

DISSERTATION

FEDERAL SEXUAL MISCONDUCT POLICY IMPACT ON INTERSECTIONAL  
IDENTITIES: A CRITICAL QUANTITATIVE STUDY

Submitted by

John S. Gardner

School of Education

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Doctoral Committee:

Advisor: Laurie Carlson

David Most  
Susana Munoz  
Susan Tungate

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## ABSTRACT

### FEDERAL SEXUAL MISCONDUCT POLICY IMPACT ON INTERSECTIONAL IDENTITIES: A CRITICAL QUANTITATIVE STUDY

Sexual misconduct is an epidemic on college campuses. Studies show consistently that one in five women on college campuses experience sexual assault during their academic career. When a broader range of types of sexual misconduct are included, the percentage of women and other gendered students who experienced sexual misconduct increases greatly, to at times above 50%, in the literature. Additionally, racial and ethnic minorities, trans\* and gender non-binary persons, lesbian, and gay, and bisexual persons all experience sexual victimization at higher rates than their dominant group peers according to research studies. Research has neglected to address how intersectional identities experience sexual misconduct. In 2013, the federal government passed the Violence Against Women Reauthorization of 2013 in order, in part, to address sexual misconduct on college campuses. The bill specifically focused on prevention efforts and reporting requirements for institutions of higher education. This study utilized a critical quantitative methodology to explore the question of how students have experienced the federal policy change at 21 Missouri institutions of higher education from 2012-2016 using an intersectionality framework. Within this issue, it is important to understand how marginalized populations were or were not served by policy and if the policy change impacted the rates of sexual misconduct.

The study found that the Violence Against Women's Act of 2013 impacted different intersectional social locations differently. The data indicated the potential for effective educational efforts and increased assistance when examining the whole study population. In

examining all participants over the five years of the study, there was a general indication of increased experience of sexual misconduct across several categories of sexual misconduct. The data also suggested more participants sought assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct over the time period of the study for the entire population of the study. However, the participants did not indicate that the effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual misconduct increased.

A general theme across many social locations was the benefit of privileged aspects of social locations such as heterosexual or White, European-American, or Caucasian participants often had a better response in the data to the VAWA 2013 policy change compared to their less privileged peers. Inequity regarding the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change was also evident with gender and ethnicity regarding transgender participants, gender and race regarding Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander participants, and race and sexuality regarding lesbian, queer, and questioning participants amongst other social locations throughout the time period of the study. The complexity of the 62 different social locations provides pathways for both praxis and future research.

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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this effort to Lexi, Emerson, and Tarasa. You three continue to push me each day to be a better person. You have all been brave, strong, and kind to me and for me in this process. I hope to live up to who you see me as.

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### **Introduction**

There has been a large amount of research over the last thirty years indicating a high rate of sexual misconduct on college campuses. The National Sexual Violence Research Center (NSVRC) indicated that 20% of college women and 6% of college men are victims of sexual violence over the course of their academic career (Palumbo, 2017). The NSVRC did not indicate how trans\* and gender non-conforming students are impacted by sexual misconduct. Almost 80% of victim/survivors never report their experience of sexual misconduct to school authorities (Palumbo, 2017). The issue of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education (IHE) predates the preponderance of the research which has occurred in the last 30 years.

Starting in 2011, the United States federal government began to provide guidance for IHE on responding to sexual misconduct since 2001. The initial offering came in the form of a Dear Colleague Letter (DCL) in 2011 that shared guidance on how to review incidents of sexual misconduct in a timely manner, the use of preponderance of the evidence as the evidentiary standard, and 42 separate acts defined as sexual misconduct, amongst other directives (U. S. Department of Education, 2011).

The federal government followed with legislation in the form of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 (VAWA 2013). VAWA 2013 section 304 focused on legislative requirements for higher education (Senate Bill 47, 2013). Section 304 of VAWA 2013 (Appendix A), often referred to as the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (Campus SaVE Act), served as an update to the requirements in the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (Senate Bill 580, 1989; Senate Bill 47, 2013). The

changes included in VAWA 2013 included new reporting requirements, student conduct requirements, and educational efforts for students and employees in order to address and prevent sexual misconduct. VAWA 2013 legislated efforts that colleges and universities were required to take in order to attempt to prevent sexual misconduct. It is those efforts to prevent sexual misconduct and reporting processes that this study considered.

The intent of VAWA 2013 was articulated when it was introduced to the United States Senate by Senator Patrick Leahy of Vermont. Leahy stated in his speech introducing VAWA 2013:

It is our hope that the Senate will act quickly to pass this strong, bipartisan bill to help all victims of domestic and sexual violence...The Center for Disease Control and Prevention's 2010 National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey found that one in four women has been the victim of severe physical domestic violence and one in five women has been raped in her lifetime...We also learned of harrowing new accounts of sexual assaults on college campuses...It would increase VAWA's focus on sexual assault and push colleges to strengthen their efforts to protect students from domestic and sexual violence. (Carle, 2013)

It is understood from Leahy's statement that one of the goals of the law was to prevent sexual misconduct on college campuses.

Additionally, the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) for the Department of Education provided additional guidance in 2014 and 2017. The focus of the DCL in 2014 was to provide notice that any retribution by another student or staff member towards a victim/survivor of sexual misconduct was prohibited (U. S. Department of Education, 2014). The DCL in 2017, withdrew the guidance provided in both the 2011 and 2014 DCL (U. S. Department of



Education, 2017). While the 2017 DCL certainly changed the landscape from a guidance perspective, the changes legislated in VAWA 2013 were not repealed. Based on the 2017 DCL, it appears the reversal of the guidance provided in the 2011 and 2014 DCL is based on anecdotal stories of respondents and devalues the experience of victim/survivors. The 2017 DCL particularly highlighted the desire of OCR to not use the preponderance of evidence as the evidentiary standard and that due process guidance was not providing protection for the accused. By focusing on anecdotal stories of institutions failing to properly implement due process guidelines, the 2017 DCL privileges the stories of accused perpetrators without considering the victim/survivors. Regarding VAWA 2013, reporting and educational/prevention efforts remained in effect. It is the specificity of the VAWA 2013 requirements related to prevention and reporting of sexual misconduct that this study will investigate.

### **Statement of Problem**

Sexual misconduct is a serious concern on college campuses. The rate of occurrence and trauma caused by sexual misconduct is disruptive to the learning environment and wellness of students. For more than 30 years, the research has remained consistent on the rate of sexual misconduct on college campuses. The amount of intervention by the federal government with the 2011 and 2014 DCL and VAWA 2013 was unprecedented. There is no known evaluation of the VAWA 2013 policy change (Section 304) on a large scale. Additionally, there is no known understanding of how sexual misconduct policy impacts various minoritized identities of students using an intersectional framework.

## **Research Questions**

The primary research questions focused on how the VAWA 2013 policy change affected the rate of sexual misconduct and the rate of services sought for victim/survivors of intersectional identities over time. The research questions are:

1. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
2. How much did the rate of services sought for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
3. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct for victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
4. How much did the rate of services sought for sexual misconduct by victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?

## **Significance of the Study**

The negative impact of sexual misconduct on victim/survivors in a college setting is not debatable. Tremblay et al. (2008) found amongst their participants that sexual misconduct was the worst social experience students have. Jordan, Combs, and Smith (2014) noted the negative impact sexual misconduct had on academic outcomes for the participants in their study.

Sexual misconduct occurs at disturbingly high rates and occurs at higher rates with marginalized populations (Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Porter and Williams, 2011). IHE are actively attempting to stop sexual misconduct on college campuses with the largest concentrated effort occurring with the VAWA 2013 policy changes.

However, the literature has indicated that prevention is challenging to achieve. Studies indicated that prevention programs had limited success in reducing incidence of sexual misconduct (Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Burn, 2009). It is not consistent within the literature if the prevention efforts should be focused on repeat perpetrators or cultural issues leading to one-time perpetration, such as hegemonic masculinity (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak & Miller, 2002; Swartout et al., 2015; Tharp et al., 2015). Sexual misconduct is a complex and challenging problem.

The federal legislation and guidance provided in the 2011 and 2014 DCL and in VAWA 2013 changed the landscape of higher education in regard to sexual misconduct. In particular, the VAWA 2013 policy change implemented lasting requirements for reporting and prevention efforts that, if prevention worked, should have reduced the occurrence of sexual misconduct. Given the importance of this issue, it is central to understand if the policy change impacted rates of sexual misconduct and how marginalized populations were or were not served by the policy.

### **Theoretical Base**

This study was situated using an intersectional framework to consider how minoritized intersectional identities were impacted by the federal sexual misconduct policy changes. Utilizing this framework allows a focus on intersectional minoritized populations. Studies on

sexual misconduct and minoritized populations have tended to focus on comparing single minoritized identities to the dominant population. By using an intersectional framework to consider minoritized identities, this study can add to the literature and understanding of sexual misconduct.

This research was situated in a critical perspective. The phenomenon studied, sexual misconduct, was being considered from a perspective of societal structures that cause injustice and oppression and create inequity. By focusing on equity and challenging the status quo, this study examined concepts beyond the common quantitative data investigation (Stage, 2007A). Within sexual misconduct, minoritized populations have consistently been demonstrated in the research to be victimized at a higher rate than the dominant population and overall population (Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011; Porter and Williams, 2011). Teranishi (2007) noted that approaching research that specifically includes participants from different perspectives rather than only the dominant perspective is important in critical quantitative research. It is important to note that in sexual misconduct research, the dominant, or most commonly studied, story when referring to victim/survivor populations focuses on White, cisgender women (Burn, 2009; Corprew & Mitchell, 2014; Crenshaw, 1991; Porter & Williams, 2011; Postmus, Warrenner, McMahon, & Macri, 2011). Studies demonstrated that trans\* persons, people of color, and other marginalized identities experienced sexual misconduct at higher levels than White cisgender women (Crenshaw, 1991; Porter & Williams, 2011). In considering sexual misconduct from a critical quantitative perspective, the investigation of the data considers sexual misconduct to be a socially non-neutral event. Sexual misconduct is most certainly not a neutral event. Baez (2007) notes that critical quantitative research should be situated within cultural expectations and norms. St. John (2007) focused on the need for any inequality in policy to benefit the most

disadvantaged. Critical quantitative research challenges the status quo and looks to address questions that focus on aspects of participant experience which are normally ignored, like intersectionality.

Power relationships, culture, and personal interactions are at the core of intersectionality (Leung, 2017). Mackinnon (2013) and Anthias (2014) note that intersectionality is not the additive quality of multiple identities but the unique experience of the intersection of those identities. For example, a Black woman's experience is not the combination of being Black and being a woman. Being a Black woman is a unique experience that is wholly separated from a Black transgender person or a Latina woman. Sexual misconduct research often privileges White and middle class women (Cole, 2009). Cultural characteristics such as hegemonic masculinity, through social and personal interactions and cultural norms, can lead to an increased likelihood that sexual misconduct becomes a common experience for minoritized gendered populations (Anthias, 2014).

