

Evaluation of the Degree to which Emotional Intelligence Predicts Bystander Behaviors

Alexandra Quinn Parmely, Kendal Binion, and Matt J. Gray

University of Wyoming

Abstract

Sexual violence is alarmingly high on college campuses (Black et al., 2012). The purpose of the current study is to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intentions. The current study was designed to better understand the factors (e.g. empathy, EI) among those who intervene (i.e. bystanders) in potential sexual assault situations. The relationship was compared to already established factors such as empathy, bystander sex, acceptance of rape myths, and knowledge of sexual violence. Participants (n=200) were recruited from the crowdsourcing platform, M-Turk. Males and females who were at least 18 years of age were invited to participate in the current study. Previous research has highlighted the importance of the presence of bystanders who, by their presence and actions, may be able to help deter sexual violence. Analyses support that emotional intelligence does have a statistically significant contribution to the prediction of bystander efficacy and intent. However, empathic responding does not statistically mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and past bystander behaviors, efficacy, or intent. Recommendations for future research were discussed.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, bystander, intent, behaviors, efficacy.

Evaluation of the Degree to which Emotional Intelligence Predicts Bystander Behaviors

Sexual assault in the United States

Nearly 300,000 individuals in the United States are sexually assaulted each year (Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network, 2016). The United States Department of Justice (2017) defines sexual assault as any form of nonconsensual sexual contact or behavior that is separate from rape. Furthermore, an individual is unable to consent to sexual activity if they are manipulated to give consent, incapacitated due to the use of either alcohol or drugs, unconscious or sleeping, a minor, or mentally handicapped (U.S. Department of Health and Human Resources, 2015). Unfortunately, those who are at the most considerable risk for sexual assault are individuals 18- 24 in the first few years of higher education (U.S. Department of Health and Human Resources, 2019).

Sexual violence is alarmingly high on college campuses, with an estimated 1 in 4 women experiencing sexual assault while in college (Black et al., 2012). Additionally, over 5% of women each year attending higher education have experienced rape (Kalpatrick et al., 2007); this statistic does not include the many other events related to sexual assault (Kalpatrick et al., 2007). When considering broad sexual assault, approximately 20- 34% of women have experienced events such as nonconsensual touching, penetration, or attempted penetration (Finkelhor, 1994; Gray et al., 2018). Further, it is estimated that men are five times more likely to be assaulted while in college, compared to non-student males of the same age (Black et al., 2012). Similar to other university statistics, a University of New Hampshire report claimed that 8.2% of undergraduate males reported victimization in the past six months (Banyard et al., 2004). The high prevalence of sexual violence experienced in college settings has stimulated widespread

bystander intervention programming across the United States (Leucaena, Reynolds-Tylus, & Quick, 2019).

Bystanders

A bystander is an individual who witnesses a criminal behavior or violation of a social norm (Hamby, Weber, Banyard, Grych, 2016). After viewing the event, the bystander may choose to help the victim, support the perpetrator, or do nothing (Hamby, Banyard, Grych, 2016). Researchers have highlighted the importance of bystanders who, by their presence and actions, may be able to help deter sexual violence. Bystanders may be better able to identify high-risk situations through seeing, hearing, or sensing potentially dangerous or stressful event (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Bystanders may intervene in an event through several methods such as creating a distraction, notifying staff or security, or offering other forms of assistance to the potential victim (i.e., a ride home) (Banyard, 2004; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). McMahon and Banyard (2012) also note that bystanders can intervene after the assault as a form of social support. Due to a bystander's ability to prevent sexual assault, bystander intervention training has been increasingly implemented in American universities (Coker, Cook-Craig, Williams, Fisher, Clear, Garcia, & Hegge, 2011).

Bystander intervention may be especially important in preventing sexual assault. Hart and Miethe (2008) found that in any violent crime, roughly two-thirds had a bystander present. Planty (2002) has estimated that approximately one-third of reported sexual assaults (broadly defined) have one or more bystander(s) present. When a bystander does intervene, several factors must occur: first, the situation must be noticed; secondly, the individual must take responsibility;

and finally, bystanders must have a sufficient level of self-efficacy (Hensman-Kettrey & Marx, 2019).

