violence has impacted student conduct administrators' perspectives on caseloads, facilitating procedural and safety awareness efforts, campus community safety, and the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Jeanne Clery Act. The knowledge gained in this study will aid the field of student conduct administration by identifying professional development needs.

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Examining Student Conduct Administrative Perspectives on Contemporary Federal
Guidance for Campus Sexual Violence

By Sean Bogle

A DISSERTATION

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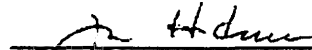
Dissertation of Sean Bogle

Presented on March 22, 2018

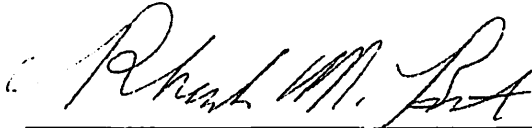
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Sean Bogle, Author

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The journey of my dissertation completion started well before I enrolled at Plymouth State University. Reaching the point of being accepted into my program is a testament to the love and support of parents, other family members, friends, educators and colleagues along the way. My parents, nor anyone in my family or close circle of friends, have earned an academic degree beyond a master's degree. Yet, they are to be credited for this achievement.

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Abstract

Sexual violence on college campuses is a prevalent issue that has received recent, federal guidance for how colleges should facilitate their student conduct administrative processes. The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. This study used a quantitative descriptive design to examine how the implementation of recent guidance for campus sexual violence has impacted student conduct administrators' perspectives on caseloads, facilitating procedural and safety awareness efforts, campus community safety, and the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Jeanne Clery Act. The knowledge gained in this study will aid the field of student conduct administration by identifying professional development needs.

Chapter One: Introduction and Purpose of the Study

Introduction

Sexual violence is a significant issue for institutes of higher education (hereafter IHEs). Often, systemic approaches to addressing sexual violence can lead to victims feeling blamed for the violence rather than encouraged that institutions will respond swiftly and significantly to lessen these acts. Yale (2016) indicates that sexual violence incorporates a range of behaviors. These behaviors can include sexual assault, unwanted touching, grabbing, rubbing, sexual harassment, intimate partner violence, stalking, voyeurism, and any other conduct of a sexual nature that is nonconsensual or has the purpose or effect of forcing, threatening, intimidating, or coercing a person (Yale, 2016).

Sexual violence continues to be a common experience for college women in America and, consistently, a substantial number of college men report perpetration of sexually aggressive behavior (Mouilso & Calhoun, 2016). College women are at the greatest risk for sexual violence victimization. Research estimates that 20-25% of females experience attempted or completed rape during their undergraduate years (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007, 2009). However, this statistical range may be higher when considering that most college women who experience sexual violence do not report these incidents to authorities. Less than five percent of college women report incidents of victimization (Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, & Turner, 2003). Fisher et al. (2003) found that women do not

report sexual victimization because of the characteristics of the incidents and fear of others' perceptions and beliefs about them.

Schwartz and Leggett's (1999) study revealed that between 83.4% and 94.2% of college women who indicate they have experienced sexual assault feel traumatized by the experience. Common mental health effects for victims of sexual misconduct include post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and dissociation (Joyful Heart Foundation, 2016). Pezza and Bellotti (1995) stated, "As a phenomenon, student victimization is the antithesis of student development" (p.116). Sexual violence victimization for college students commonly results in erosion of self-esteem and confidence, a diminished sense of personal control, irrational guilt, loss of focus, and impaired identity and capacity for intimacy (Pezza & Bellotti, 1995).

Legislative overview for campus sexual violence. Enacted into federal law in 1972, Title IX prohibits gender discrimination—including sexual violence—in higher education (Harper, Maskaly, Kirkner, & Lorenz, 2017). The Department of Education Office for Civil Rights (OCR) is responsible for enforcing Title IX and creating guidelines for gender equity at IHEs. However, OCR did not issue specific guidance for campus sexual violence until 2011, nearly 40 years after Title IX had been enacted (Baker, 1994).

In the 2000s, the public's escalated attention to the victimization of women in general, and concern for criminal activity on college campuses began to prompt responses from the federal government (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Capturing the significance and prevalence of sexual violence specific to college campuses, the

44th President, Barack Obama (2014), stated, “It is an affront to our basic humanity, it insults our most basic values.” On behalf of OCR, the former Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights, Russlynn Ali (2011), issued the 2011 Dear Colleague Letter to all colleges receiving federal aid. The purpose of the 2011 Dear Colleague Letter was to serve as a document of policy and guidelines, for institutes of higher education, to address campus sexual violence. The 2011 Dear Colleague Letter was soon after followed up with new federal legislation.

The United States Congress designed the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (hereafter Campus SaVE Act), which went into effect as federal law in 2015. The Campus SaVE Act imposed new obligations on student conduct administrators (Duncan, 2014). The act intended to improve education and prevention related to campus sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (Civic Impulse, 2018). In 2015, the Campus SaVE Act became an amendment to The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (hereafter Clery Act). Signed into federal law in 1990, the Clery Act was established to increase the accountability and transparency of IHEs in meeting certain responsibilities about the safety and security of students on their campuses by requiring IHEs receiving federal aid to disclose campus crime statistics and security information (McCallion, 2014).

A heinous case of campus sexual violence led to the creation of the Clery Act. In 1986, inside a campus dormitory at Lehigh University, a fellow student robbed, beat, sodomized, raped, and strangled to death Jeanne Clery (Beyette, 1989). After

the incident, reviews determined that Lehigh University had a rapidly escalating crime rate that preceded Clery's death (Beyette, 1989). The University did not publicly disclose the increased crime rate that preceded Clery's death until after Clery's murder. Clery's parents sought to provide an opportunity for other parents and students to access and learn about crime information that had not been available to them, and thus strive to keep students safe (Gregory & Janosik, 2003).

Historically, the Clery Act has required schools to annually report certain crimes that occur on campuses such as robbery, arson, or murder. A prevailing indication is that increased awareness of campus crime leads to a reduction in campus crime (Zhang, Musu-Gillette, & Oudekerk, 2016). Between 2001 and 2013, the overall number of crimes reported by postsecondary institutions decreased by 34 percent. However, the number of reported forcible sex crimes on campus increased during this period, from 2,200 in 2001 to 5,000 in 2011--a 126% increase (Zhang, Musu-Gillette, & Oudekerk, 2016). With the amendment of the Clery Act to include the Campus SaVe Act, reportable crime categories now also include domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (McCallion, 2014).

Beyond the federal requirement for accurately reporting sexual violence incidents along with aforementioned crime categories within the Clery Act, the American Council on Education (2014) notes the Clery Act's inclusion of the Campus SaVE Act also requires college administrators to now provide:

1. Specified information to the student body about the rights and options of students who are victims of sexual violence.

2. Specified information to the student body regarding institutional sexual violence policies and due process rights and procedures for accused and victimized students.

The Clery Act's inclusion of the Campus SaVE Act also requires administrators to implement and disclose programming that addresses sexual violence prevention (Office of Postsecondary Education, 2016). Specifically, the Clery Act now requires campus administrators to institute ongoing prevention programs that include risk-reduction tips and warning signs of abusive behavior (Duncan, 2014).

Problem Statement

Campus sexual violence transcends institutional type—private and public IHEs. Anderson (2016) performed an analysis of 2014 federal data on campus sexual violence. Derived from the analysis conducted by Anderson (2016), Table 1.1 indicates an even distribution between 10 public and private IHEs with the highest total of rape reports on their campuses in 2015:

Table 1.1

Institution Type and Reported Rape Occurrences

Name of School	Institution Type	Number of Campus Rapes
Brown Univ.	Private	43
Univ. of Connecticut	Public	43
Dartmouth College	Private	42
Wesleyan Univ.	Private	37
Univ. of Virginia	Public	35
Harvard University	Private	33
UNCC	Public	32
Rutgers Univ. (NB)	Public	32
Univ. of Vermont	Public	27
Stanford University	Private	26

Notes. UNCC = University of North Carolina at Charlotte; Rutgers Univ. (NB) = Rutgers—New Brunswick.

Given the brief existence of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, the perspectives of student conduct administrators at differing institution types, and the Act's ability to prevent sexual violence, remains unknown. The interplay of the Campus SaVE Act into the Clery Act and prevailing institutional policies warrants legal risk management judgment by institutional counsel and compliance officers and implicates a range of management steps (American Council on Education, 2014). Campuses, which continue to struggle with compliance, tend to make one person

solely responsible (Hurley, 2015). The in-house, IHE audit begins with entrance interviews with people responsible for campus security and discipline. The federal auditors then review the university crime log, incident reports, and all other documents relevant to campus crime during a specific period of time. IHEs are obligated to provide unlimited access to such records and information sources. Auditors may also conduct interviews with students, faculty, and staff after reviewing of documents. Amalgamating all of the documentary and interview information, OCR auditors issue a set of findings regarding the university's compliance with Clery Act requirements (Yung, 2015). Under the Clery Act, IHEs now face a minimum fine of \$54,789 for each violation in which an on-campus crime is not reported or inaccurately reported (Winn, 2017). In 2014, 55 IHEs were under investigation for possible violations of federal law over the handling of sexual violence complaints (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

Of previous research studies that have evaluated sexual misconduct prevention programs on campus, virtually none have demonstrated effectiveness in reducing the risk or prevalence of rape on college campuses (Hollander, 2014). Karjane, Fisher, and Cullen (2002) believe that some college administrators have previously and wrongfully placed the onus of sexual misconduct prevention training on college women by identifying women as the central agents of change:

Institutes of higher education unintentionally condone victim blaming when they circulate materials that focus primarily on the individual victim's responsibility to avoid sexual assault without balancing this risk

management information with prevention education targeted toward men that stress the perpetrator's responsibility for committing the crime. (p. xi)

Adding to the challenges administrators face in the implementation of federal guidelines, the 2017 Trump administration reversed components of the Obama administration's federal guidelines about sexual violence occurring at IHEs. The interim guidance from the Trump administration provides IHEs with the right to deviate from the preponderance of evidence standard, established by the Obama administration, to find a student responsible for perpetrating sexual violence against another student (Jackson, 2017). The interim guidance allows administrators to instead utilize a higher standard of evidence--clear-and-convincing-evidence standard--to find a student responsible for perpetrating sexual violence (Jackson, 2017). With IHEs now having the option to use a higher standard of evidence, this may ultimately impact the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act and the number of cases reported on crime reports. The 2017 interim guidance from the federal government could discourage students from reporting assaults and create uncertainty for school administrators on how to follow the law; thus, making campuses less safe (Saul & Taylor, 2017).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Specifically, the study examined administrative differences at public and private IHEs related to contemporary federal guidance for

sexual violence. Further, the study will explore participants' levels of competency and practitioner readiness to facilitate new federally mandated initiatives related to campus sexual violence. Through this study's findings, the field of student conduct administration can identify professional development needs to work towards increased federal compliance, eliminating federal fines for Clery Act violations, and creating safer campus communities absent of sexual violence.

Student conduct administrators' differing perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence have implications that distinguishable into four areas of examination for this study. The categories include 1) administrative caseload; 2) administrative facilitation of procedural and safety awareness efforts; 3) administrators' perceptions of campus community safety; 4) administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act. The Campus SaVE Act's requirement for IHEs to report additional sexual violence related campus crimes, such as stalking formed the basis of exploring administrative caseload in this study. The Campus SaVE Act's requirement for IHE's to adhere to reporting procedures and to create primary prevention programmatic initiatives framed the study's examination of the administrative facilitation of procedural and safety awareness. The study's purpose to examine differences between administrators based on institutional type provided the foundation to explore administrators' perceptions of campus community safety and effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Thus, the following questions guided the research:

1. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type?
2. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type?
3. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type?
4. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type?

Overview of Methodology

This non-experimental study was conducted to evaluate dependence between categorical variables identified in the research questions using quantitative methodology. The research setting was online-based, with an examination of participants affiliated with hundreds of IHEs across the country. All participants

were members of the Association for Student Conduct Administrators (hereafter ASCA). With over 1,600 members representing over 700 IHEs, ASCA is the only organization dedicated solely to the advancement of student conduct administration (Dowd, 2012). The researcher chose members of ASCA given that ASCA serves as the primary professional association for student affairs personnel who provide student conduct administration to their respective campuses (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). After obtaining approval from Gregory and Janosik (2003), members of ASCA received a survey created from a modified version of the original 2003 survey. The approved modifications to the initial Gregory and Janosik survey did not significantly impact the survey's validity and reliability. Because the study captured nominal data, Chi-square tests for independence analyzed data tabulations.

The researcher used chi-square tests for independence. Table 1.2 shows the null and alternative hypotheses that were used to test each research question:

Table 1.2

Null and Alternative Hypotheses

Research Questions	Null Hypotheses	Alternative Hypotheses
Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type?	Institution type and administrative caseload are not dependent.	Institution type and administrative caseload are dependent.
Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are the administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type?	Institution type and administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness are not dependent.	Institution type and administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness are dependent.
Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type?	Institution type and the administrative perceptions of campus community safety are not dependent.	Institution type and the administrative perceptions of campus community safety are dependent.
Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type?	Institution type and administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act are dependent.	Institution type and administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act are dependent.

Rationale and Significance

In 2003, Gregory and Janosik surveyed 1,143 members of the Association for Student Judicial Affairs (now known as ASCA) to examine the relationship between the Clery Act and campus judicial practices (p.765). Gregory and Janosik (2003) conducted their study several years before the 2014 Campus SaVE Act amendment to

the Clery Act. Through the use of a modified survey, based on one created by Gregory and Janosik in 2003, with current ASCA members, the researcher could examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. The study intended to aid the field of student conduct administration by identifying professional developmental needs to work towards increased federal compliance, eliminating federal fines for Clery Act violations, and creating safer campus communities absent of sexual violence.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher's interests in contemporary guidance for campus sexual violence stemmed from working in higher education, specifically in student conduct administration. After progressively responsible career experiences at the University of Louisville, Radford University, Plymouth State University, Dean College, and Stanford University, the researcher works at Foothill College as Dean of Student Affairs and Activities during the time of the study. Transitioning to various IHEs ultimately led the researcher to question whether enough was being done to prevent and adjudicate sexual violence. Today's colleges and universities are heavily regulated and held to standards unseen before; failure to comply with such regulations can have disastrous repercussions on an institution's reputation and a significant financial impact due to fines and penalties imposed (Hurley, 2015). The researcher desired for the results of the study to aid fellow student conduct administrators in navigating federal guidance that seeks to eradicate sexual violence. The role of the researcher was

to evaluate dependence between categorical variables as identified in the research questions. The researcher distributed the survey instrument to participants of the study. The researcher collected data from the participants' responses to the survey instrument. The researcher analyzed the data using Chi-square tests for independence. Based on the results of the Chi-square analyses, the researcher generated discussion points, limitations, and conclusions from the study.