As previously noted in this chapter, the concern related to sexual misconduct is more than merited with 20% of women and 6% of men experiencing sexual misconduct. However, what that number fails to recognize is the complexity of the identities of those who are victimized. Studies, as the literature review will show, have demonstrated that single minoritized identities, such as people of color, lesbian, gay, and bisexual people, and trans\* and gender non-conforming individuals, oftentimes experience sexual misconduct at much higher rate than their dominant group peers. There is a need to understand the impact on inequity from sexual misconduct policy amongst various intersectional identities. The framework of inequity of power within intersectional identities related to sexual misconduct has not been explored using an intersectional framework.

## **Role of the Researcher**

In quantitative research, researchers make a number of choices that impact the research based on who the researcher is. Perhaps the study topic is determined by an experience or identity of the researcher. The quantitative tests are certainly driven by variable types and questions asked. However, what questions are asked, what variables are created, and whether those variables are scale, ordinal, or some other type can be driven by the researcher.

To that end, it is important for the readers to know that this researcher is a White, cisgender, heterosexual man. My religious beliefs are Methodist Christian. I come from an upper middle class background and currently am upper middle class. I have experience professionally and personally in working with victim/survivors and perpetrators of sexual misconduct. I have had friends and family members impacted by sexual misconduct. My professional experience covers everything from adjudicating sexual misconduct cases to serving as an advisor to respondents to assisting students who are reporting sexual misconduct.

Much of my professional experience with sexual misconduct occurred around the time of the policy changes this study is investigating. During the implementation of VAWA 2013 and the years afterward, reports of sexual misconduct continued to pour into the department in which I worked. I now serve as a Title IX Coordinator. I have known students to stop out or severely struggle academically after experiencing sexual misconduct. While the policy change was better than no change, it did not address many of the structural inequities related to sexual misconduct and minoritized populations. My anecdotal experience indicated that VAWA 2013 did not create the outcomes articulated by Senator Leahy. Furthering my understanding through a structured investigation of the phenomenon is an appropriate way to determine if my experience is founded.

## Definitions of Terms

Research in the area of sexual misconduct varies greatly in what the research is actually studying. Many studies focus on a specific aspect of sexual misconduct, such as rape or attempted rape. Other studies use broader terminology, such as sexual violence, victimization, or assault. It is important in a study on sexual misconduct to understand what terminology means.

**Sexual misconduct:** This study will use sexual misconduct because it is more inclusive of a variety of sexually unwanted acts than rape, sexual assault, or other terms used in research.

Universities and colleges in the state of Missouri commonly refer to sexual misconduct in their policy and educational information (Missouri Western State University, 2015; Missouri State University, 2015; University of Missouri, 2015; Northwest Missouri State University, 2014; University of Central Missouri, 2014). VAWA 2013 utilizes sexual assault, sexual victimization, and rape, amongst other terms, which leads to the need to utilize a more inclusive terminology (Senate Bill 47, 2013). Several studies also promote the use of sexual misconduct as a terminology to use in future research (Burns, 2008; Guerette & Caron, 2007; Koss, 2011; Krivoshey et al., 2013).

**Victim/Survivor:** The terminology of victim or survivor for those who have experienced sexual misconduct is often debated in the literature and practice. Literature uses both victim and survivor to describe those who have experienced sexual misconduct. Given that this study is a quantitative study in which the participants do not have an opportunity to define their experience in their own way, a combination victim/survivor will be used.

**Perpetrator:** The term perpetrator is used to describe a person who commits sexual misconduct against another. Other terms that are used in studies are the offender, respondent, attacker, assaulter, and other terms are sometimes used. Perpetrator is used here because it is not

connected to being accused or charged with sexual misconduct (offender or respondent). Additionally, it is not associated with a connotation of someone jumping out of bushes (attacker) or associated with a particular type of sexual misconduct (assaulter, rapist, etc.).

### **Organization of Study Procedures**

This study is a critical quantitative investigation utilizing an intersectionality framework to examine the impact of VAWA 2013 as a policy change on sexual misconduct at specific institutions of higher education that were surveyed in Missouri. The study used data gathered from the Missouri College Health Behavior Survey (MCHBS) from 2012-2016 to address research questions related to change in occurrence of sexual misconduct and services sought with a focus on minoritized intersectional identities. The study used a policy analysis and trends analysis to answer the research questions. From a policy analysis perspective, the study focused on how the participants experienced the policy. From a trends analysis perspective the study focused on change over time as analyzed by the researcher. The data analysis did not use statistical significance, as it has a tendency to silence voices of minority populations. Statistical significance often requires a certain size of samples in order to complete significance, and that can be challenging to find with many intersectional identity samples. Therefore, studies often exclude minoritized populations from data analysis that uses statistical significance.

### **Conclusion**

Sexual misconduct has been an issue on college campuses for many years. Research has noted the extensive nature of the problem for the past 30 years. Recently the federal government introduced policy related to sexual misconduct on college campuses in order to reduce the occurrence of sexual misconduct and improve services for victim survivors. The effectiveness of these policy changes needs to be investigated using an organized research



investigation. In particular, this study utilized an intersectionality theory framework to consider sexual misconduct and include a focus on the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change on minoritized intersectional identities of students. Utilizing the MCHBS survey instrument, this study attempted to understand the impact of this policy change on participants' experiences.

In order to understand the phenomena of sexual misconduct and ensure the need for the study, it is important to consider the literature related to sexual misconduct and connect it to the theoretical framework. The following chapter analyzes and synthesizes peer reviewed research related to sexual misconduct on college campuses. Occurrence, perpetration, experience, prevention, and other aspects of sexual misconduct were considered in the review of literature. Additionally, the theoretical framework of intersectionality will be explored.

Chapter three included an in-depth discussion of methodology. Using policy analysis and trends analysis as methodological models, the chapter explored the use of a critical quantitative approach. Additionally, the use of intersectionality with quantitative data was explored. The chapter concluded by discussing the sampling, instrument, and data analysis which did not include use of significance.

Chapter four described the findings in depth. Research Question One and Two are discussed regarding the impact of rate of sexual misconduct, rate of sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault, and the effectiveness of the assistance sought after experiencing sexual assault for all participants. Additionally, the chapter explored in depth each of the experiences of the various social locations regarding rate of sexual misconduct, rate of sought assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct, and the effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual misconduct for all participants. This chapter explains in detail what the study found.

Chapter five explained the findings from Chapter four in the context of the literature. The discussion focuses on how intersectional social locations responded to the VAWA 2013 policy change. There were many instances discovered that indicated a more positive response by privileged social locations that included identities such “heterosexual,” “White, European-American, or Caucasian,” and cisgender participants. While the study is certainly not conclusive, considering the findings with the literature is suggestive of policy that did not serve marginalized intersectional identities.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### **Introduction**

This review of literature analyzed and synthesized literature related to sexual misconduct. The literature review considered the following sexual misconduct topical areas: prevention of sexual misconduct, cultural factors promoting sexual misconduct, occurrence of sexual misconduct, experience of sexual misconduct, perpetration of sexual misconduct, connection between alcohol and sexual misconduct, and support for victim/survivors. Additionally, intersectionality was explored as the theoretical framework of the study.

The research indicated the ineffectiveness of prevention efforts and wide variation amongst the different studies of occurrence and perpetration of sexual misconduct. Within the literature, there was also inconsistency about seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct, the level of support received, and the experience of that support. This review of literature is situated within the context of the policy changes related to the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 section 304, commonly referred to as the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act or Campus SaVE Act (Senate Bill 47, 2013), which has shifted the landscape on college campuses regarding sexual misconduct.

While VAWA 2013 was intended to reduce sexual misconduct on college campuses and increase victim survivors' support, the literature indicated a cultural complexity with sexual misconduct that may make change through policy more challenging than anticipated. This provision of VAWA 2013 provided several compliance changes regarding prevention, education, adjudication, support, definition, and other aspects of sexual misconduct on college campuses. In

reviewing each aspect of the literature regarding sexual misconduct, the researcher attempted to consider the policy implications or aspects of the literature as well.

### **Theoretical Framework**

In investigating the literature and policy changes related to VAWA 2013, it became evident that the policy was written from a liberal feminist perspective. A liberal feminist perspective works to create sameness for women as for men and often desires women to behave like men (Hopkins & Koss, 2005; Sallee, 2008). While that may seem like an enviable goal to some, it completely ignored the privileging of masculine norms and power relationships within society (Gardiner, 2005; Hopkins & Koss, 2005). This study will utilize a feminist intersectional framework (referred to as intersectionality) in order to take into account complexity of the student experience related to sexual misconduct. That complexity lies within the intersectionality of identities of students and the dynamics of social power that each of those identities have. Using intersectionality will interrogate the policy in how it understands gender and other identities.

#### **Intersectionality defined**

When first introduced by Crenshaw (1989), intersectionality discussed the impact of Black women's experience in legal cases. In particular, three legal cases highlighted noted that White women obscured Black women's experiences and that Black women were not permitted to represent women or Black people in a legal setting (Crenshaw, 1989). These demarcations in the legal setting demonstrated the limitations of antiracist and feminist perspectives in terms of understanding and representing the experience of minoritized intersectional identities. Crenshaw articulated this concept, "Race and sex, moreover, become significant only when they operate to

explicitly disadvantage the victims; because the privileging of whiteness or maleness is implicit, it is generally not perceived at all” (1989, p. 151).

Intersectionality is not simply multidimensionality. Anthias (2014) notes the way diversity has been generalized that all experiences are equally valued. Intersectionality challenges the equal value of all experiences by focusing on the social location of intersectional identities related to interplay of institutions, power relationships, culture, and interpersonal interactions (Leung, 2017). Intersectionality is described by several scholars as experience situated in the social location of intersectional identities which is not the additive nature of two or three identities but a unique location that cannot be predicted (Anthias, 2014; Cho, Crenshaw, & McCall, 2013; Clark & McCall, 2013; McKinnon, 2013). This notation of the difference between valuing a variety of aspects of diversity and the impact of power dynamics is important to this perspective. In considering this approach regarding sexual misconduct, this plays into hegemonic masculinity, Whiteness, and class structure amongst other cultural aspects that contribute to an environment in which sexual misconduct can occur.

Intersectionality is a bottom up theory targeting the White male dominance that creates inequity (MacKinnon, 2013). For example, the rape of Black women is an attack on the Black community in addition to the rape, just as there is a gendered aspect of the lynching of a Black man in addition to the racial component (MacKinnon, 2013). Intersectionality challenges the Whiteness of women, the maleness of people of color, and the heterosexuality of everyone within research (Shields, 2008). Carbado, Crenshaw, Mays, and Tomlinson (2013) shared that “by interrogating the inter-locking ways in which social structures produce and entrench power and marginalization, and by drawing attention to the ways that existing paradigms that produce knowledge and politics often function to normalize these dynamics” (p. 312). This observation

notes the important role of politics and the policy it creates within intersectionality. Policy research works with intersectionality to recognize the specificity of the experience at such social locations (Anthias, 2014).