Often intervention training emphasizes the impact that a bystander can have in preventing and reducing sexual assault through community responsibility (Banyard et al., 2004). Banyard and associates note that community responsibility is a shift in social norms that begin to oppose violence. Community responsibility claims that members of the community look out for one another, therefore shifting the responsibility of the bystander (e.g., community member). The shift toward community responsibility typically also builds effective, unofficial social support systems for survivors of sexual assault (Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). Community responsibility changes initially through an individual level when an individual has developed an understanding of sexual assault and therefore is better equipped to intervene. It is necessary to understand the factors influencing a bystander's likelihood to intervene.

Known correlates of bystander intervention for sexual assault include the acceptance of rape myths (Hust, Rodgers, Ebreo, & Stefani, 2019), previous knowledge of sexual assault (Mercer-Kollar, Peng, Ports, & Shen, 2019), and empathy (Noorden, Haselager, Cillessen, & Bukowski, 2015). Hust and colleagues (2019) found that the acceptance of rape myths reduced student confidence to intervene in a potential sexual assault. Further, previous knowledge of sexual violence and empathy has been found to increase the likelihood of a bystander intervening (Mercer-Kollar, Peng, Ports, & Shen, 2019; Noorden, Haselager, Cillessen, & Bukowski, 2015). Previous studies have reported that high levels of empathy play a direct role in an individual's acknowledgment of a potential sexual assault and their choice to intervene (Zapp, Buelow, Soutiea, Berkowitz, & DeJong, 2018). Also, some college-level bystander intervention trainings claim that by partaking in bystander training, the individual may experience higher levels of

empathy that could lead to intervention in a potential sexual assault (Zapp, Buelow, Soutiea, Berkowitz, & DeJong, 2018).

Empathy and Emotional Intelligence

In recent years, Jolloffe and Farrington (2006) have defined empathy as the ability to grasp what another individual is feeling, additionally the emotional reaction that occurs because of another's emotional state in the present moment. Stated differently, empathy is understanding how another individual feels, and understanding your reaction to another individual's display of emotion. Empathy is a motivating factor in helping and other prosocial behaviors (Smith, 2006; Batson, 2010). Additionally, researchers have noted a positive correlation between empathetic response and emotional intelligence (EI) (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000).

Empathy and EI are related constructs (Austin, Evans, Magnus, & O'Hanlon, 2007). EI is the perceived capacity to recognize one's own emotions, as well as the ability to control these emotions (Carrothers, Gregory, & Gallagher, 2000). Additionally, EI is the ability to identify others' emotions and the capability to integrate these skills into ordinary interactions (Carrothers, Gregory, & Gallagher, 2000). While EI incorporates empathy, it also engages with the emotions the individual experiences and how these emotions affect the individual. Empathy and EI overlap when considering interpersonal relationships, specifically the ability to be aware and understand another individual's emotions (Austin et al., 2007). The relationship between empathy and EI contrasts largely in the first part of EI's definition when considering the self. However, a better ability to identify one's own emotional states, may enable one to be better able to identify another's emotional state. However, empathy may act as a mediator in the relationship

between EI and bystander behaviors, intent, and efficacy. Owens and colleagues (2018) found that EI has been shown to moderate the relationship between empathy and mimicry.

The purpose of the current study is to examine the relationship between EI and bystander behaviors, intentions, and efficacy. EI's relationship to bystander behaviors, intentions, and efficacy was compared to already established factors (i.e., rape myth acceptance, knowledge of sexual assault, and empathy). Understanding the factors related to bystander behaviors (e.g., emotional intelligence, empathy) allows for the identification of individual implications for programming (e.g., programming works to increase EI). If findings support the hypotheses, then empathy and EI will be better understood in relation to bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent, which may better lead research exploring university bystander intervention training. University students are at an increased risk for sexual assault. Therefore, by incorporating these findings, university students would benefit the most from this knowledge (Black et al., 2012).

Additionally, if the research supports the hypotheses, then through training, bystanders would be more likely to identify risky situations that could lead to sexual assault and therefore prevent potential sexual assaults from occurring. To date, there is no such study that reviews the potential correlation between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intentions. First, it is hypothesized that EI will demonstrate a significantly unique contribution, beyond established factors, to the prediction of bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent. Secondly, it is hypothesized that the relationship between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent will be mediated through the empathetic response. Finally, it is proposed that the relation between EI and empathetic response differs as a function of sex.