Researcher Assumptions

Based on the data in Table 1 that indicated similar rates of campus sexual violence between public and private institutions, the researcher believed that institution type did not differentiate administrators' perceptions on contemporary federal guidance. Regardless of institution type, the researcher thought that student conduct administrators are confused about how to comply with fluctuating federal guidance. The researcher also believed that student conduct administrators, to a large extent, do not feel competent in facilitating federal guidance on their respective campuses and thereby feel that campus sexual violence is a prominent issue. Ultimately the researcher believed that student conduct administrators are not able to comply with federally mandated policies and programmatic efforts intended to prevent sexual violence at IHEs.

Definition of Key Terminology

The following section offers definitions of terms for greater understanding and clarity.

Association for Student Conduct Administration [ASCA]

This niche organization provides resources and training for professionals with an interest or professional responsibility in student conduct administration or conflict resolution (DeBowes, 2014).

Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act

Known as the Campus SaVE Act, this legislation is the most significant reform of policy on how colleges handle sexual assaults since the Clery Act. The SaVE Act requires that schools provide victims with contact information for legal assistance and counseling and health services. The law also requires student conduct administrators to receive annual training, and to expand campus crime reports to include reports of stalking and domestic violence (Kingkade, 2013).

Clery Act

The Clery Act is the federal consumer right-to-know legislation that addresses campus security. The full title of the act is the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (DeBowes, 2014).

Institute of Higher Education [IHE]

For this study, a college or university in the United States that is, in part, federally funded and thereby under the compliance of the United States Department of Education and applicable laws, policies, and guidance established by the federal government.

Private Institute of Higher Education

A private IHE is an independent school, college or university that sets its policies and goals and is (in part) privately funded (Peterson's Staff, 2017).

Public Institute of Higher Education

A public IHE is a college or university primarily funded by a state government. Public colleges and universities tend to be larger than private IHEs and have larger class sizes (Homeland Security, 2016).

Student Conduct Administrators

Professional staff members employed by a college or university who is responsible for resolving alleged violations of behavioral policies through the campus's established procedures (DeBowes, 2014). These staff members' responsibilities may include roles such as a vice president for student affairs, dean of students, Title IX coordinator or investigator, student conduct officer, or residence hall director.

Sexual Violence

Sexual violence incorporates a range of behaviors. These behaviors can include sexual assault, unwanted touching, grabbing, rubbing, sexual harassment, intimate partner violence, stalking, voyeurism, and any other conduct of a sexual nature that is nonconsensual or has the purpose or effect of forcing, threatening, intimidating, or coercing a person (Yale, 2016). As a way to reflect the various state codes, the federal agencies broadly define terms such as sexual assault and rape. The United States Department of Justice (2015) describes *sexual assault* as sexual behavior or sexual contact that occurs without explicit consent. The United States Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation (2012), defines *rape* as nonconsensual vaginal, oral, or anal penetration with any body part or object. Despite

the definitions provided by the federal government, specific laws about sexual misconduct remain the under the jurisdiction of each state's legislature.

Title IX

The principal objective of Title IX is to avoid the use of federal money to support sex discrimination in education programs and to provide individual citizens' protection against those practices. Title IX applies, with a few specific exceptions, to all aspects of federally funded education programs or activities (United States Department of Justice, n.d.).

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation has five chapters. Chapter One has included an introduction to the problem and an overview of the study's potential contributions to the field of higher education. Chapter Two provides a synopsis of literature focusing on sexual violence and campus sexual violence, federal guidance for campus sexual violence and prevention efforts, institution type in higher education, student conduct administrative practices, and the study's conceptual framework. Chapter Three outlines the methodology and research design. Chapter Four includes the findings from the data analyses. Chapter Five includes a discussion of the findings and recommendations for future studies. The document concludes with a reference list and appendices.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

This study examined student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Campus sexual misconduct perpetration is a statistically prevalent issue for Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) across the United States of America. Robers, Kemp, Rathbun, Morgan, and Snyder (2014) found the numbers of reported sexual misconduct incidents on campus increased by 52 percent, from 2,200 in 2001 to 3,300 in 2011. The majority of victims who report campus sexual violence are college women, and the majority of perpetrators are college men who are acquaintances of their victims (Black et al. 2011). Edwards et al. (2014) noted that in their study, women most commonly identified perpetrators as steady dating partners (43%), followed by friends (22%), casual dating partners (18%), acquaintances (10%), strangers (6%), and "other" (2%). In an earlier study, up to sixty percent of college men admitted to sexually coercive behavior (Berkowitz, 1992). Another study found that by the time college students were in their junior and senior years, about a third of the women reported having been victims and about a third of the men reported having been perpetrators (Finley & Corty, 1993). In a more recent study, college men's self-reported perpetration of sexually aggressive acts suggests incident rates of thirty-five percent over a four-year period (Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011). The onus of protecting college students from sexual violence lies on the student conduct administrators of their respective IHEs.

Regarding the current deficiencies in response to sexual misconduct from IHEs, Iverson (2016) indicated, “The work done by higher education institutions to prevent sexual violence on their campuses has historically been carried out in a reactionary manner to incidents on campus or federal mandates” (p.4). IHEs have largely accepted that sexual violence is an unavoidable issue on college campuses, as noted here:

Colleges and universities are increasingly reliant on bystander intervention programs due to federal mandates to implement them as part of a broader anti-sexual violence strategy. Such prevention programming, while rightfully unifying the campus community in its obligation to prevent violence, also sustains the notion that sexual violence is an inevitable part of campus life. (Iverson, 2016, p. 1)

In 2014, former President Obama observed what he described as lack of ownership among campus leaders in preventing sexual misconduct. He stated, “Although schools have made progress in addressing rape and sexual assault, more needs to be done to ensure safe, secure environments for students of higher education (Obama, 2014).”

While previous studies have focused on quantifying sexual violence prevalence rates, much less has been written about exploring the role student conduct administrators play in developing institutional strategies for mitigating campus sexual violence (Iverson, 2016). As aforementioned, this study proposed the use of a modified version of a 2003 survey to gather responses from student conduct administrators. Specifically, the researcher sought to examine the responses of

administrators, by institutional type, in the wake of recent federal mandates for IHEs related to campus sexual violence. Thereby, the researcher proposed a quantitative study that utilized a nominal level of measurement. The researcher analyzed data tabulation through frequency distribution. This chapter provides the literature review for this study covering the following topics: sexual violence and campus sexual violence, federal guidance for campus sexual violence and prevention efforts, and student conduct administration.

Overview of Sexual Violence

Federal and state legislative bodies use various terms, which are often interchangeable, to define sexual violence. The variations in current terminology used to identify sexual violence stem from past legislation intended to broaden the spectrum of sex crimes. Bohmer and Parrot (1993) stated the following:

Traditional rape law only applied to male-female forced vaginal intercourse. In the 1970s, as part of the women's movement, there was an effort to have rape laws revised so that they would be more sensitive to what really happened, more gender-neutral, and less punitive toward women. It was believed that such changes would help rectify the situation in which rape had the lowest conviction rate of any felony. To achieve this goal, some states changed their statutes so that the term rape was replaced by the term sexual assault, usually separated into several degrees of seriousness. Other states kept the term rape but applied it

more broadly. For these reasons, it is impossible to give an exact legal definition of rape. (p. 4)

This historical context to rape reform law—that is, how legal or criminal terminology defines sexual violence since the 1970s—created increased ambiguity to what types of behavior constituted sexual violence. Although the federal government intended to clarify this ambiguity by broadening the spectrum of what constituted sexually violent behavior, the expansion of scope instead created more uncertainty. Although several research studies have attempted to differentiate what factors influence sexual assault victims in labeling their experiences as rape or something else, few clear-cut relationships have emerged (Kahn, Jackson, Kully, Badger, & Halvorsen, 2003). In studies that have examined the impact of rape reform laws, major cities such as Houston and Chicago have not shown an increase in rape reports by victims or an increase in the rate of conviction or incarceration for those accused of sexual violence (Goldberg-Ambrose, 1992).

Research conducted in a national survey concluded women experience significantly more sexual misconduct than men, with 1,323 of 8,000 women surveyed reporting rape or attempted rape (Tjaden & Thoennes, p. 6, 1998). Of the women who reported rape or attempted rape, 61.8% of the incidents occurred by the age of 24 (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Men perpetrate 93% of sexual misconduct against women, with most victims having some form of relationship with the perpetrator (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Therefore, sexual misconduct is predominantly a crime against youth—specifically young women.

Thirty-one percent of rape victims experience some form of injury requiring medical care (Tjaden & Thoennes, p. 9, 1998). Natural, unconditional responses to this painful, and potentially life-threatening, unconditioned stimuli are feelings of terror and autonomic symptoms of extreme anxiety (Kilpatrick, Veronen, & Best, 1985). When compared to non-abused matched control subjects, sexual violence victims were found to be significantly more depressed, generally anxious, and fearful than control subjects (Santiago, McCall-Perez, Gorcey, & Beigel, 1985). Rape survivors are the largest group of persons with post-traumatic stress disorder (Campbell & Wasco, 2005). The loss of trust and interpersonal trauma experienced by sexual assault survivors make these victims have higher levels of PTSD symptoms than survivors of motor-vehicle accidents and those placed in a bereavement group (Shakespeare-Finch & Armstrong, 2010). Sexual violence victims with PTSD have a lowered ability to relate to others, a lessened appreciation for life, and diminished perception of personal strength (Shakespeare-Finch & Armstrong, 2010).

The conceptualization of sexually aggressive behavior as a product of cultures that tolerate, accept, or reward sexual aggression dominates discussions about sexual misconduct (Hall & Barongan, 1997). Sexual assault perpetrators are a very heterogeneous group (Greathouse, Saunders, Matthews, Keller, & Miller, 2015). The most commonly studied contributors to the perpetration of sexual assault can be grouped into those related to the experience of child abuse, previous sexual behavior, interpersonal skill deficits, gender-related attitudes, perceptions of peer behavior, and substance abuse (Greathouse et al., 2015). Additional research has revealed that an

accurate percentage of men who have admitted to reporting sexual misconduct is skewed, as men do not admit enough sexual aggression to account for the number of victimizations reported by women (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987).

Overview of Campus Sexual Violence

As aforementioned in Chapter One, very few college victims of rape (3.2%) or attempted rape (2.3%) report their victimization to the police or campus authorities (Karjane et al., 2002). Active support of friends was found to be the primary factor that distinguishes those victims who report and those who do not report sexual misconduct victimization (Karjane et al., 2002). Some students may not acknowledge or understand what types of behavior may constitute sexual misconduct or sexual violence (Warren et al., 2015). Defining campus sexual misconduct, or sexual violence, is a matter of semantics. Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black, and Mahendra (2014) found that there is a lack of consensus amongst researchers for defining campus sexual misconduct and its components.

The lack of consistent definitions has hindered prior campus sexual misconduct research efforts (Basile et al., 2014). In a historical context for defining sexual misconduct, Crocker (1983) noted, “No definition will be absolutely complete—it is extremely difficult to encompass every dimension of a problem we are still learning about” (p. 697). Karjane, Fisher, and Cullen (2002) found that without a standard definition of sexual misconduct in place, a college likely relies on federal language and language of state laws, applicable to the school’s geographical location. In a more recent study, Koss, Wilgus, and Williamsen (2014) listed 42 specific acts

that constitute sexual misconduct or some form of sexual violence at IHEs. The definition of several co-terms is necessary to delimit the types of behavior that embody sexual misconduct.

The 42 types of sexual misconduct labeled by Koss et al. (2014) relied upon the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss et al., 2007) and the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (Fitzgerald et al., 1999). Warren et al. (2015) also used the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss et al., 2007) and Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (Fitzgerald et al., 1999) to ask the male participants to rate the frequency with which they have perpetrated sexual aggression. The researchers also used the survey to ask respondents which violation took place (e.g., verbal pressure, showing displeasure or getting angry, through intoxication, the threat of physical harm, or by actual use of force). Similarly, this study relied on the surveys of Koss et al. (2007) and Fitzgerald et al. (1999) to create inquiries about sexual misconduct that research participants answered in the study's survey. Appendix A, created to clarify the vagueness of legal definitions of sexual violence and to identify the spectrum of occurrences that federal guidelines require student conduct administrators at IHE's to handle, lists the distinct types of sexual misconduct referenced by Koss et al. (2014).

Male Student-Athletes and Sexual Misconduct Perpetration

Incidences of student-athlete violence against women have been at the forefront of the media during the last decade (McCray, 2014). Almost yearly, there is a major, highly publicized case involving [campus athletes'] sexual violence (Forouzan, 2016). Empirical research has identified college male athletes to be at particularly high

risk for sexual misconduct perpetration. Athletes are involved in sexual abuse of someone of the opposite sex more often than non-athletes (Chandler, Johnson, & Carroll, 1999). McCray (2014) found the following:

Crosset, Ptacek, McDonald, and Benedict (1996) examined the incidences of sexual assault reported to campus judicial affairs. In their study of 10 judicial affairs offices during a three-year period, they found an overrepresentation of male student-athletes as perpetrators of sexual assault and battering ...Of the 10 participating schools, 35% of the perpetrators of sexual assault and battering were student-athletes, though they comprised only 3% of the student body. (p. 2)

In a study by Young et al. (2016), college male athletes reported perpetrating sexual misconduct at a rate 16.4% higher than non-athlete college men who participated in the same study. Young et al. (2016) found 54.3% of surveyed male athletes admitted to sexual misconduct perpetration, compared to 37.9% of non-athlete college men.