### **Structural and political intersectionality**

Crenshaw (1991) continued the development of intersectionality as a theoretical concept by offering the different strands of structural and political intersectionality. Structural intersectionality focused on the particular experiences of persons who may not share the same race or class. Political intersectionality, according to Crenshaw (1991), focused on the conflicting policy needs of intersectional identities, such as the conflicting needs within policy for women in relation to Black people. For example, rape policy was used to control Black men and perpetuate the property like chastity of White women. This conflicting policy left Black women discriminated in rape policy through charging, convictions, and sentencing (or lack thereof) of the perpetrators of rape of Black women.

Shields (2008) commented that intersectionality was first based around gender and that gender can only be understood in how it's constituted within other social identities. Structural intersectionality focuses on how an individual's social needs marginalizes them through intersectional identities (Shields, 2008). Verloo (2013) described structural intersectionality as directly related to the experiences of the everyday lives of people. Political intersectionality considers the needs and goals, perhaps different and sometimes conflicting, that the different groups to which an individual belongs (Shields, 2008). Verloo (2013) noted that political intersectionality focuses on identities relevant to political strategies. Specifically, how political strategies related to a single identity axis rarely are neutral towards other identities (Verloo, 2013). Considering sexual misconduct policy is focused on the single axis of women in much of

the policy efforts, how other aspects of victim/survivors identities are largely ignored as noted by Wooten (2017) in the examination of the Not Alone documents. In considering sexual misconduct, while this study is examining policies, it will investigate how those policies impact the participants of the study. This would lead this study to be more in line with structural intersectionality.

### **Intersectionality and quantitative data**

The complexity of intersectionality has often been considered only appropriate utilizing qualitative data. However, considering intersectionality within a critical realism ontological perspective, scholars have noted some alignment. McCall (2005) noted the tie between a critical realism ontological approach and intersectionality. Lincoln, Lynham, and Guba (2011) defined critical realism as having a real reality but only probabilistically apprehendable. Critical realism comes from the post-positivist perspective, which has strong ties to quantitative data.

Quantitative research rarely allows the questions to be driven by intersectionality and uses it as a perspective rather than a theory (Shields, 2008). This study will attempt to drive the research questions using intersectionality. The questions this study will investigate focus on sexual misconduct federal policy change and how that impacts intersectional identities.

### **Intersectionality and policy analysis**

Policy analysis and intersectionality is a partnership that has worked well in research. Political intervention is one avenue to employ intersectionality (Cho, Crenshaw, & McCall, 2013). Verloo (2013) noted the reactive approach to intersectionality that exposes or stigmatizes the marginalizing aspect of policy. Reactive approach focuses on how policies that are designed to address interfering inequalities do not actually address those inequalities (Verloo, 2013). Cho, Crenshaw, and McCall (2013) offered this guidance on the use of intersectionality, "Rather, what

makes an analysis intersectional--whatever terms it deploys, whatever its iteration, whatever its field or discipline--is its adoption of an intersectional way of thinking about the problem of sameness and difference and its relation to power" (p. 795). Utilizing critical realism and a critical quantitative approach pushes the boundaries of intersectionality. Not accepting the status quo and pushing boundaries is core to what intersectionality is. Considering how this theoretical perspective can consider a wider framework of inequity using quantitative data allows research to push further forward with a social justice agenda.

### **Prevention of Sexual Misconduct**

Preventing sexual misconduct is a goal of colleges and universities (White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault, 2014; University of Texas, 2017). Studies have indicated that stopping sexual misconduct is challenging (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). Amongst the studies that focus on prevention of sexual misconduct on college campuses, few indicated strong evidence of the effectiveness of prevention programs in reducing incidents of sexual misconduct.

Early on in the research related to sexual misconduct, there was an identified need for prevention programs. Researchers noted the need for prevention programs for college students to provide policies and definitions, avenues of reporting, and statistics of sexual misconduct (Koss, 1992; White & Humphrey, 1993). Abbey and McAuslan (2004) agreed with the need for prevention programs in adolescence to reduce the onset of belief systems that tolerate behavior leading to sexual misconduct. White and Humphrey (1995) shared that their participants expressed disbelief that they would be victim/survivors of sexual misconduct. The effectiveness of intervention programs was hindered by the belief of the participants that they would not be victimized. Tharp et al. (2015) also agreed that there was a need for prevention programs and



added a caveat that prevention programs should not focus on stopping a few repeat perpetrators only. The participants in their study indicated that 75% of perpetrators committed sexual misconduct only once (Tharp et al., 2015). This group of researchers agreed on the need for prevention programs and shared some findings from their studies that indicated particular directions or areas to address.

### **Varied effectiveness of sexual misconduct prevention programs**

Researchers noted in findings from various studies that effectiveness of prevention efforts was inconsistent. Breitenbecher and Scarce (1999) determined in a longitudinal study of college women that education increased knowledge but did not significantly reduce the risk of experiencing sexual assault. The study attempted to decrease incidents of sexual assault by educating on rape myths, prevalence of sexual assault, sex role socialization, awareness of rape supportive environments, and redefining rape as act of violence. The study utilized the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES) to evaluate the students' experiences (Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999). Burn (2009) and Bradley, Yeater, and O'Donohue (2009) agreed with Breitenbecher and Scarce (1999). Burn (2009) found that the inability to notice a high-risk situation as one of the primary barriers to bystander intervention in sexual misconduct. Bradley, Yeater, and O'Donohue (2009) found inconsistent results with male and female participants regarding prevention efforts to address rape myths, victim/survivor empathy, perceived consequences and likelihood of committing rape, sexual communication, sexual assault awareness, and risky dating behavior. Bradley, Yeater, and O'Donohue (2009) used quantitative methodology, specifically a survey, and noted the need for longitudinal research in the future.

More recently, Rowe, Jouriles, McDonald, Platt, and Gomez (2012) studied a different approach to prevention that indicated some promise. The study was conducted at a private

institution in the Southwest and identified that use of assertiveness for resisting sexual coercion demonstrated promise in reducing sexual victimization (Rowe et al., 2012). Rowe et al. (2012) were able to utilize a quantitative, experimental, and survey methodology. The focus on assertiveness, or skill development, rather than belief structures may be one aspect that separates Rowe et al. (2012) from Burn (2009), Bradley, Yeater, and O'Donohue (2009), and Breitenbecher and Scarce (1999).

From an intersectional perspective, several studies investigated how race and gender interacted with sexual assault. Kalof and Wade (1995) noted that White women in their study accepted rape supportive attitudes at a higher level than Black women. Black women and Black men were in contrast to one another in regards to rape supportive attitudes with Black men being more accepting of rape supportive attitudes. Kalof and Wade's (1995) findings noted all participants did not react to the prevention efforts in the same way. Wooten (2017), in a more recent study of race and sexual assault, noted that amongst eight documents linked from the White House's 2014 Not Alone report on sexual misconduct only one directly mentioned race. The only document that was linked to the Not Alone report that mentioned race was guidelines from the Office of Victim Assistance on creating campus climate survey questions. These studies note the homogenizing of prevention and sexual misconduct in general. Wooten (2017) stated, "By rejecting homogenised constructions of sexual violence, we are better equipped to resist the neo-liberal call for one-size-fits-all educational policies currently reflected in federal initiatives about sexual violence prevention... " (p. 414).

### **Policy promoting prevention**

The reauthorization of VAWA in 2013 instituted required prevention efforts, which included bystander training, awareness of policies, and awareness of what sexual misconduct is

(Senate Bill 47, 2013). Based on the literature, Koss (1992) highlighted the need for prevention efforts on college campuses as a part of campus policy. McMahon (2008), in developing a template for meeting compliance guidelines, focused on the need for prevention efforts related to sexual misconduct. These required prevention efforts within the VAWA Reauthorization in 2013 are an improvement over no requirements. The findings from researchers noted in the section above challenge the approach promoted by VAWA 2013 in addressing sexual misconduct (Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Burn, 2009; Rowe et al., 2012).

### **Conclusions from the research**

There is a need to understand the effectiveness of prevention interventions for sexual misconduct long term. This review did not find evidence of successful prevention efforts with multiple cohorts or using prevention with large numbers of participants. While studies have demonstrated some success in knowledge acquisition and change in attitude, there is little to no evidence that intervention efforts are reducing the occurrence of sexual misconduct.

There are indications that more studying of trends over time while increasing the number of participants involved in the interventions is needed. Additionally, these studies have demonstrated consistent use of quantitative methodologies to evaluate interventions. In some cases the studies have risen to the experimental level. Lastly, survey instruments and questionnaires are commonly used as the evaluative tool in the studies examined. The studies have not focused on how studies engage the power dynamics of intersectional identities. The studies approached prevention from a largely universal response to prevention techniques, which privileges the experience of White, cisgender women.

## **Cultural Factors Promoting Sexual Misconduct**

Prevention efforts actively counter aspects of the culture that promote sexual misconduct. Rape supportive beliefs, rape myths, hegemonic masculinity, and other cultural aspects all contribute to cultural factors that support sexual misconduct. It is important to note that none of these cultural constructs excuse sexual misconduct. Each act of sexual misconduct is committed by a perpetrator. It is important to understand the factors that lead to that perpetration.

### **Rape culture and gender role conflict**

Cultural considerations vary with rape culture as a more common aspect. Boswell and Spade (1996) described rape culture as based on the assumption that men are sexually aggressive and women are sexually subordinate. In investigating components of rape culture, Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss (1999) found rape supportive beliefs, beliefs about sexuality, and blame worthiness of drinking all lead to justification for sexual violence. Other studies have been able to demonstrate how these belief structures manifest on college campuses. Studies have found that as many as 15% of male college students come to campus having already committed sexual misconduct (Hollis, 2006) and that 35% of the male participants would engage in sexually coercive behavior if they thought they could get away with it (Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009). These studies indicate that sexually aggressive behavior and belief systems are common in male college students and are present prior to coming to campus.

The cultural component of rape culture can be exacerbated by all male environments. Burnett et al. (2009) found that participants in their study noted that athletic teams and fraternities promoted activities related to objectifying women, sexuality, and rape. A study focused on fraternity environments as it relates to rape culture found that men who joined a fraternity between their sophomore and junior year had increased peer approval of forced sex,

peer pressure to have sex, high risk drinking, and a desire for more sexual partners (Kingree & Thompson, 2013). These studies indicated that cultural aspects such as homosocial (single social component such as all men) groups and peer pressure could promote perpetration of sexual misconduct.

Men who have values that are incongruous with hegemonic masculinity may experience gender role conflict, which is the negative consequences of men conforming to a narrow view of masculinity (Harper, Harris III, & Mmeje, 2005). Gender role conflict is problematic because there is correlation between it and sexual violence for all men including those who have values incongruous with objectifying women or violence. Gender role conflict can manifest through violence, homophobia, alcohol abuse, and sexual aggression (Taylor, 2015; Harper, Harris III, & Mmeje, 2005). Gender role conflict is a hard to explain phenomenon because it is an example of men acting in direct conflict with their values.

Harper, Harris III, and Mmeje (2005) found, in their study investigating the overrepresentation of men in judicial proceedings on college campuses, pre-college socialization, male gender role conflict, context bound gendered norms, and the social construction of masculinities were impactful in the development of masculine identity in men. Gender role conflict, then, could be an explanation for perpetration of sexual misconduct by a much larger group than a few bad men. Gender role conflict working in concert with homosocial environments could potentially be a large contributing factor in relation to rape culture.