Method

Participants

Potential subjects were invited to participate through M-Turk, an online crowdsourcing database. Individuals who are eighteen years or older and participate in M-Turk were invited to participate in the survey for monetary compensation. No special classes (e.g., children, pregnant women, prisoners) were involved in the data collection. Additionally, individuals of both sexes were invited to participate. A power analysis for a regression was completed to determine the target number of participants needed for this study using an F-Test; according to the analyses using an alpha of 0.05, power of 0.8 and a small effect size ($\eta^2 = .10$), 114 individuals were required. Two hundred total individuals participated in the current study. See *table 1* for more information of participant characteristics.

Measures

The demographics section asked participants to report information, including age, sex, gender, sexual orientation, race, levels of education, socioeconomic status, and employment status.

The *Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (REIS)* (Pekaar, Bakker, van der Linden, & Born, 2018) consists of 28 items that measure emotional intelligence. The Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence scale is scored on a 5-point Likert scale where one is “disagree completely,” and five is “agree completely.” High scores indicated the agreeance with self-reported emotional intelligence statements. Participants were asked to respond to each statement to the extent in which they agree. Items include statements such as “I can distinguish well between other people's emotions.” Cronbach’s alpha reported is 0.87.

The *Modified Bystander Behaviors Scale* (Coker, Cook-Craig, Williams, Fisher, Clear, Garcia, & Hegge, 2011) consists of 12 items that assessed past bystander behaviors.

Respondents are asked to indicate how often they have participated in a stated behavior.

Responses are collected through a scale where zero indicates “not at all,” one is “1-2 times,” two is “3-5 times,” three is “6 or more times,” and four is “did not have the opportunity.” Participants who responded with four for any given item were dropped from analysis for that specific item.

An example item asks if the respondent has “asked someone who looked very upset if they were okay or needed help.” The Cronbach’s alpha was reported as 0.95 meaning that internal consistency is excellent.

The *Bystander Efficacy Scale* (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004) consists of five items that measure a bystander’s confidence to intervene in a potential sexual assault. Respondents were asked to rate each statement regarding how likely or unlikely they are to engage in such behavior on a scale from zero to one hundred (0= “cannot do,” 50= “moderately certain,” and 100= “very certain can do”). An example item asked if the participant could, “do something to help a very drunk person who is being brought upstairs to a bedroom by a group of people at a party.” The Cronbach’s alpha is 0.94 demonstrating excellent internal constancy.

The *Bystander Intent Scale* (Banyard, Moynihan, Cares, Warner, 2014) consists of 18 items. For each scale respondents rated on a five-point Likert-type scale (1= “not at all likely,” and 5= “extremely likely”). An item example is, “I see someone and their partner. Partner has fist clenched around the arm of person and person looks upset. I ask if everything is okay”. Cronbach’s alpha was reported as 0.91.

The *Sexual Assault Questionnaire* (Frazier & Borgida, 1988) consists of 18 items that measure previous knowledge of sexual assault. Each statement is answered with true, false, or I do not know. An example item states, “victims of attempted rapes are generally much less traumatized than victims of completed rapes.” Cronbach’s alpha was reported as 0.81 in the original study.

The *Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance- Short Form* (IRMA-SF) (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) was used to control for rape myth acceptance. The short form consists of 20 items that lie on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= “not at all agree,” and 7= “very much agree”) with high scores displaying high agreeance with statements concerning myths associated with rape. Items included statements such as “if a woman does not physically fight back, you cannot really say it was rape,” and “men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.” The IRMA-SF has an excellent internal consistency, as Cronbach’s alpha is 0.87.

The *Basic Empathy in Adults Scale* (Jolloffe & Farrington, 2006; Appendix G) consists of 19 items that assess for empathy in adults. Measured on a five-point Likert-type scale, participants were asked to report to the degree in which they agree or disagree (1- “strongly disagree”, 3= “neither agree or disagree,” and 5 “strongly agree”). An example item states, “I can understand my friend’s happiness when she/he does well at something.” The internal consistency for empathy is good, the Cronbach’s alpha is .85 (Jolloffe & Farrington, 2006).