The association of high risks for sexual misconduct perpetration is inclusive of college men who once participated in person-to-person contact high school sports such as football, wrestling, and basketball. Forbes, Adams-Curtis, Pakalka, and White (2006), separated participants into three categories. These categories include those who involved in person-to-person contact high school sports (football, basketball, wrestling, and soccer); those involved in non-contact high school sports; and those who did not participate in any high school sports. Forbes et al. (2006) found:

Although it is of theoretical importance to demonstrate that participation in

aggressive high school sports is associated with the attitudes and values men have as college freshmen, from a practical perspective it is much more important to know if participation in aggressive high school sports is related to aggressive and sexually coercive behaviors in college. Our results strongly indicate that this is the case ... The results are all consistent with the hypothesis that high school exposure often associated with aggressive sports influences the likelihood of men engaging in dating aggression and sexual coercion when they reach college. (pp. 450-451)

Athletic opponents are intended to be adversaries, but problems arise when men also view sexual relationships as adversarial (Parrot, Cummings, Marchell, & Hofher, 1994). In 2016, a freshman male intercollegiate swimmer, Brock Turner, was found guilty on three felony accounts for sexually assaulting an unconscious and intoxicated young woman outside a fraternity house on the Stanford University campus (Knowles, 2016). Turner's victim wrote a letter that she read to the perpetrator in court. The letter included the following statement (Baker, 2016)

You are the cause; I am the effect. You have dragged me through this hell with you, dipped me back into that night again and again. You knocked down both our towers, I collapsed at the same time you did. If you think I was spared, came out unscathed, that today I ride off into the sunset, while you suffer the greatest blow, you are mistaken. Nobody wins. We have all been devastated; we have all been trying to find some meaning in all of this suffering. Your damage was concrete; stripped of titles, degrees, enrollment. My damage was

internal, unseen; I carry it with me. You took away my worth, my privacy, my energy, my time, my safety, my intimacy, my confidence, my own voice, until today.

While male-student-athletes have been at the forefront of news stories related to campus sexual misconduct, cases of sexual violence perpetration do not remain isolated to male student-athletes. In fact, contrary to previously mentioned studies, Crosset, Benedict, and McDonald (1995) indicate that male student-male athletes are at no greater risk to perpetrate sexual violence than other college men. Although the findings of the study by Crosset, Benedict, and McDonald (1995) document the overrepresentation of male student-athletes in reports of sexual assault to student conduct administrators, the differences between student-athletes and other male students are statistically significant only when it comes to the number of incidents reported. Given the visibility and high-profile status some male student-athletes have, the study suggests student-male athletes are often more targeted.

Normative Masculinity and Sexual Misconduct

Sexual violence perpetration by some college men appears most associated with normative perspectives on masculinity. Previous research indicated college men who subscribe to traditional sex roles and male sexual dominance seem more likely than are other men to engage in verbal sexual coercion, sexual assault, and rape (Parrot et al., 1994). Muehlenhard and Falcon (1990) administered questionnaires to 1,152 male introductory psychology students to examine the behaviors of some college men. The research participants completed anonymous self-report measures of

(a) heterosocial skill, (b) attitudes toward women, and (c) involvement with verbal and physical sexual coercion (Muehlenhard & Falcon, 1990). Muehlenhard and Falcon (1990) found:

Results showed that heterosocially skilled men were more likely than unskilled men to have engaged in verbal sexual coercion, but heterosocial skill was unrelated to forceful rape. Men who accepted traditional gender roles or male sexual dominance were more likely than other men to have engaged in both verbal sexual coercion and forceful rape. (p. 1)

Their study affirms that while social skills or the lack thereof may differentiate the degree of perpetrated sexual misconduct, the acceptance of traditional sex roles is the most significant determinant of sexually violent behavior. Kimmel's (2008) research examined how college men's acceptance of traditional sex roles correlate with college men's emotional development. Kimmel (2008) discussed whether college men's development relates to perpetrating sexual misconduct or whether intentionality comprises a part of sexual misconduct perpetration:

Some argue that sexual exploitation is a masculine trait, that men are hardwired from millennia of evolution to try and get over on someone for personal gain; that having sex with as many women as possible, with or without their consent, is the most successful strategy for ensuring your own genetic immortality. Of course, there are some evolutionary imperatives, deeply ingrained from millennia of adaptation. But while evolution may explain the largest scale patterns of human interaction, there is no possible way

that it explains what will happen this weekend at that fraternity party on campus at State or Tech. There is, after all, such a thing, equally imperative from an evolutionary standpoint, which is called human agency, or, to be brief, choice. Rape is a choice, not a biological program. (p. 6).

Kimmel's (2008) finding that the decision to carry out sexually violent behavior is one of choice, reflects federal legislation that urges student conduct administrators at IHEs to create and facilitate prevention efforts. The federal government's imposition of guidance for IHEs has spanned over 40 years with mixed results.

Federal Guidance on Sexual Misconduct for IHEs

Over the years, the government has engaged, via the creation of laws and policies, to respond to the call to action for preventing campus sexual misconduct. Title IX serves as the government's legal basis for campus sexual misconduct. Viewed as the foundational law for all matters related to campus sexual misconduct, "Title IX promotes equal opportunity by stating that no person shall be discriminated against on the basis of sex in any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Kiss & White, 2015, p. 100). Title IX is a federal law, applicable to all institutions that receive federal funding, prohibiting all forms of sexual harassment including sexual violence (Office for Civil Rights, 2015). In 1972, the U.S. Congress' passing of Title IX, as part of the Education Amendments to Civil Rights Act of 1964, was considered a historic achievement (Valentin, 1997).

Despite Congress enacting Title IX in 1972, the Department of Education Office for Civil Rights did not implement specific guidelines for schools about sex-

based harassment until 1997 (Baker, 1994). The Office for Civil Rights (1997) issued the *Sexual Harassment Guidance* to enable school administrators to identify sexual harassment and inform administrators on appropriate investigative procedures. In 1997, the Office for Civil Rights created a high threshold for what could be considered sexual misconduct in a school setting. The *Sexual Harassment Guidance* stated the following:

In order to give rise to a complaint under Title IX, sexual harassment must be sufficiently severe, persistent, or pervasive that it adversely affects a student's education or creates a hostile or abusive educational environment. For a one-time incident to rise to the level of harassment, it must be severe. (Office for Civil Rights, 1997, para. 6)

In 1997, types of sexual misconduct such as verbal coercion, heckling, stalking, and unwanted touching were not student occurrences the federal government specifically required IHEs to address. The guidance suggested that only the most severe types of sexual misconduct, such as forcible rape, were deemed sexually violent and thus limited the scope of the term *harassment*. Furthermore, the *Sexual Harassment Guidance* of 1997 did not prescribe, or outline procedures schools should follow regarding prevention programming for sexual misconduct.

The Office for Civil Rights followed up 1997's *Sexual Harassment Guidance* with 2001's *Revised Sexual Harassment Guidance: Harassment of Students by School Employees, Other Students, or Third Parties*. The revision intended to clarify Title IX guidelines and further explain procedures schools should take when handling reports

of sexual harassment. With the intent of clarification, the revised guidance defines sexual harassment as unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature (Office for Civil Rights, 2001). In the document, the Office for Civil Rights acknowledges that various stakeholders had requested clearer administrative definitions as to what constitutes unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature. Regarding the request, *The Revised Sexual Harassment Guidance: Harassment of Students by School Employees, Other Students, or Third Parties* stated the following:

One commenter urged OCR to provide distinct definitions of sexual harassment to be used in administrative enforcement as distinguished from criteria used to maintain private actions for monetary damages. We disagree . . . Schools benefit from consistency and simplicity in understanding what is sexual harassment for which the school must take responsive action. A multiplicity of definitions would not serve this purpose. (Office for Civil Rights, 2001, pp. v-vi)

The Office for Civil Rights' unwillingness to provide clear definitions left educators and schools without specific federal guidance for administrative enforcement. Furthermore, insight into sexual misconduct prevention programming is not evident in the revised document.

The next set of guidelines issued by the Office for Civil Rights on sexual misconduct in the college setting came in 2004. Marcus (2004) released the Dear Colleague letter, *Title IX Grievance Procedures, Postsecondary Education*. Observing that many IHEs had not complied with Title IX's requirement for each school to designate a Title IX coordinator and notify the campus community of the individual

serving in this capacity, the Office for Civil Rights issued a letter to clarify IHEs responsibilities in this matter (Marcus, 2004). The letter identifies the duties of the Title IX coordinator as “investigating complaints communicated to the recipient alleging noncompliance with Title IX” (Marcus, 2004, para. 3) but offers no further guidance or details regarding the responsibilities of a Title IX coordinator or guidance on prevention education for sexual misconduct.

The United States Department of Education would wait seven more years to give additional guidance related to sexual misconduct for institutions receiving federal aid. In 2011, the Office for Civil Rights would issue guidance that would change the landscape of sexual misconduct in higher education. As aforementioned, the federal government’s vested interest in campus sexual violence was in response to the public’s escalated attention to the victimization of women in general and concern for criminal activity on college campuses (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). The former Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights, Russlynn Ali (2011), issued the *2011 Dear Colleague Letter*. The issuance of the guidance was the Office for Civil Rights’ first time providing administrative definitions related to sexual misconduct—a request from schools the Office for Civil Rights had denied ten years earlier. Ali (2011) authored the term *sexual violence* in the *Dear Colleague Letter*. “Sexual violence, as that term is used in this letter, refers to physical sexual acts perpetrated against a person’s will or where a person is incapable of giving consent due to the victim’s use of drugs or alcohol” (Ali, 2011, p. 1). The issuance of the *2011 Dear Colleague Letter*

is also the first time the government outlines recommended prevention efforts to be taken by colleges:

In addition to ensuring full compliance with Title IX, schools should take proactive measures to prevent sexual harassment and violence. OCR recommends that all schools implement preventive education programs and make victim resources, including comprehensive victim services, available. Schools may want to include these education programs in their (1) orientation programs for new students, faculty, staff, and employees; (2) training for students who serve as advisors in residence halls; (3) training for student athletes and coaches; and (4) school assemblies and “back to school nights.” These programs should include a discussion of what constitutes sexual harassment and sexual violence, the school’s policies and disciplinary procedures, and the consequences of violating these policies. (Ali, 2011, pp.14-15)

The 2011 Dear Colleague Letter came nearly 40 years after the enacting of Title IX. Given the contemporary issuance of the guidance, the impact on IHEs remains unknown and a focus of this study. Aspects of the Dear Colleague Letter interface with the Clery Act.

Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics

Act

On April 5, 1986, Jeanne Ann Clery, a freshman at Lehigh University, was brutally raped and murdered in her dormitory room by a classmate (Kiss, 2013). After

Jeanne's death, her parents learned that 38 violent offenses, such as rape and assault, had occurred on Lehigh's campus around the time of Clery's admission into the university (Kiss, 2013). In not being made aware of these criminal acts occurring on campus, the Clerys felt that the institution denied their right to be informed about the safety of the institution. The Clerys sued the institution and used funds awarded from the lawsuit to create the Security On Campus national organization to lobby for state and federal legislation that would inform prospective and current students of crime rates at respective IHEs (Kiss, 2013).

Congress passed the Clery Act in 1990; as doing so was deemed a necessity due to perceived increases in juvenile crime in society and on college campuses (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). The Act's primary purpose is to require college administrators to report, in a consistent manner, incidents of campus crime (Jansosik, 2004). The Clery Act enumerates several categories of crime against persons and property. Crimes against persons include murder, forcible or non-forcible sex offenses, robbery, aggravated assault, assault, intimidation, manslaughter and other crimes including injury based on race, gender, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, or disability. Crimes against property include burglary, motor vehicle theft, arson, liquor law violations, drug-related violations, and weapons possessions, larceny-theft; simple assault; intimidation; destruction, damage, or vandalism of property (Gardella et al., 2015).

Previous research efforts document limitations of the Clery Act. From a methodological standpoint, there are concerns about accuracy and reliability stemming

from the tabulation of what is ostensibly “campus crime” (Nobles, Fox, Khey, & Lizotte, 2012). For example, campus law enforcement agencies collect data to satisfy the Clery Act requirements and, consequently, only reflect crimes known to the police (Nobles et al., 2012). With the probability that campus crime, such as sexual violence, may not be accurately reflected in Clery Act statistics, subjective risk on the part of students might be dangerously deflated (Wilcox, Jordan, & Pritchard, 2007). In addition to the Clery Act only capturing crime reported to the police, observing official reports of on-campus crime at the institutional level neglects an understanding of student-perpetrated offense versus that of non-student predation targeting students or the institution itself (Nobles, Fox, Khey, & Lizotte, 2012).

Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act

The Clery Act has been amended several times to expand the reporting requirements and clarify how college administrators report campus crime (Janosik, 2004). The Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (Campus SaVE) went into effect, as the most recent amendment to the Clery Act, on July 1, 2015 (Friedfel & Tamburri, 2015). The Campus SaVE Act requirement for IHEs to possess campus sexual misconduct prevention programs is a recent legislative action that unifies the legal mandates of Title IX with the reporting mandates of the Clery Act. The Campus SaVE Act defines prevention as programming and strategies intended to stop domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking before it occurs through the changing of social norms and other approaches. The act defined risk reduction as options for recognizing warning signs of abusive behavior, and how to

avoid potential attacks (as cited in Coker et al., 2015).

The recent implementation of the Campus SaVE Act means that little is known about the efficacy of such programs to prevent sexual misconduct (Coker et al., 2015). The examination of results from rigorous research (Banyard et al., 2007; Christensen, 2015; Foshee et al., 2000; McCaughey & Cermele, 2015), which predates recent legislation, indicates that prevention efforts for campus sexual misconduct have fluctuated in their levels of success and impact upon respective campus communities.

Campus Prevention Efforts for Sexual Misconduct

In an exhaustive review of empirical research conducted on school prevention efforts for sexual misconduct, DeGue (2014) notes, “Only two primary prevention strategies, to date, have demonstrated significant reductions in sexual violence behaviors using a rigorous evaluation design. Both programs were developed for and implemented with middle school students” (p. 5). The *Safe dates* (Foshee et al., 2000) program entails a multi-session curriculum addressing attitudes, social norms, healthy relationship skills, a 45-minute play about dating violence, and a poster contest. A rigorous evaluation indicated students in the intervention group were less likely to be victims or perpetrators of sexual violence (DeGue, 2014). *Shifting boundaries*, a program intended for sixth-grade students addresses policy and safety concerns in schools through the use of temporary building-based restraining orders, a poster campaign to increase awareness of dating violence, and hotspot mapping to identify unsafe areas of the school for increased monitoring (DeGue, 2014). While *Shifting boundaries* indicates success in reducing victimization and perpetration of

sexual harassment and sexual violence victimization, the program did not prove effective in reducing sexual violence perpetration (DeGue, 2014). Given that *Safe Dates* and *Shifting Boundaries* were intended for middle school programs and to date, have not been implemented at the college level or formulated to the college environment, there is no research to indicate the level success the respective programs would have within institutes of higher education.