### **Cultural factors influencing sexual misconduct**

Jozkowski (2015) found in a review of literature that men often think about consent only as a way to obtain sex and that many men avoid refusal of sex by simply not asking. In considering how masculinity impacts communication related to sexual misconduct, it was found

in one study that masculinity negatively predicts self-conscious emotions related to interpersonal sexual assault communication (ISAC) (Seifert, 2016). This finding by Seifert (2016) indicated amongst participants in their study that overall culture of masculinity inhibits the ability to intervene in potentially dangerous situations related to sexual misconduct. It can be said another way that masculinity inhibits men from engaging in bystander intervention. This connects back to Burn (2009) who noted difficulty in participants noticing high risk environments in which bystander training would be useful. The conclusions from these studies indicate the possibility that the effectiveness of the legislative requirement within VAWA 2013 may be inhibited by cultural standards and norms.

Razack (1994) noted, in a different study focusing on aboriginal peoples in Canada, that colonization served as a cultural advantage for perpetrators of sexual misconduct and cultural disadvantage victim/survivors of sexual misconduct. Racialized women were identified in the study as more promiscuous. While colonization and alcohol were a mitigating factor for aboriginal men committing rape, alcohol caused additional blame on aboriginal women victim/survivors, and the impact of colonization on aboriginal women was ignored (Razack, 1994).

### **Male norms**

Fontes (2016) studied how masculinity is performed amongst community college males to understand how the men understood their own masculinity. In focus groups, the participants in the study identified events, such as objectifying women at the mall, as examples of peer male activities and that the men who were the most aggressive with women were also the most admired by other men (Fontes, 2016). This is evidence of both cultural assent and use of hegemonic masculinity as a lens in which to look at gender relations.

Men who engage in hegemonic masculinity have a support group that will reinforce the “boys being boys” status (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2005; Taylor, 2015). Swain (2005) and Kehler (2010) agreed that the intertwined nature of hegemonic masculinity and heterosexuality results in a limited definition of men as heterosexual and denial of any feminine aspects of men. Identifying men as only masculine and heterosexual underscores the intersectional nature of gender and sexuality specifically related to sexual misconduct. Several cultural aspects have been found in common in hegemonic masculinity including men feeling they deserve sex from a date, ostracizing men who do not engage in alcohol abuse, competing for women, and engaging in sports (Taylor, 2015). Fontes (2016) and Taylor (2015) both had participants that identified cultural aspects that objectified women. Additionally, Swain (2005) argued that homophobic insults are targeted at gender rather than sexuality. The mixing of gender and sexuality within these studies describes how intersectionality is present in this discussion.

Homosocial male groups often promote exaggerated expectations of consensual sex, which can be referred to as sexual conquest (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2005). When exaggerated expectations of sex are not met, frustration can lead to sexual aggression when there is fear of being left out or ostracized (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2005). Taylor (2015) in his study of fraternity men found that masculinity performed by fraternity men lead to sexual aggression, homophobia, hyper-masculinity, and misogyny. The participants had a higher adherence to male norms prior to joining a fraternity and then self-selected into the fraternity (Taylor, 2015). Taylor’s (2015) study connects back to Hollis’ (2006) work indicating that, while these cultural components are present on college campuses, many students are coming to campus with cultural baggage regarding sexual misconduct.

Boswell and Spade (1996) found in a qualitative study of high risk and low risk fraternity environments for sexual misconduct that there were some obvious differences in culture. The high risk fraternity environment had many of the indicators of hegemonic masculinity, including rating of women's bodies, large amounts of alcohol, and objectification of women as sexual objects for men (Boswell & Spade, 1996). Men in the study indicated that they both did not think that rape occurred on the campus and that sex occurred commonly with women who were intoxicated, which indicated confusion on what sexual misconduct is. Many of the social activities in the research environment took place at fraternities, which provided control for men and defined women as outsiders (Boswell & Spade, 1996). This definition of women as outsiders continued to propagate hegemonic masculinity through the exercise of power dynamics around gender and organizational involvement.

### **Conclusions from the research**

Research indicated that different cultural aspects lead to beliefs and behaviors that contribute to sexual misconduct. Gender role conflict, hyper-masculinity, and hegemonic masculinity can lead to objectification of women, sexual aggression, and sexual misconduct. Hegemonic masculinity, in regards to men's behaviors in particular, stands out as a contributing factor to sexual misconduct. If performance of hegemonic masculinity is not addressed on a college campus, it is unlikely a policy change regarding sexual misconduct can be successful and impactful. In considering the effects of the policy change, it is important to consider that change within the cultural context that includes hegemonic masculinity. The connection to intersectionality is not explored in the literature reviewed and conceptually only hinted at by Boswell and Spade (1996).



## **Occurrence of Sexual Misconduct**

Occurrence of sexual misconduct has been studied in a variety of ways for more than 30 years. The results from the studies indicated varied incidence of sexual misconduct and investigated a variety of different types of sexual misconduct. Many of the more often cited studies, which have strong sampling and rigorous methods, are from 15-20 years ago.

### **Rates of sexual misconduct**

A variety of studies have reported rates of sexual misconduct occurring at varying levels. In a study conducted from 1997-2001 from a large sample size of more than 20,000 women, 4.7% of the participants indicated being raped (Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004). Mohler-Kuo et al. (2004) utilized the Harvard School of Public Health College Alcohol Study to evaluate sexual misconduct over a four-year period. Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) found that women in their study were four times as likely to experience rape victimization between the ages of 16-24 as any other time. In that same study, 53.7% of women indicated experiencing sexual victimization, and 15.4% indicated being raped (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). The survey instrument was given to more than 6,000 students and asked more than 300 questions; however, this study only focused on the questions related to the Sexual Experience Survey (SES) (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) conducted a representative national survey investigating a range of victimization using a survey with follow-up interviews and found that in a six-month time period 1.7% of college-aged women experienced rape, and 1.1% experienced attempted rape. The study extrapolated from the rate of victimization for participants during the study that 20-25% of women would experience rape or attempted rape during their college career (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). These studies are some of the most often cited studies of occurrence of sexual misconduct.

In considering the three studies, terminology and methodology are both worth considering. Mohler-Kuo et al. (2004) focused on rape only. Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) used both rape and attempted rape. Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) used a more expansive view of sexual victimization. Methodologically, Mohler-Kuo et al. (2004) and Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) both offer insight into studying large populations with survey instruments, which may apply only in part to the phenomena of the study. Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) used a mixed methods approach to add depth to their findings.

There are multiple other studies that offer more context specific information on rates of occurrence of sexual misconduct. In a study conducted at a New Zealand institution of higher education, 11% of participants reported being raped while 25% indicated unwanted sex play (Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999). Rowe et al (2012) noted that 70% of the participants in their study experienced sexual aggression with five percent indicating being raped in a three-month period. The Office of Civil Rights for the United States Department of Education reports that 19% of female and 6.1% of male college students indicated being victim/survivors of completed or attempted sexual assault during college (Bagley, Natarajan, Vayzman, Wexler, & McCarthy, 2012). Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) found in more than 2000 interviews of college women that 14% of their participants had been raped, and 25% of the participants in the study experienced rape or attempted rape. Turchik, Probst, Irvin, Chaur, and Gidycz (2009) noted amongst their participants that 53% had experienced sexual misconduct as an adolescent, and 31.5% experienced some type of sexual assault during the eight-week study. In a study on support for victim/survivors of sexual assault in a social work graduate program, 25% of the participants had experienced sexual assault (Postmus et al., 2011). In considering these various studies, terminology again becomes important as sex play, sexual victimization, rape, attempted rape,

sexual assault, and attempted sexual assault are all considered and are impactful on the findings. While many of these studies look similar, types of sexual misconduct studied, methodology, and sampling all influenced the various results.

The national studies and the more contextual studies noted in the above paragraphs all shared disturbingly high occurrence of sexual misconduct. The consistency of these findings regardless of methodology, context, or time indicated a consistent problem. The findings focused consistently on a universal victim/survivor. There is limited consideration of different identities and no consideration of intersectional identities and power dynamics.

The intervention of the federal government with the VAWA Reauthorization of 2013 intended to decrease the occurrence of sexual misconduct. It would be worthwhile to investigate if the occurrence of sexual misconduct on college campuses is decreasing, remaining steady, or increasing while considering how different participant's intersectional identities are considered.

The literature occurrence of sexual misconduct is overwhelmingly focused on cisgender persons, especially when it comes to college students. One study found that 53.8% of transgender participants answered yes to "Have you ever been forced to have sex?" (Kenagy, 2005). Forced to have sex is similar to, if not the same as, rape. Kenagy (2005) focused on participants who were adults in two needs assessments in the eastern United States.

Langenderfer-Magruder, Walls, Kattari, Whitfield, and Ramos (2016) indicated that the trans\* adult participants in their study had a significantly higher likelihood of experiencing sexual assault or rape than the cisgender participants. In reviewing Kenagy's (2005) findings in comparison to Mohler-Kuo et al. (2004) or Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) the occurrence of rape for trans\* and gender non-conforming persons is two or three-fold.

## **Understanding sexual misconduct**

Several studies utilized methodologies that evaluated how well participants recognized having experienced sexual misconduct. Tactics-based frame of reference surveying involves describing acts of sexual misconduct based on behaviors to determine if a participant has experienced that type of sexual misconduct. Sex-type frame of reference surveying involves naming the type of sexual misconduct (rape, attempted rape, etc.) to determine if a participant has experienced it. Abbey, Parkhill, and Koss (2005) found in their study that participants who were surveyed using a tactics-based frame of reference (75%) reported sexual misconduct at a higher level than sex-type frame of reference (62%). Koss (2011) observed in her study that only 54% of women known to have been raped admitted to being raped to an interviewer. Additionally, in Koss's (2011) study only 57% of women who answer affirmatively to tactics-based frame of reference of rape indicated that they have been raped. By utilizing a mixed methods approach, Koss (2011) was able to identify that victim/survivors either do not wish to share their experience of sexual misconduct or may not even know that they experienced sexual misconduct. This finding along with Abbey, Parkhill, and Koss (2005) indicated that sexual misconduct may be more prevalent than previously understood. Victim/survivors not recognizing or denying what happened to them as sexual assault is important from a practical and research standpoint.

## **Victim/survivors of sexual misconduct**

Various studies have examined who the victim/survivors of sexual misconduct are. Dumont et al. (2012) examined characteristics of victim/survivors' experiences of sexual misconduct who are students compared to non-students. The study found that students were more likely to be intoxicated, less likely to report mental health concerns, and less likely to use illicit

drugs. Students were also less likely to recall specifics of the incident (perhaps because of their higher likelihood of intoxication) and indicate having physical, cognitive, or sensory impairments (which could also be described as disabilities) (Dumont et al., 2012). This study describes some important differences between students and non-student experiences that assists in understanding other literature in this review which focuses on students' experiences.