Procedure

Using M-Turk, potential participants were invited to participate if they were fluent English speakers, United States citizens, and over the age of 18. M-Turk allows individuals to take surveys for momentary reimbursement in the comfort of their own homes, on personal

computers or smart phones. If interested in participating, individuals were routed to the informed consent, which provided information about the nature of the study. Participants were then required to select “I Agree” and “Next” buttons to proceed with the study. In the following pages, participants were presented with the first block of surveys that included the Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (Pekaar, Bakker, Van Der Linden, & Born, 2018), the Bystander Efficacy Scale (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2005), the Bystander Intent Scale, (Banyard, Moynihan, Cares, Warner, 2014), and the Modified Bystander Behaviors Scale (Coker, Cook-Craig, Williams, Fisher, Clear, Garcia, & Hegge, 2011). This first block of surveys was presented in random order. Following the first block of surveys, participants were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. The final block of surveys was also presented in random order. These surveys included the Sexual Assault Questionnaire (Frazier & Borgida, 1988), the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA; Lonsway, 1999), and the Basic Empathy Scale in Adults (Carre, Stefaniak, D’Ambrosio, Bensalah, Besche- Richard, 2013). Finally, participants were rerouted to the debriefing form upon completing the survey. Surveys were positioned in this order to prevent participants from identifying the research questions and to avoid socially desirable responding due to possible priming that could occur because of the IRMA-SF.

Results

Hypothesis 1: EI will demonstrate a significantly unique contribution, beyond established factors, to the prediction of bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent.

Bystander Behaviors

Three hierarchical linear regressions were conducted to determine if the addition of EI improved the prediction of bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent over and above rape myth acceptance, knowledge of sexual assault, and self-reported levels of empathy. The full model, including EI, rape myth acceptance, knowledge of sexual assault, and empathy, to the prediction of bystander behaviors, was not significant, $R^2 = .01$, $F_{(1, 200)} = 1.27$, $p < .26$. The addition of EI to the prediction of past bystander behaviors did not lead to a significant increase in R^2 change = .01, $F_{(1, 200)} = 1.27$, $p < .26$.

Bystander Efficacy

The full model to the prediction of bystander efficacy was significant, $R^2 = .26$, $F_{(1, 196)} = 13.54$, $p < .001$. Adding EI to the prediction of bystander efficacy led to a significant increase in R^2 change = .11, $F_{(1, 96)} = 28.63$, $p < .001$.

Bystander Intent

The full model to the prediction of bystander intent was significant, $R^2 = .33$, $F_{(5, 196)} = 18.91$, $p < .001$. The addition of EI to the prediction of bystander intent led to a significant increase in R^2 change = .10, $F_{(1, 96)} = 29.45$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent will be mediated through the empathetic response.

Bystander Behaviors

To test whether the relationship between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent was mediated through empathy, a moderated mediation was run using Andrew Hayes' Process for Model 7. To examine and test the second hypothesis, the traditional 'c' path was calculated,

and examined whether EI directly impacted any one of the three bystander variables, opposed to our 'c' path which explored whether empathy was a mediating factor in the relationship between emotional intelligence and any one of the three bystander variables, refer to *figure 1* for more information on a general mediation or *figure 2* for the current mediational model. The traditional 'c' path identified a significant relationship between EI and past bystander behaviors ($c = .01$, $t_{(1,200)} = .16$, $p < .87$). The 'b' path- looking at the relationship between empathy and past bystander behaviors- the b path is significant ($b = .30$, $t_{(199)} = 5.47$, $p < .001$). Finally, for the 'c' path where EI's relationship to past bystander behaviors while also accounting for empathy is taken into consideration, there is a significant relationship ($c' = -.09$, $t_{(199)} = -2.12$, $p = .04$). This does not imply full mediation.

Bystander Efficacy

To examine bystander efficacy (*figure 3*), the traditional 'c' path was found and is significant to the relationship between EI and bystander efficacy ($c = 5.97$, $t_{(199)} = 5.53$, $p < .001$). The 'b' path- looking at the relationship between empathy and bystander efficacy- the 'b' path is significant ($b = -3.68$, $t_{(199)} = -2.46$, $p < .01$). Finally, for the 'c' path where we are taking into consideration EI's relationship to past bystander efficacy while also accounting for empathy, we do see a significant relationship ($c' = 7.16$, $t_{(199)} = 6.11$, $p < .001$), this does not imply a mediation.