In the higher education environment, noteworthy primary prevention efforts have focused on increasing college students' awareness of sexual misconduct. In summarizing the philosophical approach many colleges have taken in creating prevention programs, Christensen (2015) offered the following:

A core belief guiding these interventions is that most men do not perpetrate sexual assault and value preventing the violence but have not been taught the values and skills necessary to become change agents. Many scholars hypothesize that if we teach young men how to actively participate in sexual violence prevention, this will transform cultural values and interpersonal behaviors that perpetuate a rape culture. (p. 196)

Aligned with a philosophical belief that college men with increased awareness equates to a decrease in campus sexual violence, Christensen conducted a qualitative investigation into the creation of a theatrical play. The premise of the play was the following:

This presentation was a 45-minute drama set in present day on a university

campus. The main character was a popular female college student (Rebecca) who attended a party one night expecting to meet new people and have fun. She met a male college student (Brad) with whom she was acquainted and agreed to go up to his room and listen to music. Brad attempted to seduce Rebecca without success, so Brad raped Rebecca. (Christensen, 2015, p. 199)

The audience for the play consisted of 23 male students recruited from various student groups, residence halls, and fraternities within a large, public institution. The author utilized two methods of data collection for this study: field notes and focus group interviews (Christensen, 2015). The study produced three analytical categories: male role models, assuming is dangerous, and fear of being misunderstood (Christensen, 2015). Specifically, regarding male role models, “These male students appreciated witnessing fellow college students model skills that can be used to challenge sexual violence” (Christensen, 2015, p. 203). Regarding the second category of *assuming is dangerous*, “This theme portrays the wide variety of beliefs on how people consent to have sex ... Data analysis revealed that many male students grappled with how consent to have sex is assumed between two people; it is an implicit process, rarely explicit” (Christensen, 2015, p. 203). The *fear of being misunderstood* revealed, “male students wish to be understood by women and to develop skills that will help them navigate intimate exchanges that are power-laden and based upon intersecting identities” (Christensen, 2015, p. 205).

Christensen’s implementation of a theatrical play to reduce sexual misconduct was deemed as unsuccessful by Christensen herself. Based on some of the male participants beginning to watch pornography during the field group

interview, Christensen stated, “The original problem may have been exacerbated by the presentation” (Christensen, 2015, p. 205).

One of the most utilized forms of primary prevention programming within campus environments has been bystander intervention (McCaughey & Cermele, 2015). The bystander approach is unique in engaging potential witnesses to violence rather than as possible victims or perpetrators (Coker et al., 2015). In 2014, the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault evaluated rigorous research conducted on the effectiveness of bystander intervention programs. The results of such research have been a mix of positive and null effects (DeGue, 2014).

The Green Dot bystander intervention program indicates that bystander intervention may reduce sexual misconduct. The Green Dot bystander intervention program was implemented in 2008 (Coker et al., 2015). The research conducted on the Green Dot intervention at the University of Kentucky consisted of 50-minute motivational speeches delivered by staff to first-year students throughout the academic year and intensive bystander intervention workshops for student leaders (Coker et al., 2015). The four-year study consisted of first-year students, whom researchers followed through their senior year. Participants completed surveys on “how frequently they had been victimized by or had perpetrated each of the following forms of violence: (1) unwanted sex, (2) sexual harassment, (3) stalking, and (4) physical and psychological dating violence” (Coker et al., 2015, p. 3). Over the course of four years, researchers compared the survey results from the University of Kentucky to two schools, similar in size and demographics that did not have an intervention program.

The study concluded, “violence rates were lower on Intervention versus Comparison campuses for unwanted sexual victimization, sexual harassment, stalking, and psychological dating violence victimization and perpetration” (Coker et al., 2015, p. 1). In most areas measured in the study, the violence percentage rates at the intervention campus are indeed lower than the comparison campuses; however, the intervention and comparison campuses’ rates for women reporting *physically forced sex* are identical (Coker et al. 2015, p. 4).

Bringing in the Bystander (Banyard et al., 2007) is another unique bystander intervention program at the college level intended for college students, consisting of a four-and-a-half-hour curriculum presented over the span of one to three sessions. (DeGue, 2014). DeGue’s evaluation of the intervention model noted the following:

This program provides participants with skills to help them act when they see behavior that puts others at risk for violence victimization or perpetration. These skills include speaking out against rape myths and sexist language, supporting victims, and intervening in potentially violent situations. Two rigorous evaluations with college student samples found a mix of positive and null effects on risk factors for sexual violence (including attitudes about violence and bystander skills, intentions and behavior) (DeGue, 2014, p. 7).

Research findings of *Bringing in the Bystander* indicated “significant increases in prosocial bystander attitudes, increased bystander efficacy, and increases in self-reported bystander behaviors (Banyard et al., 2007, p. 478). However, the study did not measure the sexual behavior of perpetrators (DeGue, 2014).

Bystander intervention programs have been met with skepticism by some researchers. McCaughey and Cermele's (2015) assessment of bystander intervention programs found the following:

Bystander intervention campaigns have become de rigeur on college campuses for sexual assault prevention education. Bystander intervention is mentioned explicitly in the recommendations of the White House Task Force and is there positioned as a form of primary prevention. In bystander intervention programs, college students are addressed as witnesses to sexual assault attempts and are encouraged to distract the would-be assailant and/or take the would-be victim away to a safe place. However, no information is provided to the likely victims about how to intervene on their own behalves as their own active bystanders (i.e., defend themselves) in cases where they are alone with their assailant(s) (p. 7).

The research findings of McCaughey and Cermele (2015) identify women learning self-defense tactics as an effective and more empowering methodology for reducing campus sexual violence. In contrast to bystander intervention programs, the authors advocate for women's utilization of self-defense as an effective approach to reducing campus sexual misconduct. McCaughey and Cermele (2015) stated, "Self-defense training not only increases women's chances of thwarting sexual assault but is also linked to positive well-being outcomes" (p. 4). Hollander (2014) conducted a study to examine the effectiveness of self-defense training for preventing sexual misconduct. One hundred seventeen women, from a college setting, participated in the

self-defense class and were compared to one hundred sixty-nine women at the same college not enrolled in the self-defense class (Hollander, 2014, p. 254). Hollander (2014) described the researched self-defense class as the following:

The self-defense class had been taught by the same female instructor for more than 20 years; it included training and practice in both physical and verbal self-defense, as well as academic study of issues related to violence against women. The class met for 3 hours per week over 10 weeks, and students also participated in a small group discussion that met for 1.5 hours per week. In class, students practiced physical techniques both in slow motion against other class members and full force against large pads held by class assistants. Students practiced verbal self-defense techniques in pairs and small groups, and there was also weekly discussion of the psychological and emotional aspects of self-defense (p. 255).

The results of the one-year study indicated that the women enrolled in the self-defense course, versus the comparative group, experienced less unwanted sexual contact, sexual coercion, and attempted rape, and rape (Hollander, 2014, p. 258). “These findings suggest that after taking a self-defense class, women are better able to discern the warning signs of assault, clearer about their own desires in an interaction, and more willing to speak and act on their own behalf, all elements that may reduce the odds of attempted or completed sexual assault” (Hollander, 2014, p. 265). Even with the success of the research, Hollander (2014) recognizes that educational programs for reducing sexual misconduct on college campuses must involve college

men. Hollander (2014) stated:

These findings should not be taken to imply that the burden for preventing sexual assault should lie with women. It is important to state clearly that just because women can defend themselves against violence, they are not responsible for preventing that violence. The responsibility for violence lies with perpetrators, and women should not be expected to prevent it, nor blamed if they do not or cannot do so. The best way to reduce rates of violence against women would be for perpetrators to stop committing it. (pp. 264-265)

Current prevention efforts for campus sexual misconduct are an array of programs and techniques that are limited in utilization and effectiveness. In 2014, the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault identified colleges in twenty-three states providing documented rape prevention and education (RPE) efforts (DeGue, 2014). In addition to colleges in twenty-seven states not providing documented sexual misconduct prevention education, the task force did not identify empirical evidence of programs exhibiting effectiveness for reducing sexual misconduct at the college level (DeGue, 2014). In hypothesizing for the unfounded effectiveness of current sexual misconduct programs, McCaughey and Cermele (2015) stated, “Many of the RPE efforts to protect students’ rights around sexual assault paradoxically appear to presuppose an assault has already been completed” (p. 8). Programmatic efforts that research supports in being effective, such as self-defense courses, have not garnered support from the federal legislature. The Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act does not define self-defense as a form of primary prevention

do not include self-defense, thus, has not mandated for schools to implement (McCaughey & Cermele, 2014). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2004) stated that a lack of research on self-defense training justifies self-defense training not being recognized as a form of primary prevention. Regarding what can be done to create programming on college campuses that can reduce sexual misconduct, DeGue (2014) stated the following:

More rigorous evaluation of prevention strategies with college-aged students is needed, but what we know now about the prevention of sexual violence perpetration has implications for immediate actions that college campuses can take. Identify opportunities to better understand the nature of sexual violence on your campus. This may include using existing data on reports of sexual violence or harassment, information from student surveys or focus groups, or other innovative approaches to gather or identify the most relevant risks and needs. Data can inform the selection of prevention strategies that best address the needs of students and key risk indicators. (p. 11).

Research from DeGue (2014) did indicate that a high school program entitled Coaching Boys Into Men could prove effective, based on the program's prevention approach (p. 7). The program evaluation assessed effectiveness as a primary prevention mechanism for reducing physical, sexual, and psychological aggression in adolescent romantic relationships (Miller et al., 2012). After receiving 1-hour training by a trained violence prevention advocate, high school athletic coaches led weekly,

15-minute discussions with athletes about respect about sexual behavior (Miller et al., 2012). The program asked a parallel group of coaches and student-athletes to customarily interact, without the additional guidance (Miller et al., 2012). While intentions to intervene in incidents of sexual misconduct were higher in the group receiving additional guidance, changes in gender-equitable attitudes, recognition of abusive behaviors, and domestic violence perpetration were not significant (Miller et al., 2012). Furthermore, the program focuses on high school students; thus, the impact the program would have in the college environment remains unknown.

Nevertheless, as aforementioned, the program's prevention approach of coaching could prove effective for institutes of higher education based on the program's alignment with the principles of effective prevention (DeGue, 2014). The principles of effective prevention include approaches that are comprehensive, possess varied teaching methods, sufficient dosages of intervention, are theory driven, include positive relationships, are appropriately timed, are socio-culturally relevant, possess and outcome evaluation, and is conducted by well-trained staff (Nation et al., 2003). The assessment from DeGue (2014) indicates coaching as a promising mechanism of prevention to identify opportunities to understand the nature of sexual misconduct on college campuses more fully. Student conduct administrators, as coaching practitioners, could become a role of student conduct administrators.

An Overview of Student Conduct Administration

In general, college administrators have diverse responsibilities. These responsibilities include making recommendations about admissions and the oversight of disbursement of university materials. Administrators also plan curricula; oversee all budgets from payroll to the maintenance of the physical plant; supervise personnel and keep track of university records including everything from student transcripts to library archives. Administrators can help students navigate the university bureaucracy for financial aid, housing, job placement, alumni development, and all the other services a college provides (Princeton Review, n.d.). In 1865, the average-sized university in the United States employed approximately four administrators for all its students. By 1965, the average administrative staff at a United States university averaged more than 225 people. Today the number is closer to 500 employees (Princeton Review, n.d.).

Many administrators eventually specialize in one field (Princeton Review, n.d.). For those administrators who specialize in student conduct administration, the fundamental purpose of student conduct work is to promote growth and development in students while protecting the interests of the larger campus community (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). Student conduct administrators are typically guided by their respective institution's student code of conduct. The student code of conduct typically includes expectations for academic integrity and behavioral policies that adhere to local, state, and federal law (Georgia State University, 2017).

Nearly 30 years ago, a group of educators founded the Association for Student

Judicial Affairs (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). The organization, now titled the Association for Student Conduct Administrators, is viewed as the premier professional organization for student conduct administrators (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). ASCA has over 2,000 members representing student conduct administrators from IHEs across the United States. As members of ASCA, student conduct administrators work to ensure that policies and procedures comply with legal and due process requirements (Association for Student Conduct Administration, n.d.). Student conduct administrators' critical role in Clery Act compliance highlights the extent to which they must demonstrate understanding of the Act's requirements and apply their knowledge to facilitate statistical reporting obligations (DeBowes, 2014). Vigilant enforcement efforts by the federal government, along with the steep penalties for non-compliance, also highlight the high stakes associated with compliance.

Previous studies on student conduct administrators have identified areas of concern. Before the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, DeBowes (2014) conducted a study to examine the level of knowledge student conduct administrators possessed regarding the Clery Act. DeBowes (2014) found that 99.3% of ASCA members could not correctly classify and score eight scenarios presented as part of a survey. The scenarios selected for inclusion in the study involved students referred for disciplinary action and incidents that would be reportable under the Clery Act (DeBowes, 2014). In concluding the study, the results demonstrated that student conduct administrators holding professional membership in ASCA knew very little regarding the statistical reporting obligations of the Clery Act (DeBowes, 2014).

DeBowes (2014) suggested ASCA should, therefore, provide dedicated training for this important area of federal compliance.

In 2003, Gregory and Janosik surveyed 1,143 members of the Association for Student Judicial Affairs (now known as ASCA) to examine the effect of the Clery Act on campus judicial practices (p.765). The following questions guided the 2003 survey conducted by Gregory and Janosik:

1. Has the Clery Act changed the nature of student judicial practice on American college and university campuses?
2. Has the Clery Act changed the relationship between campus law enforcement and campus judicial officers?
3. Has the Clery Act been effective in achieving its purposes as identified above?
(p. 765)

In the study, a majority of the student conduct administrators believed that students were aware of the Clery Act. A large plurality of the student conduct administrators in the study indicated that campus community relations with law enforcement had improved as a result of the Clery Act (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). However, most of the participants believed that campus safety programs and other material, mandated by the previous version of the Clery Act, were not effective in changing students' behavior (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). The researchers believe that there is a wide array of topics on campus crime and campus safety that merit additional research (Gregory & Janosik, 2003).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study centered on student conduct administrators' perceptions of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. The conceptual framework distinguishes administrative perceptions into four areas of examination. The first area of examination pertained to caseload for student conduct administrators. The second area of examination pertained to the administrative facilitation of procedural and safety awareness. The third area of examination pertained to administrative perceptions of campus community safety. The fourth area pertained to administrative perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act. Each area of examination for administrators' perceptions was further deciphered by an examination of institution type—public and private IHEs.