One study in Australia reported that its participants, all college students, indicated a higher rate of reporting of different types of sexual misconduct than the general population (Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999). A study noted that women who had experienced sexual assault as adolescents were most likely to experience sexual assault in college (White & Humphrey, 1993). A couple of studies found amongst their participants that sorority members were more likely to experience sexual assault than the rest of the student population (Higher Education Center for Alcohol and other Drug Abuse and Violence Prevention, 2008; Mohler-Kuo et al., 2004). Considering the impact of membership in a sorority and attending a university, there is a funneling of sorts in cultural contexts that may promote sexual misconduct. Several studies described aspects of hegemonic masculinity and gender role conflict that may generally contribute on college campuses to an environment that promotes sexual misconduct. Boswell and Spade (1996) tied fraternities (which are inextricably linked to sororities) to cultural dynamics that promote sexual misconduct along with other researchers noting concerns about homosocial environments (Burnett et al., 2009; Harper, Harris III, & Mmeje, 2005).

Effrig, Bieschke, and Locke (2011) found that trans\* participants were 1.5 times as likely as cisgender men or women to experience unwanted sexual contact in college. Porter and Williams (2011) examined sexual experience amongst underserved and underrepresented populations. The researchers determined that minoritized populations were much more likely to

experience rape. In particular, women were seven times as likely as men to be raped. Lesbian, gay, and bisexual people were four times as likely as heterosexual people to be raped. Racial and ethnic minorities were three times as likely as White people to be raped. Women were 28 times as likely as men to experience attempted rape (Porter & Williams, 2011). These studies explored different identities and sexual misconduct. The power dynamic related to sexual misconduct expands beyond male/female and should be explored more broadly with gender, race, sexuality, and other identities. A student is not just Black or gay or cisgender. Taking Porter and Williams (2011) research to the next level would be to understand the structural framework of oppression at a more complex level.

Brown, Pena, and Rankin (2017) explored the rate of unwanted sexual contact amongst students with autism spectrum disorders (ASD), non-ASD disabilities, and students without disabilities. The participants in the study indicated a higher rate of unwanted sexual contact amongst students with ASD (8.2%) and non-ASD disabilities (9.6%) in comparison to students without disabilities (4.6%). As with other populations studied, students with ASD and non-ASD disabilities who identify as women were disproportionately represented as victim/survivors of unwanted sexual contact (Brown, Pena, & Rankin, 2017). This study demonstrates another targeted population that experiences victimization related to sexual misconduct outside of the commonly studied experience of White, cisgender, women without disabilities.

### **Campus policies defining sexual misconduct**

Campus policies regarding sexual misconduct have not been extensively studied. Policies as they occur on college campuses are important to consider because they are, in many ways, the manifestation of the federal policy. In Ohio, Krivoshey et al. (2013) found that only 1% of institutions in their study included definitions of sexual offenses. Streng and Kamimura (2015)

observed in the fall of 2014 in their study of ten campuses that three did not have published policies and that all three institutions without published policies were under investigation of the Office of Civil Rights at the U.S. Department of Education. These studies provided additional evidence for many of the requirements put in place by the VAWA Reauthorization of 2013. While these are just a couple of studies, they indicated a lack of ability to implement a comprehensive policy related to sexual misconduct. Additionally, the consideration of these policy implementation concerns along with the findings on occurrence of sexual misconduct indicate that many students may not be aware of what sexual misconduct is. That lack of knowledge would repress reporting in studies and in real life situations. This leads one to believe that a study on sexual misconduct after implementation of the VAWA Reauthorization of 2013 reforms may produce a different picture of sexual misconduct on college campuses.

### **Conclusion from the research**

The literature paints a disturbing picture of the occurrence of sexual misconduct on college campuses. The variation in study results on occurrence of sexual misconduct indicated that a large scale study of occurrence over time may add to the literature. Studies utilizing survey methodologies with large samples have produced important findings in the literature. Unfortunately, many of those studies are dated. Studies on a whole did not address intersectionality with limited exploration of race, gender, sexuality, and other minoritized identities. Additionally, the studies indicated that when participants were offered definitions, behavioral descriptions of sexual misconduct, or tactics-based surveying the likelihood that victim/survivors identified their experience as sexual misconduct increased. As a result of VAWA 2013, all college students should now be receiving information more often and directly about what sexual misconduct is. Therefore, it is likely that data after 2013 would indicate

different and perhaps increased reporting by participants of sexual misconduct. There is a need to produce accurate and up to date research on the occurrence of sexual misconduct because the environment related to sexual misconduct has changed dramatically related to sexual misconduct because of federal policy.

### **Experience of Sexual Misconduct**

There are a variety of contextual factors that influence the experience of sexual misconduct including the location, the impact on the victim/survivor, and the cultural context of the attack. This section explores the literature in those areas.

#### **The perpetrator and location of sexual misconduct**

The literature has demonstrated that familiarity with both the perpetrator and the location of the attack are experienced by many victim/survivors. Several studies indicated varying but consistently high percentages of victim/survivors know their perpetrators including: 88% (Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999), 90% (Hayes, 2012), 93% (Ullman, Karabatsos, & Koss, 1999), and 100% (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Guerette & Caron, 2007). Several studies note the most common places for the sexual misconduct to occur were either in the victim/survivor's or perpetrator's home (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Guerette & Caron, 2007; Ullman, Karabatsos, & Koss, 1999). Additionally, a study investigating the cultural differences between White and Black victim/survivors of sexual assault indicated that perpetrators are likely to have the same racial identity as the victim/survivor (Neville, Heppner, Oh, Spanierman, & Clark, 2004). Other findings include that approximately 1% of attacks include a weapon (Dumont et al., 2012; Ullman, Karabatsos, & Koss, 1999); a higher percentage of assaults occurred during the first half of the academic year in one study (Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999); 57% of assaults occurred on a date and 33% with a steady dating partner (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004); and many



victim/survivors were asleep when the sexual assault began (Guerette & Caron, 2007). These studies describe a situation in which sexual misconduct is perpetrated by someone the victim/survivor knows, in a place the victim/survivor is familiar with, and the attack is not the stranger jumping out of the bushes with a weapon.

### **Impact of sexual misconduct on the victim/survivor**

The experience of sexual misconduct on victim/survivors is described in the literature as one of the most negative experiences a student can have in college. In a study of female college students, Jordan, Combs, and Smith (2014) found prior to coming to college, at the end of year one, and at the end of year two, there were significantly negative impacts on academics for women who experienced sexual misconduct, with the severity of victimization increasing the negative impact. Women in this study who experienced sexual victimization prior to college (40% of the study participants) entered college with significantly lower Grade Point Averages (GPA) and performed significantly worse during the first and second year academically. Participants in the same study who experienced sexual victimization during the first semester (24%) had significantly lower GPAs in the first semester (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014). A study in Canada may have connected with why sexual misconduct is so impactful on the academic experience of students. In a study of almost 1200 college students, researchers found that participants defined sexual misconduct as the most negative social experience by demonstrating a significantly higher mean of negative impact (Tremblay et al., 2008). These studies serve as examples of the negative impact of sexual misconduct, both before and during college, and the high the rate of occurrence of sexual misconduct. Current events related to sexual misconduct, such as the #metoo movement and the number of victim/survivors coming

forth, are hopefully creating a culture for change and encouraging other victim/survivors to come forward and seek the assistance they need.

### **Cultural and contextual factors impacting experience of sexual misconduct**

Research has explored the cultural context and mindset of victim/survivors to some degree. One study noted experiencing sexual misconduct has the impact of shattering feelings of invulnerability, which increases the likelihood of taking future precautions against sexual misconduct (White & Humphrey, 1995). Burnett et al. (2009), in a study which utilized focus groups to gather information on student perspectives of rape, discovered that issues related to the cultural context (consent and date rape are confusing to understand), individual context (women as sluts, general subjugation of women), situational/interpersonal context (protecting from date rape, gray area where alcohol is involved), and immediate context (concept of consent, ability to communicate desire) impacted response to sexual misconduct. Burnett et al. (2009) touched briefly on intersectionality in their consideration of individual context. Projecting women as sluts and subjugation of women could take on different perspectives when considering power dynamics related to race, class, or sexuality. These studies offer a small window into the cultural context of the victim/survivor. This research connects with the research on hegemonic masculinity and other cultural components mentioned earlier in the literature review.

### **Conclusions from the research**

Research has consistently indicated for more than two decades that sexual misconduct is almost always committed by someone the victim/survivor knew. Quantitative and qualitative studies continue to reproduce findings that support the supposition that the vast majority of sexual misconduct is non-stranger assault. It also commonly occurs in locations that are familiar to the victim/survivor and non-threatening. The cultural factors influencing the victim/survivor

occur with the cultural factors influencing the perpetrator. Lastly, the impact on victim/survivors is often, if not always, negative and can impact academic success negatively.

### **Perpetration of Sexual Misconduct**

Sexual misconduct is an act that is committed by a perpetrator. While much of the discussion of sexual misconduct focus on the experience of victim/survivor, there should be similar discussion of perpetration. Studies related to perpetration of sexual misconduct explore the occurrence of rape by the perpetrator and the tactics utilized in perpetration.

#### **Occurrence of perpetration of sexual misconduct**

Several studies exploring the perpetration of sexual misconduct indicated a variety of occurrence of perpetration. Koss (1992), in a foundational review of literature, noted that 7.7% of men age 14 and older indicated committing rape. Additionally, 16% of male respondents in a review of various studies indicated that they had forced sex on the person they were on a date with (Koss, 1992). Abbey, Parkhill, and Koss (2005) utilized both tactics-based and sex-type surveying to determine occurrence of perpetration. The study found perpetration amongst its participants as high as 69% when using a tactics-based survey and 36% while using a sex-type survey (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005). For the participants of Koss (1992) and Abbey, Parkhill, and Koss (2005), one might consider how the concept of rape versus forced sex versus perpetration impacted their response. Additionally, the time period between the two studies likely impact how participants responded as cultural and societal understandings of sexual misconduct had occurred. Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss (1999) demonstrate this precise point in their study by considering sexual aggression and rape. Their study found in a sample of almost 3,000 male college students that 25% indicated committing sexual aggression, and 5% indicated committing rape (Ullman, Karabatsos, & Koss, 1999). Abbey and McAuslan (2004) found in

their survey of almost 200 college men that 14% of the participants had committed sexual assault in the previous 12 months. These statistics indicated a large minority or even majority of male college students engaging in some type of sexual misconduct. Terminology and when the study took place were important aspects in evaluating the studies.

A question to consider in perpetration of sexual misconduct is whether or not perpetration of sexual misconduct is repeated by the same offender. Hopkins and Koss (2005) noted that approximately four in ten arrested rapists are arrested more than one time. Lisak and Miller (2002) indicated in their assessment of perpetration of 1,882 participants at a mid-sized institution that 6.4% of participants met the qualifications for having committed rape. The same study noted that 63% of the participants who indicated perpetrating sexual misconduct were repeat offenders, averaging 5.8 rapes per participant. The serial rapists in the Lisak and Miller (2002) study accounted for more than 90% of rapes committed by the participants. There are concerns with sampling regarding Lisak and Miller's (2002) study and whether or not it was representative.