Bystander Intent

To examine and test our second hypothesis in connection to bystander intent (*figure 4*), the traditional 'c' path was calculated and identified a significant relationship between EI and bystander intent ($c = .40$, $t_{(199)} = 7.72$, $p < .001$). The 'b' path- looking at the relationship between empathy and bystander intent- the 'b' path is significant ($b = .30$, $t_{(199)} = -4.35$, $p < .001$). Finally,

for the 'c' path, where we are taking into consideration EI relationship to past bystander intent while also accounting for empathy, there is a significant relationship ($c'=.30$, $t_{(199)}=.5.52$, $p<.001$). This does not imply a mediation.

Hypothesis 3: The relation between EI and empathetic response differs as a function of sex

To test whether the relationship between EI and bystander dependent outcomes were mediated through empathy and whether this was relation differed as a function of sex, a moderated mediation was run using Andrew Hayes' Process for the model. All three models examined empathy's relationship between emotional intelligence and our three bystander dependent outcomes (behaviors, efficacy, and intent). Given previous literature that establishing emotional intelligence typically differs across sex, it was predicted the relationship between EI and empathetic response would also differ across sex, which was the moderated relation. The moderated 'a' path was the same across all three models. There was not a statistically significant moderated effect of sex as evidenced by both the moderating variable and the interaction term. Across all three models, sex was not associated with past bystander behaviors, intent, or efficacy. Refer to *figures 1, 2, 3, and 4*.

Discussion

The current findings fill a gap in the previous literature as this study is the first to examine the following variables: EI, bystander behaviors, intent, and efficacy. The first hypothesis stating that EI will demonstrate a significantly unique contribution, beyond established factors, to the prediction of bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent, was partially supported. Within two of the models, the addition of EI to the bystander efficacy and intent was significant; meaning that EI does have a statistically unique contribution to the prediction of

bystander efficacy and intent above established predictors, (i.e., previous knowledge of sexual assault, rape myth acceptance, and empathy) but not past bystander behaviors. These findings may be attributed to the participants, who reported high levels of EI, claim that as bystanders they had a sufficient level of self-efficacy and the intent to intervene, but when looking at their actual behaviors they did not intervene in such a situation. The second hypothesis stating that the relationship between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent would be statistically mediated through empathy was not supported. Within all the models, the proposed relationships between EI and bystander behaviors, efficacy, or intent was not mediated through empathy. The final hypothesis stated that the relation between EI and empathetic response would differ as a function of sex. There was not a statistically significant moderated effect of sex as evidenced by both our moderating variable of sex and the interaction term of EI and sex.

Both cross-sectional design and social desirability are limitations of the current study. The cross-sectional design does not allow for inferences of causality, only that significant correlations were observed. Another limitation is the use of self-reported data; although challenging to collect any other form of data given the restraints of the study, this may have created a social desirability response bias (Leary, 2012). Considering the questions asked, it is possible that participants adjusted their scores to make themselves appear better on a variety of scales used in the current study.

The investigators recommend that researchers further explore the possible relationship between EI and bystander intent and efficacy. Finally, researchers could examine whether EI impacts the efficacy of participants in bystander intervention programming and if so – whether programming needs to be tailored to participants based on this variable.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between EI and three bystander dependent outcomes. The study was designed to better comprehend the factors (e.g., empathy, EI) among those who intervene (i.e., bystanders) in a potential sexual assault. Additionally, this study increased the current understanding of empathy and EI. The findings conclude that EI does have a statistically unique contribution to the prediction of bystander intent and efficacy. This finding could mean that those who report high levels of EI are more likely to report that in a potential sexual assault, they believe that they are likely to intervene. Additionally, these individuals believe that they have higher levels of self-efficacy when it comes to identifying and their ability to intervene, but not when it comes to actual past behavior.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics (N=200)