Administrative Caseload. Student conduct administrators hold responsibility for cases that pertain to alleged student misconduct on college campuses. Administrative caseloads for student conduct administrators stem from reports made by faculty, staff, and external constituents such as campus police officers. The administrative caseload can be defined as student misconduct incidents which may be criminal violations as well as violations of institutional codes of conduct (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). Student conduct administrators hear cases of student misconduct and widely share the twin goals of student development and educational sanctioning (Karp & Sacks, 2014). With these twin goals in mind, this approach seeks to enhance the student's ability to comprehend the seriousness of the conduct, appreciate the people, communities, and institutions affected by his or her conduct, restore the people,

communities, or institutions affected, and hopefully eliminate a repeat of inappropriate behavior (Schrage & Giacomini, 2009). Despite the student conduct administrative goals of student development and community restoration, student conduct administrators often face opposition from internal and external constituents that impact the amount of student-related cases administrators adjudicate. A deep-seated schism between other functional areas of an institution of higher education and student conduct administration has persisted (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). Internally, this lack of understanding about and appreciation for the value of student conduct work created a schism (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). With the divide, some faculty and staff may feel unwilling to report alleged incidents of student misconduct, such as sexual violence, to student conduct administrators on campus. External to the institute of higher education, there is often a lack of understanding and sometimes an adversarial relationship between student conduct administrators and external constituents, such as local law enforcement agencies (Waryold & Lancaster, 2008). Further, some local law enforcement agencies, such as campus police, may feel reluctant to report information related to alleged incidents of student misconduct, such as sexual violence, to student conduct administrators.

Procedural and Safety Awareness. In 1990, the Clery Act required all federally funded IHEs to issue an annual security report in which schools publicly disclose crime statistics and the crime prevention and security policies and procedures that are in effect on their campuses (Fisher & Sloan, 2013). Despite the emergent concerns about sexual victimization of college students and the passage of the Clery

Act, little systematic information and research exist about the degree to which IHEs comply with the requirements to publish campus statistics on reported sexual violence and institutional policies on sexual assault policies, protocols, and programs (Gregory & Janosik, 2013). The most challenging student violation that any student conduct office confronts is the perpetration of sexual violence by one of its students against another (Ottens & Hotelling, 2000). Fisher and Sloan (2013), found that only 37 percent of IHEs reported crime statistics in a manner fully consistent with the Clery Act. In the same study, only 49 percent of the public schools and 43 percent of the four-private schools included information about reports of sexual violence in their annual security reports (Fisher & Sloan, 2013).

Procedural compliance may vary by institution type, and this may cause differing efforts to promote safety and awareness about campus sexual violence. Violations of the law related to sexual assault and violations of campus policies differ in many key ways, primarily about how the violation is defined and adjudicated (Ottens & Hotelling, 2000). Criminal charges involving sexual assault fall under state legislative definitions of rape and battery, while colleges can define sexual misconduct violations for their community (Ottens & Hotelling, 2000). With differing procedures and programs for safety awareness related to sexual violence, not all IHEs have the necessary policies in place to provide an effective response to sexual violence (Nicoletti, Bollinger, & Spencer-Thomas, 2009). Some institutions may favor informal mediation that results in a slap on the wrist of perpetrators over a more formalized procedural system (Nicoletti, Bollinger, & Spencer-Thomas, 2009). Some institutions

refuse to adjudicate sexual misconduct on campus entirely, leaving a victim the only option of pursuing criminal charges, which may not best serve the victim or the campus community (Nicoletti, Bollinger, & Spencer-Thomas, 2009).

Campus Community Safety. Contrary to the traditional image of college campuses as safe havens for young adults, campuses are social domains in which criminal victimization occurs (Fisher & Sloan, 2013). Campus violence can have far-reaching implications. Campus crime and violence and other student safety matters have become critical issues for higher education administrators (Nichols, 1997). Victims may leave school for fear of their safety. Faculty and staff may feel threatened by violent or aggressive students both in and out of the classroom (Baker & Boland, 2011). Some campus community members may feel confused as to how to define campus violence (Mayhew, Caldwell, & Goldman, 2011). Students who experience campus violence may be unaware that the act they experienced is, in fact, an act of violence or may be fearful of reporting a crime (Mayhew, Caldwell, & Goldman, 2011).

Despite the implications and prevalence of violence on college campuses, some studies and national data reveal perceptions of an overall feeling of safeness on campuses. In a study by Baker and Boland (2011) that included over 1,400 students and 158 faculty members, both students and faculty reported feeling very safe on campus. Over 73 percent of the students agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I feel safe when walking alone after dark on campus," and likewise for 70 percent of the faculty and staff (Baker & Boland, 2011). Between the years of 1995 and 2002,

college students were victims of approximately 479,000 crimes of violence each year (Baker & Boland, 2011). However, the violent crime rate for students decreased in that timeframe by 54 percent (Baker & Boland, 2011). Federal guidance, such as the Clery Act, may have contributed to this phenomenon.

Campus SaVE Act. With public attention to campus sexual assault at an unprecedented high, student conduct administrators face a watershed moment (Engle, 2014). The Campus SaVE Act is the most recent and extensive legislation to protect students from sexual violence. The Campus SaVE Act requires schools to not only improve their policies surrounding sexual misconduct, but to also properly educate and inform students, faculty, and administration on the definitions of sexual assault crimes, how to file a complaint, the disciplinary process, and how to prevent these incidents from occurring (Van Driesen, 2016). Colleges have long addressed safety issues independently of one another and consequently, each college could address incidents of sexual assault differently. But the campus SaVE Act provisions require schools to state a particular set of procedures that address sexual offenses intended to help to improve effectiveness in fighting sexual assault on a nationwide basis (Marshall, 2014).

Despite the law's requirement for schools to provide information and education to students on the definition of consent, the regulations provide no guidance on how to define consent (Van Driesen, 2016). Furthermore, the Campus SaVE Act fails to address one of the Clery Act's greatest flaws: its method of reporting crimes, since the reporting may depend upon students to report sexual violence to the

appropriate campus official (Marshall, 2014). Additionally, prevention efforts associated with the Campus SaVE Act and research center on individual and group levels, with less attention to the community and societal levels (McMahon, Wood, Cusano, & Macri, 2018). As it pertains to the Campus SaVE Act and its perceived effectiveness, further work is needed to determine the most efficient, engaging ways for student conduct administrators to communicate policies not only to students but the entire campus community (McMahon et al., 2018).

Institution Type. Today in the United States there are almost three thousand institutions of higher education, and fewer than seven hundred of the three thousand four-year institutions are public institutions. (Weiss, 2013). The rest include private institutions of higher education. American universities and colleges range in size from fewer than a thousand students to over fifty thousand students enrolled at any given time (Weiss, 2013). Given the dynamics of size and institution type, public and private IHEs may vary considerably. Specifically, private and public IHEs may differ in how they define sexual violence and thereby may develop varying processes for attempting to comply with contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Pavela (1997) found Duke University defined sexual assault as:

By stranger or acquaintance, rape, forcible sodomy, forcible sexual penetration, however slight, of another person's anal or genital opening with any object. These acts must be committed by force, threat, intimidation or with the victim's mental or physical helplessness of which the accused was aware or should have been aware.

Florida State University (1998) defined sexual misconduct primarily as the following: Any sexual act that occurs without the consent of the victim or that occurs when the victim is unable to give consent (p. 85). Although both Duke University and Florida State University include other specifics of sexual misconduct within their violations, these definitions illustrate the differences that may exist between institutions when defining this violation (Ottens & Hotelling, 2000).

Institutional environment of organizations is differentiated (Tolbert, 1985). It is not that some organizations are constrained by the institutional environment while others are not; rather, there are different expectations for different types of organizations (Tolbert, 1985). Research by Tolbert (1985) indicated that the structure of institutions of higher education conforms to the demands and resources of their environments. The research also showed how private universities' development structures tailored to their environment and differed from those of public universities (Tolbert, 1985). Thereby, private institutes of higher education, such as the Duke University sexual assault definition identified by Pavela (1997) may have more customized and specific policies and procedures related to sexual violence than public institutions of higher education.

Summary

Chapter Two examined the prevalence of sexual violence across America and IHEs. Much of what constitutes sexual misconduct includes nonconsensual sexual contact, but this is not a necessary component (Yale, 2016). The national landscape of sexual violence reveals an extensive population of women as victims and men as

perpetrators. The impact to victims is substantial, with devastating physical and emotional effects. There is widespread agreement that sexual violence is an important social problem affecting college students, and there is a wide array of efforts underway to address it (Lindo, Siminski, & Swensen, 2015).

Chapter Two reviewed the history of various legislative mandates regarding sexual violence at IHEs. After legislation enacted Title IX in 1972, with oversight provided by OCR, the government has periodically followed up with various forms of guidance and legislation seeking to eradicate campus sexual violence. The most recent example came in 2015 when the Campus SaVE Act became an amendment to the Clery Act. Contemporary guidance from the federal government does the following: expounds upon the type of behavior that constitutes sexual violence, mandates IHEs create prevention programming related to sexual violence, mandates fair and equitable investigative procedures related to sexual violence and makes an expanded definition of sexually violent acts reportable to the public.

The government's recent responses seek to provide an evolving distinction between the legal requirements and the larger moral intentions of the law (Kiss & White, 2016). OCR is attempting to address a systemic problem reported for decades on college campuses that some would describe as a minimal effort on the part of the campus to stop any sexual misconduct (Duncan, 2014). IHEs must not abrogate their legal obligations to law enforcement; they have a shared responsibility under federal civil rights laws to proactively provide safe environments for students to live and learn (Duncan, 2014). The increased focus on sexual violence from the federal government

is just one reason for the need for institutional leadership to play a key role in establishing safe campuses (Kiss & White, 2015). It is critical for institutional leaders to adopt an ethical commitment to campus safety (Kiss & White, 2015).

The ethical commitment for sexual misconduct prevention has taken form in the implementation of multiple campus sexual misconduct prevention strategies by campus leaders. Chapter Two reviewed current and past prevention or intervention strategies campuses have implemented. Typical past or current strategies for reducing sexual misconduct—disciplinary procedures, educational interventions, and support services for victims—have not reduced the incidents of sexual misconduct perpetration (Iverson, 2016). Campuses should consider innovative practices to gather data to better understand sexual violence and student needs (DeGue, 2014).

The onus for creating effective programs and adhering to all other federal mandates for campus sexual violence falls on student conduct administrators working at IHEs. As professionals responsible for student disciplinary procedures and the overall safety of the campus community, student conduct administrators must also navigate outlying factors such as institutional culture and institutional resources. A student conduct administrator's ability to do so is tied into their experience as an administrator and their level of professional development through workshops, conferences, seminars, and exposure to data and literature relevant to campus sexual violence. Before contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence, a previous study indicated that student conduct administrators exhibited low competency in managing facets of federal laws related to campus sexual violence

(DeBowes, 2014). In another study conducted before contemporary guidance for sexual violence, student conduct administrators revealed that the campus community did not feel safer due to enacted federal laws for campus safety (Gregory & Janosik, 2003).

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

Sexual violence is a profound social and public health problem in the United States (Basile et al., 2014). The college experience juxtaposes the powerful motives of sex and aggression in a population that is still forming a stable identity within an environment that includes strong peer pressures for sexual activity. The college environment may also include the ritualistic abuse of alcohol, a culture that objectifies women, and a culture that frequently views sexual intercourse as an act of masculine conquest (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). Adams-Curtis & Forbes (2004) found the incidence rate of sexual violence on college campuses has shown no meaningful change in the past 50 years. With the prevalence of campus sexual violence, the federal government has attempted to implement legislation and directives that serve as obligations for IHEs to eradicate the issue. Those obligations—which to some extent refine and clarify, and to some extent change, existing legal requirements and government agency enforcement statements—likely will require revision of institutional policy and practice (American Council on Education, 2014). The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Specifically, the study examined administrative differences at public and private IHEs related to contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence.

The findings of this study's examination may inform the development of effective programmatic and educational initiatives campus administrators must

provide. Indeed, various institutional mission statements explicitly state a moral obligation to student development (Clemson University, n.d., para. 1; Georgetown University, n.d., para. 1; Plymouth State University, n.d., para. 1). The findings can also be used to implement prevention strategies colleges are legally required to implement via federal mandates discussed in Chapters One and Two. The following research questions guided this research:

1. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type?
2. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are the administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type?
3. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type?
4. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type?

This chapter outlines the study's methodology. The chapter begins by exploring the research design, the population under study, and the sampling procedures employed (DeBowes, 2014). This study used a questionnaire modified from the 2003 survey conducted by Gregory and Janosik in their study, "The Effect of

the Clery Act on Campus Judicial Practices.” With the survey as the sole data-gathering tool, the chapter described the instrument with special attention to addressing issues of validity and reliability (DeBowes, 2014). The chapter also reviews data collection procedures as well as the strategies for analyzing data to answer the research questions (DeBowes, 2014).

Rationale for Research Approach

This research utilized a quantitative approach; a quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge employs strategies of inquiry such as surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data (Creswell & Creswell, 2003). Emulating the study designed by Gregory and Janosik (2003), this study utilized a quantitative, non-experimental design. The study used a modified version of the Gregory and Janosik (2003) survey instrument (Appendix B) to collect information to answer the research questions. The recent Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act justified the re-examination of the effect of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence on student conduct administrators of ASCA by institution type. The study intended to aid the field of student conduct administration by identifying professional developmental needs and thereby using this information to work towards increased federal compliance, eliminating federal fines for Clery Act violations, and creating safer campus communities absent of sexual violence.

Research Context

Any person employed at a postsecondary institution with the responsibility for student conduct administration can become a professional member of ASCA (Association for Student Conduct Administration, n.d.). With membership representation at 700 IHEs, ASCA is an organization of professional educators who hold responsibility for administering standards of student conduct within colleges and universities (Association for Student Conduct Administration, n.d.). Therefore, members of ASCA often have responsibility and jurisdiction over investigations, processes, and programmatic initiatives that correlate to the Campus SaVE Act amendment of the Clery Act.