However, other studies have challenged the perception that sexual misconduct on college campuses is perpetrated by a serial perpetrators. Swartout et al. (2015) found with two cohorts from 1990-1995 and 2008-2011 that 11-13% of participants committed rape, and 73% committed rape during only one time period in the study. This finding does not mean that perpetrators only committed rape once but that it only occurred once during one academic year (the time period used in the study) in their college career. Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) indicated in their study using a representative sample survey method that victimization and perpetration rates matched with an approximately one-to-one ratio of victim/survivor to perpetrator, which brought into question conclusions that most sexual victimization is

perpetrated by a few perpetrators. Swartout et al.'s (2015) findings also challenge the argument that a few perpetrators commit large amounts of sexual assaults. The conflict in the findings of these studies raises a question of whether there is a problem with a few perpetrators or more of a cultural concern with a much larger group of perpetrators. This is an important issue as it informs how prevention and judicial processes could be most effective.

### **Tactics of sexual misconduct**

Tactics indicated in multiple studies by victim/survivors were promise of positive consequences, threats of negative consequences or force, argument, lies, demand for silence, isolation, alcohol, and drugs (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005; Cleveland, Koss, & Lyons, 1999; Lisak & Miller, 2002). Cleveland, Koss, and Lyons (1999) found that tactics of perpetration using alcohol were more common in a fraternity setting. Tactics used in rapes were commonly defined by the contextual factors of the rape, including the relationship and, specifically, length of time of the relationship (Cleveland, Koss, & Lyons, 1999). Lisak and Miller (2002) noted that more than 80% of their participants committed sexual misconduct when the victim/survivor was incapacitated. Most of the rest of the participants used threat of force or force in attempted rape (17%) and rape (9%) (Lisak & Miller, 2002). Studies demonstrated consensus in regard to tactics utilized by perpetrators.

### **Conclusions from the research**

The percentages of perpetrators on college campuses indicated perhaps a cultural issue rather than a few bad perpetrators. Recent studies have shown a larger percentage of men engaging in rape than previously thought. The percentages of participants in several studies indicated broader perpetration of sexual misconduct, including acts beyond rape, beyond previously thought percentages. Use of alcohol, drugs, and incapacitation as tactics to commit

sexual misconduct point to cultural factors in which sexual misconduct can be facilitated and perpetrated. The literature reviewed did not comment on the identities of the perpetrators of sexual misconduct except to describe them as primarily men.

### **Connection between Alcohol and Sexual Misconduct**

Many studies have demonstrated a connection between alcohol use by the victim/survivor and perpetrator before and during sexual misconduct. Additionally, alcohol is potentially influential from an understanding of the overall cultural environment in which sexual misconduct takes place.

### **Occurrence of sexual misconduct involving alcohol**

Several studies articulated the connection between alcohol and sexual misconduct. Multiple studies have noted high levels of intoxication of perpetrators of sexual misconduct. Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss (1999) found that 44% of their participants were intoxicated at the time they committed sexual misconduct, and 42% of victim/survivors were intoxicated at the time they were assaulted. Colon, Wells, and Chambliss (2001) noted that 73% of the perpetrators in their study were intoxicated at the time of the assault. Foubert, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Brasfield, and Hill (2010) found that 75% of their participants were intoxicated at the time they assaulted the victim/survivor. Dumont et al. (2012) noted that 66% of their participants were intoxicated at the time of their assault. Two other studies found that 55% and 50% of victim/survivors were intoxicated at the time of their assault (Colon, Wells, & Chambliss, 2001; Howard, Griffin, & Boekeloo, 2008). These studies indicated that intoxication is involved in many instances of sexual misconduct. Considering these results with the literature related to the tactics utilized to commit sexual misconduct, it paints a disturbing picture of how alcohol is used as a tool to perpetrate sexual misconduct.

Several studies also point out how alcohol can create increased opportunity for sexual misconduct to occur. Abbey and McAuslan (2004) indicated that drinking on dates increased the likelihood of sexual misconduct occurring on a date. Howard, Griffin, and Boekeloo (2008) noted that, amongst their participants, 14.7% indicated that their sexual assault was related to alcohol use. The same study indicated that women who reported binge drinking behaviors were seven times as likely to experience sexual misconduct as women who indicated no binge drinking behaviors. Howard, Griffin, and Boekeloo (2008) noted that female victim/survivors are three times as likely to be drinking as male victim/survivors. This is an interesting finding and one that should potentially be explored in future research in terms of how identity and alcohol interact in sexual misconduct victimization. Additionally, many times the combination of alcohol and intimacy inhibited women from recognizing sexual violence before it was too late (Foubert et al., 2010). These studies consistently utilize quantitative methodologies to gather and analyze data. The value of large samples is noticeable in the data analysis for these studies.

### **Culture of alcohol and sexual misconduct**

Alcohol has a more complex relationship with sexual misconduct than simply a tactic used to perpetuate the offense. Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss (1999) identified in their study that alcohol can increase the likelihood and severity of sexual assault. Additionally, perpetrators are more likely to be heavy drinkers and drinking at the time of the attack, and long-term heavy drinking is a greater indicator of committing sexual misconduct than drinking at the time of the attack (Ullman, Karabatsos, & Koss, 1999). Taylor (2015) indicated alcohol is often used at fraternity parties in an attempt to lower inhibitions for sex. Given that studies such as Lisak and Miller (2002) indicated that as many as 80% of perpetrators used incapacitation as a tactic to commit sexual misconduct, creating an opportunity to rape through alcohol is perhaps more

effective than lowering inhibitions for sex. Mohler-Kuo et al. (2004) noted in their study that the culture of drinking at an institution was the greatest indicator of being raped while intoxicated and that alcohol increased the likelihood of sexual assault for their participants because it impaired higher order thinking and reinforced peer norms. These peer norms bring back hegemonic masculinity, male norms, and gender role conflict in considering how sexual misconduct occurs.

In perhaps the most concerning finding about the use of alcohol and sexual assault, one study found at various campuses that the use of alcohol reduces responsibility for the perpetrator while increasing responsibility for the victim/survivor (Colon, Wells, & Chambliss, 2001). In the same study, men perceived intoxicated women's friendly behavior as sexual interest. Additionally, the study found women who have experienced sexual misconduct previously used alcohol as a tension reducer during social functions. Colon, Wells, and Chambliss (2001) noted that their participants perceived women under the influence of alcohol as promiscuous. This concept of the intoxicated woman as available and promiscuous brings Taylor (2015) and Fontes' (2016) work related to objectification of women into the discussion. Cleveland, Koss, and Lyons (1999) also found that alcohol increased men's perceptions of women's sexual availability. This research leads to an environment in which women are viewed as sexually available because they have chosen to have an alcoholic drink. When considered with hegemonic masculinity, this creates an environment that would possibly increase the likelihood of sexual misconduct.

### **Conclusions from the research**

The above studies reinforce the connection between alcohol and sexual misconduct. The link between a culture of alcohol use and sexual misconduct indicated that new policy



highlighting sexual misconduct alone will likely not address the cultural issues in place. While the connection between alcohol and sexual misconduct is not in question, there is opportunity to revisit the question on a large scale to investigate the current status of the relationship between alcohol and sexual misconduct. While the Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss (1999) study is somewhat foundational—it is also nearly 20 years old. These studies primarily utilize survey and questionnaire methodology with quantitative data analysis. This method is useful especially with a large sample size. The opportunity to revisit many of these issues with a more current sample of participants would certainly add to the literature. Additionally, these studies did not consider the intersectional identities of the participants and how power dynamics related to those identities are influential related to sexual misconduct.

### **Support for Victim/Survivors**

Support for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct is paramount to their continued success in the higher education setting. However, getting victim/survivors to the support available and ensuring that support is helpful presents distinct challenges. Knowledge from friends and other supports on how to help is often limited. Additionally, the reporting process can bring additional trauma if not done properly.

### **Obstacles to reporting sexual misconduct**

It is important to note the difference between reporting and occurrence. Sexual misconduct occurs at a disturbingly high level as many studies noted. However, reporting, as discussed here, is not what occurs in the research but when someone who is a victim/survivor makes the courageous choice to report that victimization to university authorities or law enforcement. Reporting occurred much less often than victimization according to the literature, unfortunately.

The first step in gaining support after experiencing sexual misconduct is for the victim/survivor to share that the event occurred. However, research indicated reporting can be a challenging pathway. Koss (2011) identified rape attrition as the pathway of lost reports of sexual misconduct. Rape attrition occurs when a victim/survivor does not recognize what occurred to them as rape, chooses not to report, or when the case is stopped or lost through the legal or campus adjudication process (Koss, 2011).

There are specific obstacles to reporting that can lead to the rape (or sexual misconduct) attrition noted by Koss (2011). Burnett et al. (2009) found in their study that, amongst their participants, rape myths hindered women's ability to recognize their experience as rape. Mikhailovich and Colbran (1999) identified embarrassment, unsympathetic response, fear of assailant, lack of confidence in the system, and self-blame as reasons why victim/survivors chose not to report amongst their participants. A qualitative discourse program at a small liberal arts institution indicated that minimization, self-blame, sexual misconduct stigma, and concerns about officials' response inhibited reporting (Katz & Dubois, 2013). Streng and Kamimura (2015) found that reporting is stopped by knowing the perpetrator, confusion on reporting, confidentiality issues, and concerns of not being believed. All of these studies confirm Koss's (2011) assertion of rape attrition and highlight specific reasons for non-reports.

### **Reporting sexual misconduct**

Research indicated that a small percentage of victim/survivors chose to report. Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) determined in a large sample of 2,000 college women that of rape victim/survivors only 11.5% reported their rape, and only 2.7% reported if alcohol was involved. Alcohol was not listed in the previous studies as a hindrance to reporting but Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) noted a strong negative impact on reporting. The greatest positive indicators of

reporting sexual misconduct were injury during the assault and identifying as White, according to the same study. Participants who were forcibly raped were more than six times as likely to report as those raped when alcohol is involved (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). In this study, forcible rape was defined as using force, threat of force or injury occurring (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). This terminology is problematic as all rape and sexual misconduct can be considered forcible. Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) touched on an important aspect of reporting related to race, which is informative in regards to intersectionality. That Whiteness was so important in reporting, according to this study, raises a question about the experience of reporting for victim/survivors of color. Additionally, the importance of Whiteness raises questions of how racial identity interacts with other aspects of identity.

Victim/survivors of sexual misconduct often report only to friends or family. Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, and Turner (2003) found from a national survey that 95% of victim/survivors of sexual assault do not report to the police. Koss (2011) indicated that acquaintance rape victim/survivors are eight times less likely to report to the police or seek emergency services. It is important to note here that the literature has shown more than 90% of sexual misconduct is perpetrated by someone the victim survivor knows. Perhaps a better way to state the finding is that stranger rape is eight times more likely to be reported. Bagley et al. (2012) found that victim/survivors were 13 times more likely to tell a friend as they were to officially report.

### **Policies to improve reporting**

The research indicated certain steps institutions can take to improve the likelihood of reporting. Studies have concluded that institutional policies need to reflect a supportive environment for reporting sexual misconduct, including reporting at any time, online reporting, and anonymous reporting (Krivoshey et al., 2013; Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999). A review of

policies and institutions noticed that increased awareness of policies results in an increase in reporting (Streng & Kamimura, 2015). VAWA 2013 requirements dovetail well with the findings of these studies.