	Frequency (N)	Percentage
<u>Biological Sex</u>		
Male	119	58.90%
Female	83	41.10%
<u>Sexual Orientation</u>		
Asexual	14	6.90%
Bisexual	56	27.70%
Lesbian	2	1.00%
Heterosexual/ Straight	129	63.90%
Sexual orientation not listed	1	0.50%
<u>Race</u>		
Asian	105	52.00%
Black	6	3.00%
Hispanic	11	5.40%
Native American	4	2.00%
White	75	37.10%
Other	1	0.50%
<u>Education</u>		
High School/ GED	17	8.40%
Currently attending college	3	1.50%
Some college	44	21.80%
Associates degree	48	23.80%
Currently in graduate school	16	7.90%
Graduate school/ Professional degree	74	36.60%
<u>Socio-Economic Status</u>		
Working Class	24	11.90%
Lower Middle-Class	32	15.80%
Middle-Class	117	57.90%
Upper Middle-Class	29	14.40%
<u>Employment</u>		
Unemployed	10	5.00%
Looking for work	11	5.40%
Work study/ assistantship	6	3.00%
Student	10	5.00%
Part-time	32	15.80%
Full Time	133	65.80%

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale	104.02	13.72
Bystander Efficacy Scale	1450.00	224.79
Past Bystander Behaviors Scale	48.00	10.48
Bystander Intent Scale	85.00	11.34
Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	130.00	28.91
Previous Knowledge of Sexual Assault	57.00	6.92
Basic Empathy Scale in Adults	99.00	10.73

Table 3

Correlational Statistics

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale	1						
2. Bystander Efficacy Scale	.364**	1					
3. Past Bystander Behaviors Scale	.280**	-.42	1				
4. Bystander Intent Scale	.479**	.442**	.469**	1			
5. Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	.168*	-.236**	-.765**	.334**	1		
6. Previous Knowledge of Sexual Assault	-.231**	-.054	-.306**	-.298**	-.328**	1	
7. Basic Empathy Scale in Adults	.416**	.006	.595**	.434**	.699**	-.283**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2- tailed)

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Figure 1

General Moderated Mediation

Figure 1 shows a general mediation model for Hayes Process Model Number 7. As can be seen, path 'c' refers to the pathway that examines the difference and relatedness between the X (e.g., EI) and Mi (e.g., empathy) variables. Variable W (e.g., sex) refers to the moderated variable. The moderated variable can be defined as the for whom is this event most likely to occur for. Path 'a' examines for who this event is happening to because of the relationship between the X and Mi variables. The variable Y looks at the bystander related variables that change depending on the model. Path 'b' looks at the relationship between Mi (e.g., empathy) and Y (e.g., bystander behaviors, efficacy, and intent). The traditional 'c' pathway examines the relationship between the X and Y variables. When statistical mediation has occurred, the inclusion of the hypothesized mediating variable results in path 'c' no longer being significant and magnitude of association reduces, this can be found in the 'c' pathway.