ASCA has membership representation at nearly 15% of campuses across the United States. There are 4,726 IHEs in the United States of America (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). Of these, 1,623 schools are public, and 3,103 are private (National Center for Education Statistics). Various factors differentiate designation of an IHE as public or private. Funding sources, amount of degree offerings, enrollment size, and demographics also shape campus culture and resources (Fortenbury, 2013). Moreover, additional campus factors compound how student conduct administrators facilitate the IHE's disciplinary processes, including sexual violence and may differ at public and private IHEs. Disciplinary matters in cases of sexual violence, such as due process in investigations, has historically provided private schools with more autonomy in their student conduct administrative practices (Tenerowicz, 2000). Regardless of whether an IHE is private or public, all

IHEs that receive federal funding are bound by federal laws, such as the Clery Act, related to sexual violence (Ali, 2011). Thus, interwoven similarities and differences by institution type presented variables related to the study.

Research Sample

Professional members of ASCA served as the target population. ASCA is a niche organization dedicated to meeting the professional development needs of student conduct and conflict resolution professionals on college and university campuses (DeBowes, 2014). ASCA serves as the primary professional association for student affairs personnel who provide student conduct services to their respective campuses (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). The organization has grown to over 1,600 members representing over 700 colleges (Dowd, 2012). The researcher selected the sample (n) from the population (N) of over 687 members provided from the most current ASCA membership list available at the time of the survey's dissemination (DeBowes, 2014). Based on the 36.9% participation rate from the original survey instrument designed by Gregory and Janosik (2003), the researcher hoped for a sample size of at least 196 participants.

The researcher utilized convenience sampling, a nonprobability sampling approach, because ASCA members met the practical criteria of easy accessibility for the study (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). Members of ASCA were easily accessible, via email addresses in an online directory made available to the researcher through the researcher's ASCA membership. Utilizing this sampling method with anonymity allowed student conduct administrators, who often work on private and

confidential matters, with the ability to respond to the questionnaire without being specifically identified. By using convenience sampling, the researcher could select participants who may know the subject matter related to the study. Given the researcher's role as a student conduct administrator and member of ASCA, the researcher was aware of the general, homogeneous characteristics of other members and the relevance of the questionnaire to their field of work.

Duplicates represented a possible sampling problem in convenience samples (Woolf, 2017). With all members of ASCA having access to the questionnaire, the same member's responses could potentially be included more than once in the study. Therefore, by emailing the instructions for survey completion to the participants, the researcher needed to make sure that participants were aware that if they completed the questionnaire previously, they should not complete it again. Following the example of Gregory and Janosik (2003), the researcher divided the overall sample (n) of participants among both public and private institutions (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). For this study, the ASCA members and the names of the institutions they represent remained anonymous in this study.

Data Collection

In 2003, Gregory and Janosik surveyed 1,143 members of the Association for Student Judicial Affairs (now known as the Association for Student Conduct Administrators and hereafter ASCA) to examine the effect of the Clery Act on campus judicial practices by institution type. A total of 422 members returned questionnaires, which provided a response rate of 36.9%. Gregory and Janosik

(2003) conducted the survey several years before the 2014 Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act and recent and 2017 federal interim guidance on how IHEs can respond to sexual violence. Ten of the original questions needed to be modified to reference the implementation of contemporary federal guidance. The modified, anonymous survey consisted of 29 multiple-choice questions.

Upon distributive approval from Gregory and Janosik (2003), participants were asked to visit a provided a hyperlink to complete and submit the Qualtrics-based survey instrument. The hyperlink provided a brief description of the study's goals and procedures to participants from the sample. Those who elected to participate in the study advanced to the next page to affirm their consent, begin the survey, and advised the survey would take approximately eight minutes to complete.

After one week, Qualtrics sent a reminder via electronic mail to prospective participants. In between the e-mail follow-up, the researcher wrote to the ASCA listserv and request participation by ASCA members. Two weeks later, the survey link was disabled. The level of risk for participants was minimal. Participants were not asked to enter their names or any other personally identifying information upon survey submission. The data was downloaded and stored on an encrypted, password-protected USB drive to ensure all data remains accessible only by the researcher. The researcher will keep the data for three years in a locked file in the home office of the researcher. After three years, the researcher will destroy data on the USB drive.

Data Analysis

Using data from gleaned from the questionnaire, the researcher conducted Chi-square tests of independence for participants who at public IHEs and private IHEs. Chi-square analysis was used due to the need to examine the similarities between two or more populations or variables on some characteristics of interest (Pindling, n.d.). The two populations were ASCA members at public IHEs and ASCA members at private IHEs. Using a nominal scale, Chi-square analyses of the participants' answers to the questionnaire allowed the researcher to answer the proposed research questions with variables measured. The collected survey data were organized by the categorical variables as identified in the research questions, and as defined in the original survey developed by Gregory and Janosik (2003). Six survey questions were associated with research question one, pertaining to administrative caseload. Eighteen survey questions were associated with research question two, pertaining to procedural and safety awareness. Two survey questions were associated with research question three, pertaining to campus community safety. Three survey questions were associated with research question four, pertaining to the perceived effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act. Minitab Statistical Software was used to compute significant differences in responses to the questionnaire between the survey participants working as student conduct administrators for public and private institutions within the sample.

Issue of Trustworthiness

By using the previous, valid survey created by Gregory & Janosik (2003), the researcher demonstrated trustworthiness by not fundamentally altering the original

survey. Efforts to enhance the overall validity of the measure included providing the questionnaire to a panel of student conduct administrators for review.

Reliability provides information on the replicability of observed scores from instruments. At least two sets of scores are required to obtain information about reliability. (Salkind, 2010). This research assumed reliability because this survey instrument used as its basis the original survey instrument by Gregory and Janosik (2003), which they administered to Association of Student Judicial Affairs (hereafter ASJA) members. ASJA is the former name of current-day ASCA. Similarly, ASCA members received this study's survey. The modifications to the 2003 questionnaire did not alter the validity of this version, as confirmed by Gregory & Janosik. Therefore, the responses from this version of the questionnaire have comparability to the 2003 version of the questionnaire.

Limitations and Delimitations

Though the researcher asked that each ASCA member complete the survey only once, the researcher could not ensure that this did not occur. Since the questionnaire is a web-based survey instrument, it is possible that some participants completed the study more than once or passed on the URL to persons who were not members of ASCA (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). Although the researcher had no evidence to indicate if this occurred, it could serve as a possible limitation. An additional limitation includes the response rate.

The study restricted the target population to ASCA members who work for IHEs located in the United States of America. ASCA currently provides membership

for student conduct administrators in the United States of America, Canada, and abroad (Dowd, 2012). Rather than invite all ASCA members to complete the questionnaire, only members working for IHEs in the United States of America were invited to complete the questionnaire. Since IHEs at international IHEs do not adhere to United States law and guidance on campus sexual violence, the study excluded those ASCA members from the sample. Since ASCA is an organization based in the United States, excluding international members did not significantly impact the population of potential participants.

Summary

This chapter articulated the proposed research design and procedures used in a national study on of student conduct administrators' perspectives, by institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. The chapter included a restatement of the research questions and an explanation of the quantitative methodology utilized in addressing the research questions. The quantitative research method consisted of non-experimental design. The researcher derived the sample from ASCA members who work for IHEs in the United States of America. ASCA is a reputable organization for student conduct administrators tasked with adhering to federal compliance related to campus sexual violence.

The sample population responded to a questionnaire that related to student conduct administrators' assessment on federal guidance for campus safety. The original survey, administered to ASJA members by Gregory & Janosik (2003),

occurred before the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act. The modifications to the 2003 questionnaire included language referencing contemporary federal guidance on campus sexual violence, does not alter the validity of the original survey instrument. The researcher obtained permission from Gregory and Janosik (2003) to send the Qualtrics-based survey to all ASCA members based at domestic IHEs.

The quantifiable variables included the participants' institution type. Given this questionnaire derivation from the survey created by Gregory & Janosik (2003), this research utilized parallel-forms reliability. As a limitation, the researcher acknowledges that the low response rate may have limited the findings from the study's results. As a delimitation, international members of ASCA were not invited to participate in the study.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study and the data analysis methodology utilized as described in Chapter Three. The current study examined student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence.

The study collected data from student conduct administrators, employed by institutions of higher education, who are members of the Association for Student Conduct Administration. All professional members of ASCA, representing IHEs across the United States, with an email address listed in the online ASCA member directory (a total of 687) were invited to participate in the study. An email explaining the purpose of the study, and a 29-question, web-based survey was sent to all 687 student conduct administrators. In total, 103 of the administrators completed the survey, with a response rate of 15%.

Data Analysis

Participants supplied information regarding data for the study through a 29-question web-based survey. A targeted population of 687 student conduct administrators, who are members of ASCA, was chosen to participate in the study. A total of 103 student conduct administrators completed the survey. The purpose of the survey was to gather information about the impact of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence on student conduct administration. The type of institution (private

or public IHE) was the only demographic data collected in this study. The Minitab Statistical Software analyzed data and yielded descriptive and inferential statistics.

Institution Type. The responses were categorized according to the participants' institution type. Two categories defined institution type: public and private IHE. In the survey, 69% of the participants indicated that they were student conduct administrators at public IHEs. The remaining 31% of the participants were student conduct administrators at private IHEs. Table 4.1 summarizes institutional type of the participating administrators.

Table 4.1

Frequency Distribution of Participants by Institution Type

Institution Type	Participant Total	Percentage of Participants
Public	71	69
Private	32	31
Total	103	100

Student Conduct Compliance Questionnaire. The survey (Appendix C) completed by participants was based on a previous survey sent to ASCA members prior to recent changes in federal guidance for sexual violence at IHEs (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). Permission to use and modify the survey instrument was granted by Gregory and Janosik in August 2017 via email. One question of the survey pertains to demographics—institutional type. The remaining questions of the survey contain 29 multiple-choice items, which were each rated by the participant using three-point,

four-point, and five-point Likert scales. Responses from the survey were calculated for each subscale.

Chi-square Analysis. Chi-square analyses were conducted in this study. The Chi-square test for independence evaluates if there is a significant association between categorical variables. For each analysis, the predetermined alpha, or significance level, was 0.05 and the Degrees of Freedoms (DF) were determined by the amount of row and columns for each table. The Chi-square value and DF were used to decide the probability value (p-value). To determine statistical significance and reject the null hypothesis, calculated p-values needed to be less than the predetermined alpha.

Descriptive statistics were generated on each of the individual questions. In support of identifying data for the study's primary research questions, the individual questions and their accompanying responses were grouped into four categories: Administrative Caseload, Procedural and Safety Awareness, Campus Community Safety, and Effectiveness of the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (hereafter Campus SaVE Act).

Major Findings

The major findings of this study are presented in relation to the previously identified research questions of this study. The research questions for this study were:

1. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type?

- a. Null Hypothesis: Institution type and administrative caseload are not dependent.
 - b. Alternative Hypothesis: Institution type and administrative caseload are dependent.
2. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are the administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: Institution type and efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness are not dependent.
 - b. Alternative Hypothesis: Institution type and efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness are dependent.
3. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: Institution type and the perception of campus community safety are not dependent.
 - b. Alternative Hypothesis: Institution type and the perception of campus community safety are dependent.
4. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type?

- a. Null Hypothesis: Institution type and the perceived effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act are not dependent.
- b. Alternative Hypothesis: Institution type and the perceived effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act are dependent.

Administrative Caseload. The first research question stated: Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type? Regarding this research question, the researcher categorized six questions of the survey as Administrative Caseload. As shown in Table 4.2, participants responded to questions in the Administrative Caseload category with responses ranging from (1) *Increased* to (3) *Stayed the Same*.

Table 4.2

Administrative Caseload (Private School Administrators' Responses in Parentheses)

Questions	I = 1	D = 2	STS = 3
1. How has your caseload regarding student conduct violations changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act?	44 (18)	1 (0)	25 (14)
2. How has the number of alcohol cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?	34 (11)	6 (3)	27 (17)
3. How has the number of drug cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?	43 (18)	1 (2)	24 (11)
4. How has the number of weapons cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?	11 (8)	4 (2)	52 (21)

Questions	I = 1	D = 2	STS = 3
5. How has crime on your campus changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act in 2015?	15 (5)	4 (1)	48 (26)
6. How has crime in the community in which your campus is located changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act in 2015?	20 (6)	3 (2)	43 (20)

Notes. I = Increased; D = Decreased; STS = Stayed the Same.

The statistical analysis, shown in Table 4.3, indicates that the null hypothesis for research question one could not be rejected since the p-value was greater than alpha. As shown in Table 4.3, this essentially implies that since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence, administrative caseloads based and institution type are not dependent of each other.

Table 4.3

Administrative Caseload Chi-Square Analysis

Institution Type	Increased	Decreased	Stayed the Same	Total
Public	167	19	219	405
	159.94	19.91	225.15	
Private	66	10	109	185
	73.06	9.09	102.85	
All	233	29	328	590

Note. Chi-Square = 1.661; DF = 2; P-Value = 0.435; Alpha = 0.05

Procedural and Safety Awareness. The second research question stated:

Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are

the administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type? As shown in Table 2.4, participants responded to questions within the Procedural and Safety Awareness category with responses ranging from (1) *Yes* to (3) *Unable to Determine*.

Table 4.4

Procedural and Safety Awareness

Questions	Yes = 1	No = 2	UTD = 3
1. Has the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act resulted in a closer relationship between the student conduct operation of your institution and that of the campus police/security operation?	20 (10)	43 (13)	8 (9)
2. Does the student conduct office at your institution prepare the portion of the campus crime report dealing with drug, alcohol, and firearms violations that occur on your campus and which are dealt with through student conduct hearings rather than arrest?	43 (17)	25 (13)	3 (2)
3. Does the police/security agency on your campus provide police reports to the student conduct office on your campus for use in student conduct proceedings?	66 (29)	5 (2)	0 (1)
4. When a student is charged with a crime on your campus by campus police/security or other local police authorities, is your student conduct office automatically notified of these charges?	53 (27)	16 (3)	2 (2)
5. When a student is charged with a student conduct offense on your campus, which may also be deemed a criminal act, are the campus police/security notified?	43 (19)	21 (10)	6 (3)

Questions	Yes = 1	No = 2	UTD = 3
6. When a student is charged with a student conduct offense on campus, which may also be deemed a criminal act, are the local law enforcement agencies notified?	22 (6)	32 (17)	17 (8)
7. Does your student conduct office and/or campus police/security agency have a formal agreement with the local law enforcement agencies about what cases will be referred for prosecution and which will be dealt with internally?	16 (9)	39 (19)	15 (4)
8. Does your student conduct office and/or campus police/security agency have an informal agreement with the local law enforcement agencies about what cases will be referred for prosecution and which will be dealt with internally?	24 (11)	31 (14)	14 (7)
9. Are you aware of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act?	68 (32)	3 (0)	0 (0)
10. Does your institution prepare an annual report of campus crime?	71 (31)	0 (1)	0 (0)
11. Are students on your campus aware of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act crime reports?	19 (16)	11 (3)	41 (13)
12. Have you seen any evidence that students' decisions to attend your institution have been affected by the campus crime reports of your campus?	5 (1)	45 (22)	21 (9)
13. Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect their personal property (e.g., car, bike, computer, stereo, books, etc.)?	9 (4)	29 (15)	33 (13)
14. Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect themselves from harm?	12 (4)	22 (13)	37 (14)
15. Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed how they move around on campus?	10 (1)	26 (20)	35 (11)
16. Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect themselves from harm?	16 (7)	22 (10)	33 (15)

Questions	Yes = 1	No = 2	UTD = 3
17. Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect their personal property (e.g., car, bike, computer, stereo, books, etc.)?	12 (4)	27 (11)	32 (16)
18. Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed how they move around on campus?	10 (3)	26 (13)	34 (15)

Notes. UTD = Unable to Determine. Private School Administrators' Responses in

Parentheses.