### **Responses to reporting**

Reporting can cause harm or support the victim/survivor of sexual misconduct. Research has indicated that certain avenues, such as the legal and criminal reporting process, can be detrimental. Additionally, response of close friends and family, if positive and supportive, can create some of the most helpful outcomes in supporting victim/survivors of sexual misconduct.

Harm can be caused in the reporting and support process in a variety of ways. Harm originating in the correct operation of the legal process has been referred to as critogenic harm (Hopkins & Koss, 2005). Critogenic harm can be caused, in the instance of sexual misconduct, by allowing the defendant to remain silent and re-traumatizing the victim/survivor by revisiting the assault multiple times (Hopkins & Koss, 2005). Critogenic harm is not limited to re-traumatization. Scholars noted that delay in therapeutic development, requirement to remain compensatorily harmed, invasion of privacy and boundary breaking, and adversarialization are all additional ways in which critogenic harm can occur in relation to sexual misconduct (Gutheil, Bursztajn, Brodsky, & Strasburger, 2000; Gutheil & Weisstub, 1996). The criminal reporting process was described by a participant in one study as worse than the rape (Guerette & Caron, 2007).

Racism and sexism impacted participants' responses in one study. Donovan (2007) studied participant response to sexual misconduct using only White participants. Male participants in the study indicated that the victim/survivor was more promiscuous and perpetrators had less responsibility than the female participants in the study. Additionally, male

participants viewed Black victim/survivors are more promiscuous when the perpetrator was White. When the perpetrator was Black, the race of the victim/survivor did not matter (Donovan, 2007). Donovan's (2007) findings connect to Crenshaw's (1989, 1991) finding that racial concerns focus on Black men and gender concerns focus on White women. Donovan's (2007) study is limited in that it only explored White participants and important as it describes how race and gender impact response to reporting.

Studies have found the most important aspect of support was the response of close friends and social circle during disclosure (Guerette & Caron, 2007; Krivoshey et al., 2013). Guerette and Caron (2007) noted that the encouragement of the family and friends, along with reinforcement that what happened to the victim/survivor was wrong, were the most important indicators of their participants in seeking assistance for sexual misconduct. Additionally, negative response from family and friends can be damaging to the victim/survivor (Guerette & Caron, 2007). The research indicated an informed and educated support structure of family and friends can make all of the difference for the victim/survivor in sharing the trauma of sexual misconduct.

### **Cultural factors impacting support**

As Crenshaw (1989, 1991) noted when introducing intersectionality that race and gender are impactful in reactions to sexual misconduct. Several studies have investigated how race and gender are influential in terms of the victim/survivor, perpetrator, and participants in the studies. Foley et al. (1995) found that Black women victim/survivors were perceived less seriously than White victim/survivors. Additionally, female participants were more likely to consider rape a crime that needed to be prosecuted than male participants (Foley et al., 1995). George and Martinez (2002) studied how participants responded to stranger rape and acquaintance rape in

regards to race of the victim/survivor and perpetrator. One finding noted that acquaintance rape victim/survivors were blamed more, and acquaintance rapists were “given” shorter sentences by the participants. Given that almost all rapes are acquaintance rapes this indicates what a misunderstanding there is about rape. Similar to Foley et al. (1995), George and Martinez (2002) found that female participants wanted longer sentences for perpetrators. Male participants wanted the longest sentence for Black stranger rapists (George & Martinez, 2002). Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre, and Morrison (2005) examined how participants responded to Black and White victim/survivors and perpetrators in vignettes. Education, race, gender, and income were all included as participant variables. Black women demonstrated the greatest empathy towards victim/survivors followed by White women, White men, and Black men, respectively. Younger, higher income, and more educated participants were also more empathetic towards victim survivors (Nagel et al., 2005). This study was not focused on higher education, and there are questions about sampling specifically non-respondents.

### **Assistance from the campus community and beyond**

Awareness of the prevalence of sexual misconduct and the ability to know how to respond were highlighted as important in several studies. Guerette and Caron (2007) concluded that there needs to be more information available to family and friends about what to do if someone discloses sexual misconduct. This finding was consistent for in-depth interviewing of 12 participants focused on actions for support and reporting after experiencing sexual misconduct (Guerette & Caron, 2007). Bagley et al. (2012) took the concept of informing and educating those who may receive reports of sexual misconduct one step further in noting that members of campus communities need to be trained annually on how to respond to disclosure of

sexual misconduct. Those that need training on sexual misconduct could include faculty, staff, and other students.

In regards to faculty, there are concerns about disclosure but also how to appropriately address curriculum items that may be related to sexual misconduct. Koster (2011) noted that in teaching on gender and sexuality there are often disclosures from students that require a response from a faculty member. Additionally, pedagogical and curriculum approaches can be utilized to reduce the likelihood of traumatizing or triggering a student in these instances (Koster, 2011). Hearing the voices of the victim/survivors in these stories in a qualitative methodology allowed these studies to explore beyond a structured question. If done in a proper manner, it can allow the victim/survivor to tell their story in a way that does not cause additional trauma and can inform research and practice.

Many victim/survivors do not seek assistance beyond their close social circle, according to the research. Guerette and Caron (2007) found in their study that the majority of the participants did not seek any professional assistance, and two participants waited nine months and two years to tell anyone. Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) found that 19% of their participants received medical attention immediately after being raped, and 44% of their participants sought assistance from an agency that supported crime victims. This study indicated a higher than expected level of participants seeking assistance from a professional support structure given the many barriers victim/survivors have to reporting (Burnett et al., 2009; Katz & DuBois, 2013; Mikhailovich and Colbran, 1999). One study determined that following up with participants who had been victimized during the study offered some reduction of psychological distress related to PTSD for the group who had the intervention compared to the control group (Mouilso, Calhoun, & Gidycz, 2011).

Studies focused on the services provided by sexual assault agencies and the services provided consistently demonstrate several needs for victim survivors. Crisis services (sometimes referred to as a crisis hotline), medical advocacy, legal advocacy, support groups, individual counseling, and shelter were described in different forms by several researchers (Macy, Giattina, Sangster, Crosby, & Montijo, 2009; Macy, Johns, Rizo, Martin, & Giattina, 2011; Macy, Ogbonnaya, & Martin, 2015). One aspect of these services is that they are centralized in one location. Particularly with medical advocacy and legal advocacy, the studies demonstrated the importance of the expertise needed to answer all questions in those areas. Additionally, accompaniment was noted as a highly desired service for legal and medical advocacy (Macy, Johns, Rizo, Martin, & Giattina, 2011). This research indicates opportunities for college and universities to develop intentional plans for support rather than meeting the basic legislative requirements. There was no literature found in this review that similarly explored campus-based sexual misconduct services as extensively.

### **Policy and student support for victim/survivors**

Research related to policies that support victim/survivors of sexual misconduct focus largely on reporting opportunities. It is important to note that reporting pathways and support can intersect, but they are not the same. The reporting process can provide support for victim/survivors, and victim/survivors can get support outside of a reporting process. Koss (1992) identified the need for promoted reporting avenues early on in the research. McMahon (2008) discussed obvious reporting methods and training for those who respond to sexual misconduct. Krivoshey et al. (2013) noted amongst Ohio colleges that easy to understand reporting processes would be helpful to victim/survivors. A review of policies found the increased awareness of those policies by participants increased the likelihood of reporting



(Streng & Kamimura, 2015). According to some researchers, recommendations espoused in the 2011 DCL and VAWA 2013 do not focus on the best outcome in sexual misconduct investigation for all parties (Koss & Lopez, 2014). Consideration of intentional, context specific practices rather than simple checkboxes of compliance should be considered.

### **Conclusion from the research**

The literature indicated that the reporting process is fraught with issues. The trauma from unsupportive family, friends, and law enforcement can cause increased trauma. Many victim/survivors of sexual misconduct never seek any assistance, and many more never seek professional assistance. Policy changes from the federal level enacted in 2013 were supposed to address this issue. There is a need to further explore the rate at which victim/survivors are seeking assistance to determine the effectiveness of empowering victim/survivors to get help.

### **Conclusion**

There have been many research studies regarding prevention, support, occurrence, and perpetration of sexual misconduct. The major shift in federal policy regarding sexual misconduct indicated a need to investigate further. The research is leaning towards an exploration of broader terminology, such as sexual misconduct, to better understand the breadth of unwanted sexual behavior that occurs on college campuses. Investigations of the efforts of prevention have been short term, context specific, and found that there are limitations in the ability to actually impact occurrence of sexual misconduct. Given the nature of federal policy related to prevention requirements, an investigation over a longer period of time that focuses on occurrence of sexual misconduct is warranted.

Several studies have indicated that when participants are educated regarding sexual misconduct or respond to tactics-based questions self-reporting of sexual misconduct can

increase. Given the required educational and policy components of VAWA 2013 regarding sexual misconduct, it is important to learn how that policy has shaped self-reporting of sexual misconduct on college campuses. The federal policy changes, while indicating the concern around the culture on college campuses regarding sexual misconduct, did little to address the culture of alcohol, rape culture, or the context in which sexual misconduct occur. The lack of direct addressment of those areas raises questions about whether the policy will have the desired impact of reducing sexual misconduct.

The literature did not address intersectionality in any real way. There were a few studies that address specific identities, such as gender or race. However, there were not studies found in this literature review investigating intersectionality or even multidimensionality. Several studies touch on identities that are impacted by dynamics of power but in a limited way. There is a gap in the literature to consider intersectionality.

Lastly, the research indicated that previous to the policy changes, few victim/survivors of sexual misconduct sought support. As the policy changes attempted to address support, it is important to investigate if increased support for victim/survivors is sought. Additionally it would further the literature to learn which victim/survivors, according to their intersectional identities, sought support and which did not.

The policy changes were significant for the administration of sexual misconduct support on college campuses. As it is unknown how the policy changes impacted sexual misconduct on college campuses, there is a gap within the literature to investigate what has happened with sexual misconduct on college campuses over a period of time related to federal policy changes.

## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

### **Introduction**

Methodologically, a researcher has three main choices in conducting research. The researcher can choose to use quantitative data, a qualitative data, or a combination of both types of data. Creswell (2012) identifies that quantitative data is often utilized to describe a trend in a field. As the overall research problem identified in the study was to discern the trends related the impact of federal education sexual misconduct policy had on college students from 2012-2016, use of quantitative data was appropriate. Creswell (2012) continues on to state that quantitative research is, “Describing a trend means that the research problem can be answered best by a study in which the research seeks to establish the overall tendency of responses.” (p. 13).

As this research focused on the analysis of the policy over an extended period of time, both policy analysis and trends analysis were considered. Policy analysis includes a variety of methodological approaches that address everything from the language used in the policy to how the policy impacts participants. Trends analyses are often used to study phenomena over time in which the samples vary, and, therefore, a longitudinal study would not be appropriate.