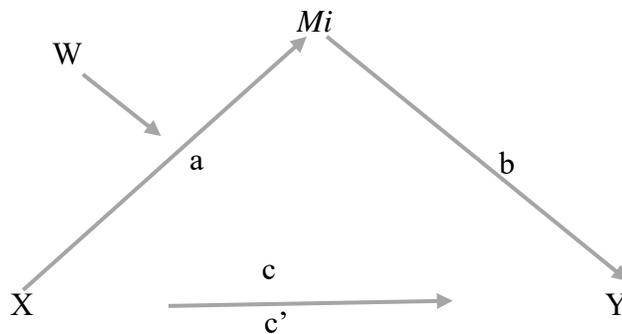


Figure 2

Moderated Mediation for Past Bystander Behaviors

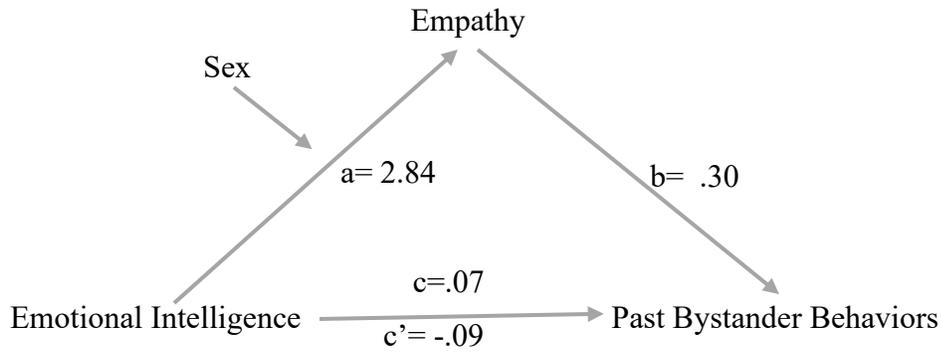


Figure 3

Moderated Mediation for Bystander Efficacy

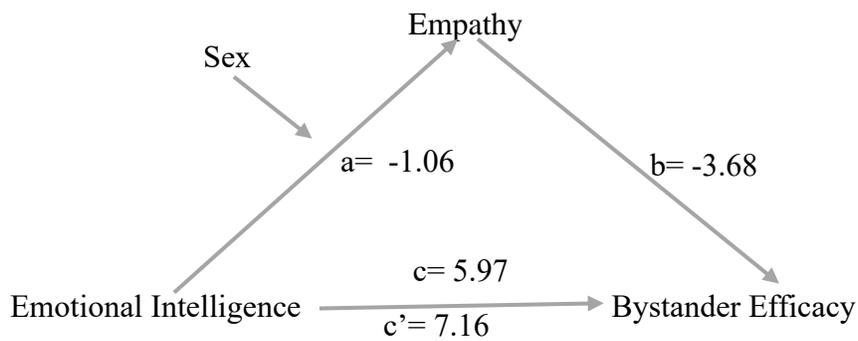
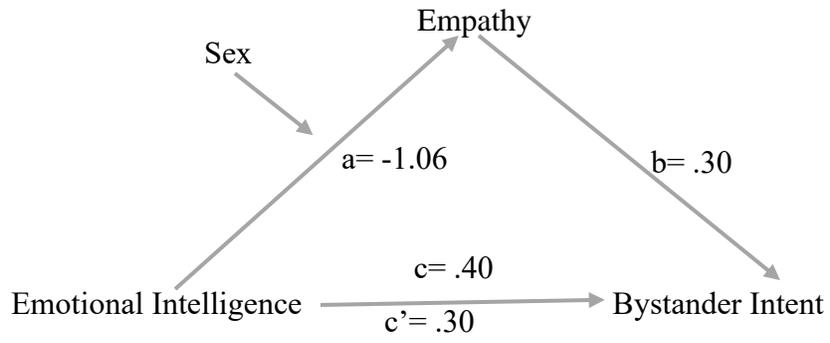


Figure 4

Moderated Mediation for Bystander Intent



References

- Austin, E. J., Evans, P., Magnus, B., & Ohanlon, K. (2007). A preliminary study of empathy, emotional intelligence and examination performance in MBChB students. *Medical Education*, 41(7), 684-689.
- Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., Cares, A. C., & Warner, R. (2014). How do we know if it works? Measuring outcomes in bystander-focused abuse prevention on campuses. *Psychology of Violence*, 4(1), 101–115.
- Banyard, V. L., Plante, E.G., & Moynihan, M.M. (2004). Bystander education: Bringing a broader community perspective to sexual violence prevention. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 32, 61-79.
- Batson, C. D. (2010). Empathy-induced altruistic motivation. *Prosocial motives, emotions, and behaviors: the better angles of our nature* (pp.15-35).
- Black, B., Weisz, A. N., & Jayasundara, D. S. (2012). Dating violence and sexual assault prevention with African American middle schoolers: Does group gender composition impact dating violence attitudes? *Child & Youth Services*, 33(2), 158–173.
- Carrothers, R. M., Gregory, S. W., Jr., & Gallagher, T. J. (2000). Measuring emotional intelligence of medical school applicants. *Academic Medicine*, 75(5), 456–463.
- Center for Sex Offender Management. (2015). Fact sheet: What you need to know about sex offenders. Retrieved from <https://www.csom.org/> on June 5, 2019.

- Ciarrochi, J. V., Chan, A. Y. C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(3), 539–561.
- Coker, A. L., Cook-Craig, P. G., Williams, C. M., Fisher, B. S., Clear, E. R., Garcia, L. S., & Hegge, L. M. (2011). Evaluation of Green Dot: An active bystander intervention to reduce sexual violence on college campuses. *Violence Against Women*, 17(6), 777–796.
- Department of Justice. (2017). Rape and Sexual Assault. Retrieved June, 2019, from <https://www.bjs.gov/index.cfm?ty=tp&tid=317>
- Diem, T. K. S. (2000, November). *A cross validation of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale*. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*. ProQuest Information & Learning. Retrieved from <https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2000-95022-080&site=ehost-live>
- Elam, C. L. (2000). Use of “Emotional Intelligence” as One Measure of Medical School Applicants' Noncognitive Characteristics. *Academic Medicine*, 75(5), 445-446.
- Estévez, E., Jiménez, T. I., & Segura, L. (2019). Emotional intelligence and empathy in aggressors and victims of school violence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 111(3), 488–496.
- Finkelhor, D. (1994). Current information on the scope and nature of child sexual assault. *Future of Children*, 4, 31-53