The statistical analysis, shown in Table 4.5, indicates that the null hypothesis for research question two could not be rejected since the p-value was greater than alpha. As shown in Table 4.5, this essentially implies that since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence, administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness based and institution type are not dependent of each other.

Table 4.5

Procedural and Safety Awareness Chi-Square Analysis

Institution Type	Yes	No	Unable to Determine	Total
Public	542	380	323	1245
	534.36	389.75	320.89	
Private	234	186	143	563
	241.64	176.25	145.11	
All	776	566	466	1808

Notes. Chi-Square = 1.178; DF = 2; P-Value = 0.554; Alpha = 0.05

Campus Community Safety. The third research question stated: Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type? As shown in Table 4.6, participants responded to questions in the Campus Community Safety category with responses ranging from (1) *Very Safe* to (4) *Very Unsafe*.

Table 4.6

Campus Community Safety

Questions	VS = 1	Safe = 2	U= 3	VU = 4
1. In your opinion, how safe are students on your campus?	29 (17)	40 (15)	0 (0)	0 (0)
2. In your opinion, how safe are students off campus?	6 (5)	53 (23)	9 (4)	1 (0)

Notes. VS = Very Safe; VU = Very Unsafe. Private School Administrators' Responses in Parentheses.

The statistical analysis, shown in Table 4.7, indicates that the null hypothesis for research question three could not be rejected since the p-value was greater than alpha. As shown in Table 4.7, this essentially implies that since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence, administrative perceptions of campus community safety based and institution type are not dependent of each other. In the *Unsafe* and *Very Unsafe* categories, there were too few observations to run a separate reliable analysis in the Minitab Statistical Software. By combining the categories, a reliable analysis could be observed in the Minitab Statistical Software and did not change the results.

Table 4.7

Campus Community Safety Chi-Square Analysis

Institution Type	Very Safe	Safe	Unsafe/Very Unsafe	Total
Public	35	93	10	138
	38.94	89.50	9.56	
Private	22	38	4	64
	18.06	41.50	4.44	
All	57	131	14	202

Notes. Chi-Square = 1.754; DF = 2; P-Value = 0.416; Alpha = 0.05

Effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act. The fourth research question stated:

Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type? As shown in Table 4.8, participants responded to questions in the Effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act category with responses ranging from (1) *Very Effective* to (5) *Unknown*.

Table 4.8

Effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act

Questions	VE = 1	E= 2	I = 3	VI = 4	U = 5
1. Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in improving the quality of campus crime reporting procedures on your campus?	5 (0)	22 (14)	10 (3)	2 (1)	31 (14)

Questions	VE = 1	E = 2	I = 3	VI = 4	U = 5
2. Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in increasing the number of crimes reported on your campus?	6 (0)	25 (10)	6 (1)	0 (2)	34 (19)
3. Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in increasing the number of campus safety programs offered during the academic year?	4 (3)	28 (14)	7 (7)	4 (1)	28 (7)

Notes. VE = Very Effective; E = Effective; I = Ineffective VI = Very Ineffective;

U = Unknown.

The statistical analysis, shown in Table 4.9, indicates that the null hypothesis for research question four could not be rejected since the p-value was greater than alpha. As shown in Table 4.9, this essentially implies that since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence, administrative perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act by institution type are not dependent of each other.

Table 4.9

Effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act Chi-Square Analysis

Institution Type	VE	Effective	Ineffective	VI	U	TC
Public	15	78	23	6	93	215
	12.44	80.19	23.50	6.91	91.95	
Private	3	38	11	4	40	96
	5.56	35.81	10.50	3.09	41.05	
All	18	116	34	10	133	311

Notes. Chi-Square = 2.360; DF = 4; P-Value = 0.669; Alpha = 0.05; VE = Very

Effective; VI = Very Ineffective; U = Unknown; TC = Total Count

Summary

Through Chi-square tests for independence, statistically significant differences were not found between responses for student conduct administrators at private and public IHEs. Participants' responses did not indicate a dependence between the categorical variables as organized by the research questions. Chapter Five will discuss these results and conclude with implications for future research.

Chapter Five: Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

Summary of the Study

Sexual violence is a prominent concern for public and private institutes of higher education across the United States. Students who experience sexual violence deal with adverse physical and mental health effects that compromise their ability to be high-functioning students (Pezza & Bellotti, 1995). Campus crime, specifically related to sexual violence, has been under federal legislation for more than 40 years. Fifteen years ago, Gregory and Janosik (2003) created a survey instrument to examine how student conduct administrators interfaced with federal legislation—the Clery Act.

In recent years, legislative changes have modified the Clery Act significantly. The Clery Act now places emphasis on student conduct administrators creating programmatic and procedural processes to eradicate campus sexual violence. Given the changes in legislation, this study presented an opportunity to reexamine the original survey by Gregory and Janosik (2003).

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine student conduct administrators' perspectives, by higher education institution type, on contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. The categorical variables for this study were institution type for student conducts administrators who are members of the ASCA, administrative caseload, procedural and safety awareness, perceptions of campus community safety, perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act.

Methods

The population for the study included 678 student conduct administrators, who are members of ASCA, working at IHEs across the United States. Of the 678 administrators invited to participate, 182 administrators started the survey, with 103 voluntarily completing the survey. Student conduct administrators who participated in the study were anonymous. No identifiers were used that can be linked to specific participants.

This study included one survey instrument to examine the administrators' perspectives on contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence. The original survey instrument was created by Gregory and Janosik (2003). With their permission, the survey was modified to include update language pertaining the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act. Gregory and Janosik (2003) confirmed that the modifications did not diminish the validity and reliability of the original survey instrument. The instrument allowed participants to remain anonymous.

The survey was created and modified using Qualtrics—a web-based survey format available to all Plymouth State University students. The distribution list of participants was obtained through the ASCA online member directory. All members who made their email address available in the online directory received the survey instrument. 103 participants were given 14 days to complete the survey. The researcher collected all data at the end of the 14-day period.

Minitab Statistical Software was used to perform analysis of the data. The responses of the survey were analyzed using Chi-square tests for independence to

determine if institution type and aspects of administrative perspectives about contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence were dependent variables.

Discussion of the Results

As stated, this researcher used Minitab Statistical Software to analyze the data. To ensure the veracity of data, the researcher worked with Plymouth State University's Statistical Consulting Center. The researcher collected, downloaded, and stored on an encrypted, password-protected USB drive to ensure all data remains accessible only by the researcher. The researcher will keep the data for three years in a locked file in the home office of the researcher. After three years, the researcher will destroy all data from the USB device. This research did not collect any identifying information about participants. The research questions for this study were:

1. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, is the caseload of student conduct administrators dependent upon higher education institution type?
2. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are the administrative efforts to facilitate procedural and safety awareness dependent upon higher education institution type?
3. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of campus community safety dependent upon higher education institution type?

4. Since the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence, are administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act dependent upon higher education institution type?

These research questions generated null and alternative hypotheses to test for independence and dependence between institution type and administrators' perspectives regarding contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence in specific categories including administrative caseload, procedural and safety awareness, campus community safety, and perceived effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act.

Administrative Caseload. Responses to the survey indicated institution type and administrative caseloads, since the enactment of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, are not dependent of each other. In general, responses to the questions related to this aspect of the conceptual framework revealed that some student conduct administrators are adjudicating as many sexual violence-related cases as they were before the implementation of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence. Of the participants who responded, 50% indicated that since the passing of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, their caseload has increased and 38% indicated that their caseload for cases involving sexual violence has stayed the same. As reviewed in Chapter Two, a significant objective of contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence is to increase programmatic initiatives for primary prevention to eradicate campus sexual violence. If IHE's achieved this objective, campus sexual violence would likely see a significant

reduction as a result of effective primary prevention programming mandated by the Campus SaVE Act. However, because 88% of the surveyed administrators indicate their caseloads have increased or stayed the same, it seems reasonable to conclude that the requirement of the Campus Save Act for student conduct administrators to implement effective primary prevention programs has yet to be proven as an effective aspect of the Campus SaVE Act.

It is worth noting that when asked about alcohol, drugs, and weapons caseloads, student conduct administrators provided similar responses that their caseloads have increased or stayed the same. This finding reveals that administrators, in general, are adjudicating cases involving more high-level crimes in recent years. This aspect of the data is similar to the response rate from the original survey (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). Conclusively, with low participant results from this study, the researcher could only answer this research question with limitations. However, the gathered data suggest that the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act has not reduced caseloads within student conduct administration.

Procedural and Safety Awareness. Responses to the survey indicated institution type and administrative perspectives on facilitating procedural and safety awareness, since the enactment of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, are not dependent of each other. The researcher discussed that the Clery Act, particularly regarding campus sexual violence, has mandated that IHEs report all campus-based criminal acts to a local law enforcement agency. As discussed in Chapter One and Two, the mechanism of reporting crimes to a local law enforcement

agency is the basis for the Clery Act. Then, these reported crimes are to be made known to the public through ongoing notifications and reports. As also discussed in Chapter One and Two, the Campus SaVE Act increased IHE reporting requirements by adding categories such as stalking. The Clery Act also enforces fines on IHEs who fail to meet standards for reporting requirements. Nevertheless, 30% of student conduct administrators in this study indicated their IHEs do not report crimes adjudicated in the school's disciplinary system to a local law enforcement agency. By neglecting to report all campus crimes, some student conduct administrative reporting processes may be in violation of federal law. Consequently, these anonymous institutions could be liable to federal fines. Furthermore, these data indicate that some student conduct administrative processes at IHEs may harbor criminals unknown to local law enforcement. Given the data from research question one, that suggest that caseloads including sexual violence-based crimes have either decreased or remained steady for 88% of the survey participants since the enactment of the Campus SaVE Act, some of the potentially harbored criminals may have perpetrated sexual violence. Because some administrators do not report the data to a local law enforcement agency, the public receives inaccurate data about crimes that occur on some campuses, including the crime of sexual violence.

The study's data indicate that some student conduct administrators may not report crimes because of a possible disconnect or miscommunication between themselves and local law enforcement agencies. While most participants indicated they do report crimes conducted by students to local law enforcement agencies, 67%

revealed their process does not include a formal way of referring student crimes to local law enforcement agencies. This aspect of the data is similar to the response rate from the original survey (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). As it relates specifically to the Campus SaVE Act, 60% of survey participants indicated they find the reporting procedures mandated by Campus SaVE Act enactment ineffective or that the act's effectiveness remains inconclusive at this time.

The study's descriptive statistics findings indicated that contemporary federal guidance for campus sexual violence has not ensured that student conduct administrators adhere or can adhere to the recent federal mandates. As shown in Table 6 in Chapter 4, participants responded to questions within the Procedural and Safety Awareness category using a 3-point frequency scale, ranging from (1) *Yes* to (3) *Unable to Determine*. The descriptive statistics revealed similar tabulations for (2) *No* and (3) *Unable to Determine*. The similarities in tabulations between two and three may be indicative of the brief time between the time this study was conducted and the enactment the Campus SaVE Act (2014). This may mean that student conduct administrators have not had sufficient time to facilitate procedural and safety awareness on their campuses. One question related to this aspect of the conceptual framework was: *Are students on your campus aware of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act crime reports?* 54% of the participants indicated (3) *No* to this question. Student conduct administrators are responsible for facilitating efforts related to procedural and safety awareness for the campus community, including students. With 54% indicating that students are not aware of the Campus SaVE Act,

these results may indicate that some student conduct administrators are not adhering to the specificities of the Campus SaVE Act, related to and safety awareness efforts intended to eradicate sexual violence.

Campus Community Safety. Responses to the survey indicated institution type and administrative perspectives on campus community safety, since the enactment of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act, are not dependent of each other. Based on the survey's data for research question one, the number of sexual violence-based cases that student conduct administrators adjudicate has not decreased since the issuance of contemporary guidance. Despite this data, survey participants were unanimous in indicating they believe their students are safe on campus. Most participants (87%) indicated that even off campus, they believe their campus' students are safe. This *Campus Community Safety* aspect of the data seems to be in contradiction with the *Administrative Caseload* aspect of the data revealed by the participants. The unanimous finding of administrators feeling that students on campus are safe is troubling when the *Administrative Caseload* aspect of the data from this study suggests otherwise. The unanimous responses from student conduct administrators in this study, of students feeling *Safe* or *Very Safe*, may explain the similarity in the descriptive data related to efforts to facilitate *Procedural and Safety Awareness*. The misguided perception of safety that some administrators may have could be the root cause of 54% of students not being aware of the Campus SaVE Act.

The term *safe* may have a subjective meaning for student conduct administrators. Some student conduct administrators may think of an unsafe

environment as one in which an imminent threat to the campus community is largely visible to the greater community, such as a campus shooting. Or, for some student conduct administrators, *safe* may be more related to other, possibly more visible forms of crime such as robbery, theft, or arson. With a misguided perception of safety, some student conduct administrators may not be able to recognize some campus behaviors such as sexual violence. The unrealized impact and occurrence of sexual violence on college campuses by some student conduct administrators may explain why the issue persists despite contemporary legislative mandates such as the Campus SaVE Act. The aspect of the data indicating that most student conduct administrators feel their campus is safe is similar to the response rate from the original survey (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). Conclusively, with low participant results from this study, the researcher was only able to answer the research question with limitations. However, the gathered data beyond research question three suggests that campus community safety has not been positively impacted by the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act.

Effectiveness of the Campus SaVE Act. The survey's data do not seem to indicate any significant differences in the perceptions of the Campus SaVE Act's res between public and private IHEs. Given that all federally funded IHEs, whether public or private, are responsible for adherence to the Campus SaVE Act, the lack of differentiated responses between student conduct administrators at public and private IHEs is reasonable. The similarity in responses, despite the institutional type, indicates that future modifications to mandates and procedures related to contemporary federal

guidance for sexual violence would likely have a similar effect on all of student conduct administration. The connectedness public and private IHEs have by being bound to federal guidance for campus sexual can create professional development opportunities that can be adapted by both types of institutions. Public and private IHEs may differ in enrollment standards, financial resources, degree offerings, and institutional culture (i.e. religious-affiliated institutions). Despite these noted differences, the lack of significant differences in response to this study reveals that both institutional types face the similar challenges and express similar sentiments regarding federal guidance. Given this takeaway, ASCA should work to create universal procedures for compliance with federal guidelines for sexual violence that can be adapted by all institution types. Conclusively, with low participant results from this study, the researcher was only able to answer the research question with limitations. However, the gathered data suggests that student conduct administrators have not perceived the Campus SaVE Act as effective.

Comparison to the Original Survey Instrument. Gregory and Janosik conducted the original survey in 2003. The original study intended to examine the impact of the Clery Act on student conduct administration. By 2003, the Clery Act had been in place for 23 years. The familiarity some student conduct administrators, who participated in the original study, had with the 2003 version of the Clery Act exceeded the familiarity some student conduct administrators, who participated in this study, had with the newly enacted Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act. As

reviewed in Chapter Two of this study, the Campus SaVE Act amendment represented the most significant change to the Clery Act since its original enactment.

Despite the vast differences legislative aspects included in the original survey and this study's survey instrument, there are some similarities in participants' responses. In the original survey, the researchers found that student conduct administrators did not feel student behavioral change appeared related to the Clery Act (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). In this survey, 83% of the participants responded with *No* or *Unknown* regarding student behavioral change since the enactment of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act. The drawn conclusion is that even as legislation becomes more detailed and rigorous with its requirements, student behavior does not change. As aforementioned, participants in this study revealed that administrative caseloads had not decreased since the enactment of the Campus SaVE act. The vast majority of participants in the original study also indicated that the caseload sustained or increased since the passage of the Clery Act (Gregory & Janosik, 2003). As aforementioned, researcher believes that this study's data revealed that some student conduct administrators may have a misguided perception of what it means for the campus community to feel safe. An indicated sustained or increased caseload seems directly conflict with an indicated perception of safety. The vast majority of participants in the original study also indicated their campuses were safe despite the indicated increased or sustained caseloads (Gregory & Janosik, 2003).

Fifteen years stand between the original survey responses and the responses of this study. With this in mind, the aforementioned similarities of responses from

participants reveal the essential need for professional development. Student conduct administrators have responsibility vital roles in ensuring the safety of campus communities. These roles include educating campus communities on behavioral issues such as sexual violence; adhering to procedural mandates of the federal government to ensure compliance; and contributing to compliance efforts so that their institutions do not have inaccuracies in required procedures related to reporting campus crimes. Gregory & Janosik (2003) concluded the Clery Act was more ineffective than it was effective and placed the onus of the challenges of the act on federal legislators to improve aspects of the act. Gregory and Janosik (2003) also concluded that the emphasis on the campus crime reports should be lessened and there should be an increased focus upon increasing campus safety programs and notification to students about safety hazards. In many ways, the Campus SaVE Act mandated what Gregory & Janosik (2003) concluded the act needed. Still, the results from this study were similar to the results of the 2003 study.

Instead of seeking additional modifications or mandates from federal legislation, student conduct administrators must acknowledge that our campuses are not safe, based on the idea that caseloads are not decreasing at some IHEs. Doing so allows student conduct administrators to engage in professional development opportunities to improve competencies around developing and improving existing programmatic initiatives and procedural efforts in a meaningful way to reduce sexual violence.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations for this study included the convenience sampling method used to acquire participants who completed the survey instrument. Since the questionnaire is a web-based survey instrument, it is possible that some participants completed the study more than once or passed on the survey link to persons who were not members of ASCA. Although the researcher has no evidence to indicate this took place, this should be expressed as a possible limitation. An additional aspect of this limitation was the response rate from participants. DeBowes (2014) distributed a dissertation research-based survey instrument to all ASCA members in 2014 and received a 17.2% response rate. In similar fashion this survey received an initial 26% response rate, with only 15% fully completing the survey. Because the researcher collected data only collected from ASCA members, generalization of the results remain limited to student conduct administrators who have paid memberships through ASCA. ASCA cannot be deemed as a target population that can produce statistically significant results for dissertation research. Furthermore, another limitation could include the possibility that respondents in the study's sample might have come from the same institution and have differing perspectives in answering the research questions.

As an additional limitation to the study's findings, there is a possibility that some criminally based student incidences are known to local law enforcement agencies, such as campus police, prior to administration involvement. Therefore, student conduct administrators would not report such incidences to local law enforcement agencies.

Research questions three and four present additional limitations of the study. The small amount of questions in the survey instrument that were associated with research questions three and four made it difficult to affirm statistical significance.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future actions or research are given below for building on the present study, to improve understandings of contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence for student conduct administration.

1. It is recommended that the present study be duplicated with a larger sample size, including student conduct administrators who are not members of ASCA.
2. It is recommended to replicate this study for local law enforcement agencies that directly support IHEs, such as campus police departments.
3. It is recommended that the present study be extended with the inclusion of variables such as institution size and geographic region, and demographic variables such as gender, ethnicity, and time in the role of student conduct administrator.
4. It is recommended that the present study be extended with a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to further investigate administrative perspectives on contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence.
5. It is recommended that the present study be extended to include multiple, education-specific data collection instruments for examining the administrative perspectives on contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence.

6. It is recommended that a study be conducted to study student conduct administrators' differing perspectives on safety and the prevalence of campus sexual violence.
7. It is recommended that this study be reproduced after 5 years to examine if there have been any differences in the perspectives of student conduct administrators, by institution type, regarding federal guidance for campus sexual violence.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Types of Sexual Misconduct/Violence

Type of Sexual Misconduct	Survey Type	Description/Example
Staring	SES; SEQ	Someone stared at me in a sexual way or looked at the sexual parts of my body after I had asked them to stop.
Teasing	SES; SEQ	Someone made teasing comments of a sexual nature about my body or appearance after I asked them to stop.
Mailing	SES; SEQ	Someone sent me sexual or obscene materials such as pictures, jokes, or stories in the mail or by phone.
Images	SES; SEQ	Someone showed me pornographic pictures when I had not agreed to look at them.
Phone Communication	SES	Someone made sexual or obscene phone calls to me when I had not agreed to talk with them.
Gesturing	SES; SEQ	Someone made sexual motions to me, such as grabbing their crotch, pretending to masturbate, or imitating oral sex without my consent.
Photography	SES	Someone took photos or videotapes of me when I was undressing, was nude, or was having sex, without my consent.
Internet	SES	Someone uploaded to the Internet pictures of me nude

		or having sex without my consent.
Viewing	SES	Someone watched me while I was undressing, was nude, or was having sex, without my consent.
Displaying	SES	Someone showed me the private areas of their body (e.g., butt, penis, or breasts) without my consent.
Masturbation	SES	Someone masturbated in front of me without my consent.
Unwanted touching	SES	Someone fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of my body (lips, breast/chest, crotch, or butt) or removed some of my clothes without my consent.
Oral Sex	SES	Someone had oral sex with me or made me have oral sex with him or her without my consent.
Vaginal Penetration	SES	A man put his penis into my vagina, or someone inserted fingers or objects without my consent.
Anal Penetration	SES	A man put his penis into my butt, or someone inserted fingers or objects without my consent.
Attempted Anal Penetration	SES	Even though it didn't happen, a man TRIED to put his penis into my butt, or someone tried to stick in objects or fingers without my consent.
Attempted Oral	SES	Even though it didn't happen, someone TRIED to have

Penetration		oral sex with me, or make me have oral sex with him or her without my consent.
Attempted Vaginal Penetration	SES	Even though it didn't happen, a man TRIED to put his penis into my vagina, or someone tried to stick in fingers or objects without my consent.
Negative Coercion	SES	Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about me, making promises I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring me after I said I didn't want to.
Escalated Coercion	SES	Showing displeasure, criticizing my sexuality or attractiveness, getting angry but not using physical force, after I said I didn't want to.
Incapacitation	SES	Using me sexually after I had been: (a) drinking alcohol and was conscious but too intoxicated (drunk) to give consent or stop what was happening; (b) Serving me high alcohol content drinks when they appeared to be regular strength drinks; (c) when I was asleep or unconscious from drugs; (d) encouraging and pressuring me to use drugs such as pot, or Valium. Also includes people who were asleep without intoxication, incapacitated by serious mental illness or

		developmental disability, or below the statutory age of consent.
Verbal Threats	SES	Threatening to physically harm me or someone close to me.
Physical Harm	SES	Using force such as (a) holding me down with their body weight, pinning my arms, or having a weapon; (b) acting together with two or more people to do sexual things to me even though I objected or was unable to give consent or stop what was happening.
Gender Mistreatment	SEQ	Treated you differently'' because of your sex (e.g., mistreated, slighted, or ignored you).
Sexist Materials	SEQ	Displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials.
Sexist Remarks	SEQ	Made offensive sexist remarks.
Condescending	SEQ	Put you down or was condescending to you because of your sex.
Offensive Narratives	SEQ	Repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were offensive to you.
Heckling	SEQ	Whistled, called, or hooted at you in a sexual way.

Sexual Discussions	SEQ	Made unwelcome attempts to draw you into a discussion of sexual matters (e.g., attempted to discuss or comment on your sex life).
Offensive Remarks	SEQ	Made crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly (e.g., in your workplace) or privately
Directly Targeted Remarks	SEQ	Made offensive remarks about your appearance, body, or sexual activities.
Bribery	SEQ	Made you feel like you were being bribed with some sort of reward or special treatment to engage in sexual behavior.

Appendix B: Survey Instrument

Survey Consent

Start of Block: Informed Consent

Welcome to the research study!

I am interested in understanding student conduct administrators' perspectives on contemporary federal guidance for sexual violence. You will be presented with information relevant to professional student conduct administrators who work for institutes of higher education in the United States.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. No personally identifiable information will be solicited in the survey, and all information collected will remain confidential. You do not need to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer, and you may stop or withdraw your participation at any time without consequence. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, and publications but the researcher will not identify you or your institution. There are no known risks for participating in this study. However, by participating, you will support a fellow ASCA member's doctoral research as well assist in identifying any areas in which Clery Act knowledge might be enhanced among student conduct administrators.

Please note that this survey will be best displayed on a laptop or desktop computer. Some features may be less compatible for use on a mobile device.

- I consent, begin the study (1)
- I do not consent, I do not wish to participate (2)

End of Block: Informed Consent

Start of Block: Default Question Block

How has the caseload regarding student conduct violations changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act?

- Increased (1)
 - Decreased (2)
 - Stayed the Same (3)
-

How has the number of alcohol cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?

- Increased (1)
 - Decreased (2)
 - Stayed the Same (3)
-

How has the number of drug cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?

- Increased (1)
- Decreased (2)
- Stayed the Same (3)

How has the number of weapons cases that are dealt with by your student conduct office changed since they were required to be part of the campus crime report in 1998?

- Increased (1)
 - Decreased (2)
 - Stayed the Same (3)
-

Has the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act resulted in a closer relationship between the student conduct operation of your institution and that of the campus police/security operation?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Does the student conduct office at your institution prepare the portion of the campus crime report dealing with drug, alcohol, and firearms' violations that occur on your campus and which are dealt with through student conduct hearings rather than arrest?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Does the police/security agency on your campus provide “police” reports to the student conduct office on your campus for use in student conduct proceedings?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

When a student is charged with a crime on your campus-by-campus police/security or other local police authorities, is the student conduct office automatically notified of these charges?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

When a student is charged with a student conduct offense on campus, which may also be deemed a criminal act, are the campus police/security notified?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

When a student is charged with a student conduct offense on campus, which may also be deemed a criminal act, are the local law enforcement agencies notified?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

Does your student conduct office and/or campus police/security agency have a formal agreement with the local law enforcement agencies about what cases will be referred for prosecution and which will be dealt with internally?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Does your student conduct office and/or campus police/security agency have an informal agreement with the local law enforcement agencies about what cases will be referred for prosecution and which will be dealt with internally?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Are you aware of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Does your institution prepare an annual report of campus crime?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

Are students on your campus aware of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act crime reports?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Have you seen any evidence that students' decisions to attend your institution have been affected by the campus crime reports of your campus?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in improving the quality of campus crime reporting procedures on your campus?

- Very Effective (1)
 - Effective (2)
 - Ineffective (3)
 - Very Ineffective (4)
-
-

Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in increasing the number of crimes reported on your campus?

- Very Effective (1)
- Effective (2)
- Ineffective (3)
- Very Ineffective (4)

Has the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act been effective in increasing the number of campus safety programs offered during the academic year?

- Very Effective (1)
 - Effective (2)
 - Ineffective (3)
 - Very Ineffective (4)
-

How has crime on your campus changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act in 2015?

- Increased (1)
 - Decreased (2)
 - Stayed the Same (3)
-

How has crime in the community in which your campus is located changed since the passage of the Campus SaVE Act amendment to the Clery Act in 2015?

- Increased (1)
- Decreased (2)
- Stayed the Same (3)

Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect their personal property (e.g., car, bike, computer, stereo, books, etc.)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect themselves from harm?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Based upon information provided in your campus crime reports, have students changed how they move around on campus?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect themselves from harm?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
 - Unable to Determine (3)
-

Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed their behavior with respect to how they protect their personal property (e.g., car, bike, computer, stereo, books, etc.)?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

Based upon the campus safety programs and other information that are delivered by your police/security department and other campus agencies, have students changed how they move around on campus?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Unable to Determine (3)

In your opinion, how safe are students on your campus?

- Very Safe (1)
- Safe (2)
- Unsafe (3)
- Very Unsafe (4)

In your opinion, how safe are students off campus?

- Very Safe (1)
- Safe (2)
- Unsafe (3)
- Very Unsafe (4)

Are you currently at a public or private institution?

- Public (1)
 - Private (2)
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