Gray, M. J., Klien, T. M., Binion, K., & Amaya, S. (2018). Campus Climate Report.

Retrieved from <http://www.uwyo.edu/stop/climate-survey/>

Hamby, S., Weber, M. C., Grych, J., & Banyard, V. (2016). What difference do bystanders make? The association of bystander involvement with victim outcomes in a community sample. *Psychology of Violence, 6*(1), 91–102.

Hart, T.C., & Miethe, T.D. (2008). Exploring bystander presents and intervention in nonfatal violent victimization: When does helping really help? *Violence and Victims, 23*, 637-651.

Hust, S. J. T., Rodgers, K. B., Ebreo, S., & Stefani, W. (2019). Rape myth acceptance, efficacy, and heterosexual scripts in men's magazines: Factors associated with intentions to sexually coerce or intervene. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 34*(8), 1703–1733.

Jolliffe, D., & Farrington, D.P. (2006). Development and validation of the basic empathy scale. *Journal of Adolescence, 29*, 589-611

Kettrey, H.H. & Marx, R.A. (2019) The effects of bystander programs on the prevention of sexual assault across the college years: A systematic review and meta- Analysis. *Journal of Youth Adolescence*.

Kilpatrick, D.G., Resnick, H.S., Ruggiero, K.J., Consenti, L.M. & McCauley, J. (2007) Drug facilitated, incapacitated and forcible rape: A national study. National Crime Victims Research & Treatment Center, Charleston, SC.

Leary, M. R. (2011). *Introduction to behavioral research methods mysearchlab with pearson*

etext (Sixth ed.). Place of publication not identified: Prentice Hall.

Lukacena, K. M., Reynolds-Tylus, T., & Quick, B. L. (2019). An application of the reasoned action approach to bystander intervention for sexual assault. *Health Communication*, 34, 46-53.

Mercer Kollar, L. M., Peng, L., Ports, K. A., & Shen, L. (2019). Who will be a bystander? An exploratory study of first-person perception effects on campus bystander behavioral intentions. *Journal of Family Violence*.

McManhon, S. & Banyard, V. L. (2012). When can I help? A conceptual framework for preventing violence through bystander intervention. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 13, 3-14.

Owens, E. S., McPharlin, F. W. H., Brooks, N., & Fritzon, K. (2018). The effects of empathy, emotional intelligence and psychopathy on interpersonal interactions. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 25(1), 1–18.

Pekaar, K. A., Bakker, A. B., van der Linden, D., & Born, M. P. (2018). Self- and other-focused emotional intelligence: Development and validation of the Rotterdam Emotional Intelligence Scale (REIS). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 120, 222–233.

Planty, M. (2002). Third-party involvement in violent crime, 1993–1999. National Institute of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report. Rockville, MD: *Justice Statistics Clearing house*

- Van Noorden TH1, Haselager GJ, Cillessen AH, Bukowski WM. (2014) Empathy and involvement in bullying in children and adolescents: a systematic review. *Journal of Youth Adolescent*. (3):637-57
- Smith A. (2006). Cognitive empathy and emotional intelligence in human behaviors and evolution. *The Psychological Record*, 56, 3-21
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (n.d.). Retrieved June 1, 2019, from <https://www.usa.gov/federal-agencies/u-s-department-of-health-and-human-services>
- Statistics. (2019). Retrieved June, 2019, from <https://www.rainn.org/statistics>
- Schwartz. M.D., & DeKeseredy, W.S. (1997). Sexual assault on the college campus: The role of male peer support. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage,
- Zapp, D., Buelow, R., Soutiea, L., Berkowitz, A., & Dejong, W. (2018). Exploring the Potential Campus-Level Impact of Online Universal Sexual Assault Prevention Education. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*.