Additionally, this study explored the impact of policy on the intersectional identities of students. Intersectionality, as a theoretical framework, is most commonly used with qualitative data—often with a critical perspective. However, there is space within quantitative studies for a critical approach. This study attempted to critically evaluate the quantitative data using intersectionality as the framework. Stage (2007A) describes critical quantitative research as attempting to unearth assumptions, challenge the status quo, and demonstrate conflict within the research. Additionally, critical quantitative research attempts to discover systematic inequities on

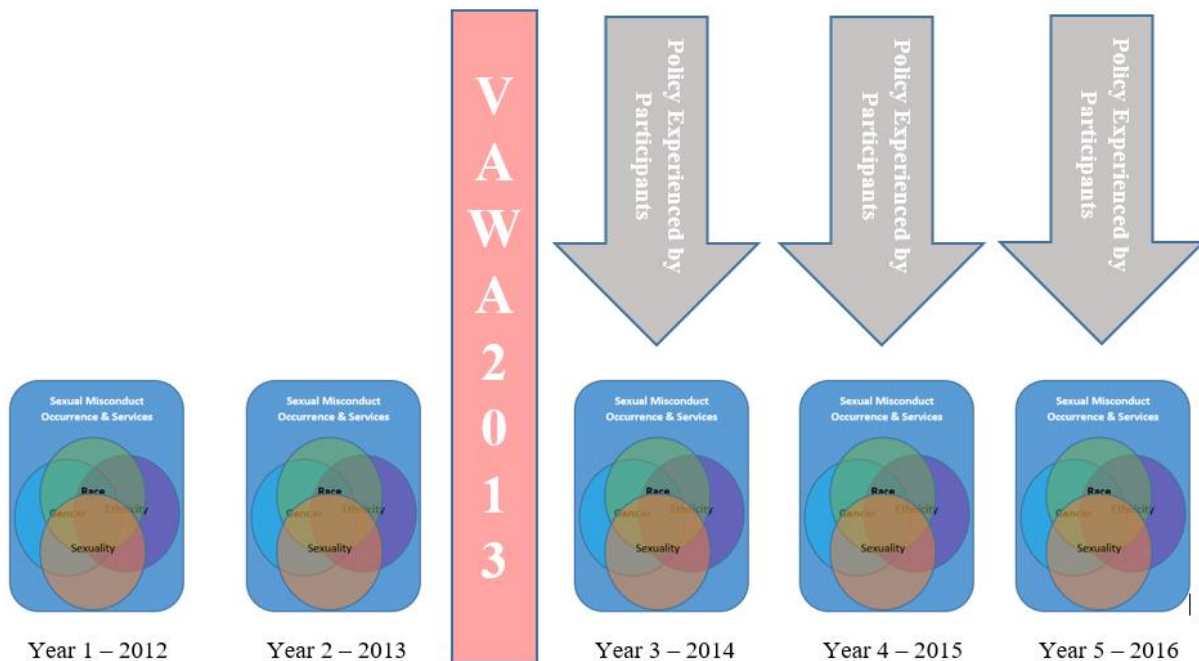
a large scale (Stage, 2007A). Considering Stage's point in regard to sexual misconduct, systematic inequities in sexual misconduct response may be underserving certain populations, which needs to be investigated beyond a "general population" understanding. Carter and Hurtado (2007) used a comparative quantitative analysis to investigate the voice of minoritized populations and demonstrate different experiences from the dominant population. Utilizing various data analysis techniques, it was possible to explore not only how different groups experienced policy related to sexual misconduct over the time period in question but also how the intersections of different identities were specifically impacted.

A developing methodological perspective is quantitative critical, or QuantCrit. QuantCrit is focused on defining the larger structures of inequity in society (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). Quantitative data has developed the policy-as-numbers concept in which large data is used to define policy within the educational system without questioning the potential inherent discrimination within the data collection and analysis process (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). QuantCrit specifically interrogates quantitative data for evidence of the structures that reinforce a discriminatory status quo. Categorical data can be useful when, for example, race is paired with racism and gender is paired with sexism in the analysis of the data. Statistically significant tests, such as regression analyses, are problematic because discrimination occurs through and between the controlled variables (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). For example, racism does not act outside of certain variables, such as income, educational attainment, etc., but through those variables. Gillborn, Warmington, and Demack (2017) noted in their review of studies that, in controlling for variables, demographic groups that are underrepresented in society were viewed as overrepresented in the study. This obviously creates problems in using such statistical tests to investigate certain phenomena.

## Overview of Study

This study utilized data collected over a five-year period from 2012-2016 with the Missouri College Health Behavior Survey (MCHBS). The questions asked in the study focused on changes related to rate of occurrence of sexual misconduct and rate of services sought by victim/survivors of sexual misconduct in relation to intersectional identities of the participants. The data was collected at 21 institutions of higher education in Missouri and is not identified to any person or institution. Methodologically using policy analysis, trends analysis, and intersectionality to investigate quantitative data critically was the approach of this study. The analysis of the data focused on descriptive statistics and analysis by the researcher in order to ensure the findings represented the voice of minoritized populations and ensure inference did not misrepresent the data (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017; Stage, 2007B).

*Figure 1. Study overview*



## **Timeline**

The timeline in this study was more simplistic than many other studies. The data were collected annually from 2012-2016 by the Missouri Partners in Prevention (MoPIP) organization. Each of the institutions involved in the study have completed the Institutional Review Board (IRB) process. The data has been shared with the researcher from the MoPiP organization.

The research process did not deviate from commonly held standards of study design. A proposal was constructed and submitted to the committee for review. Upon approval of the approval by the committee, the study was submitted to the Colorado State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). IRB approval was granted based on the study not requiring interaction with human subjects. As the data was already collected, the next steps included data analysis and construction of the findings and discussion chapters.

## **Research Questions**

As indicated above, the research problem for this study was the impact of federal sexual misconduct policy on students over time. The research utilized data gathered from 2012-2016 MCHBS. The variables were year of study, gender, race, ethnicity, sexuality, if a student experienced sexual misconduct, if a student has sought services for sexual misconduct, and effectiveness of services received after experiencing sexual assault. Specific survey instrument questions are available in Appendix B.

The questions demonstrated a need to use quantitative data to investigate. The questions focused on how the data may suggest the educational systems are or are not serving those who experience sexual misconduct, specifically minoritized populations (Teranishi, 2007). The questions sought to understand how sexual misconduct policy may potentially impact, positively or negatively, various marginalized and minoritized populations.

The primary research questions were:

1. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
2. How much did the rate of services sought for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
3. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct for victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
4. How much did the rate of services sought for sexual misconduct by victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?

To respond to these questions, the data analysis included a comprehensive breakdown of the intersectional identities of the participants in relation to their experience with sexual misconduct. The complexity of the relationships between the various groups created a complex response to the questions. These questions explored in depth the impact of the federal policy regarding sexual misconduct on the student. Additionally, by examining intersectionality regarding participants, there was the opportunity to understand if the policy changes are impacting student experiences differently or similarly based on identity.

## **Methodological Models**

As with any study, there were methodological questions related to data and models to consider. In this study, both policy analysis and trends analysis were applicable. Additionally, intersectionality, used in a quantitative study, should be elucidated. Policy analysis was applicable as the impact considered in the study is drawn from federal policy. Trends analysis was considered because the study examines the impact of the policy over a period of time on different populations.

### **Policy Analysis**

Strauch (1974) describes policy analysis as "...broadly construed to connote the systematic examination or analysis of questions arising from, related to, faced by, etc., the governmental planning and decision-making process, conducted with the intention of affecting or contributing to that process" (p. 3). This study analyzed data regarding sexual misconduct over a period of time. Specifically, the data utilized in this study was set against the background of changes to federal policy regarding sexual misconduct on college campuses. The research attempted to determine how students have experienced these changes in federal sexual misconduct policy. Guba (1984) describes this type of policy analysis as policy in implementation. More specifically, it is an investigation of the policy as experienced by the client (Guba, 1984; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Methodologically, Guba and Lincoln (1985) describe this policy analysis perspective as accepting the policy as a given and describing the effects on the population that was impacted. The population this policy impacted is all students throughout the United States at institutions of higher education receiving federal funding. This study examined the impact on the students at the 21 institutions involved in MCHBS survey.



In the instance of federal sexual misconduct policy, the impact was potentially on all students in higher education institutions. To determine the impact of such policy, an investigation of the impact on a large number of students over a period of time seemed most prudent in order to best understand the effects. This type of data can be considered “squishy” because it is related to behavioral changes (Strauch, 1974). Regardless of the “squishiness” of the question at hand, policy analysis must engage the problem as it exists. Quantitative data is used commonly to evaluate the experience of a large number of participants. As this research is investigating variables over time, a trends analysis was a good method to explore the research problem and specific questions.

### **Trends Analysis**

Trends analyses often describe the interaction of time with other variables (Treiman, 2009). As this study attempted to investigate the interaction between time, policy, and intersectional identities related to sexual misconduct, the other variables involved were related sexual misconduct and the use of university resources related to sexual misconduct over time. Trends analysis tests the data in regard to time and the other variables (Treiman, 2009). There may be an assumption of an increase, a decrease, or no change in variables related to time (Treiman, 2009). With this particular study, the change in experience of sexual misconduct for various demographic groups was analyzed from 2012-2016.

Trends analyses investigate changes over time in which the populations and samples are not consistent, such as at universities and colleges. Glessner (2011) indicated that trends analyses are useful in a university setting because of the ability to be predictive of demographics, interests, behaviors, etc. There are a variety of methods utilized in trends analyses.

There is not a consistent method utilized to determine response to research problems that use a trend analysis approach. Maticka-Tyndale (1991) utilized log linear as a result of multiple dichotomized independent and dependent variables. Guo (2015) discussed trend-lines, percentages, and percentage change but did not analyze statistical significance in their research. Yin (2014) investigated various trend analysis approaches and considered average ratio, linear regression, exponential regression, and time series analysis as appropriate for responding to different research questions. Hossain (2010) utilized ANOVA to investigate a seven-year study with Games-Howell and Tukey as follow up tests.

The specific policy change in question was section 304 of the Violence Against Women's Act Reauthorization of 2013. Section 304 of VAWA 2013 focused particularly on higher education and specified requirements related to sexual misconduct. Data analyzation before (2012, 2013) and after (2014, 2015, 2016) the implementation of VAWA 2013 provided good evidence of the potential impact of the policy change. As the populations at colleges and universities change, a longitudinal study was not appropriate because the population and sample would be different. Therefore, a trends analysis was appropriate.

### **Intersectionality**

Intersectionality has historically been associated with qualitative research. Syed (2010) supported this concept, describing intersectionality as an analytic tool to understand structural oppression and that the qualitative nature is central to it. Additionally, MacKinnon (2013) noted intersectionality is not simply about adding variables but about understanding the power dynamics within those variables from a bottom up perspective. Given those criticisms of utilizing an intersectional framework with quantitative data, it would seem a quantitative analysis may not

be an appropriate choice. However, recently, some scholars have been making the argument that there is a place for quantitative data within an intersectional framework.

One of the core arguments made by opponents of using quantitative data with intersectionality is that there is a lack of complexity of the analysis. E. R. Cole (2009) notes that bringing intersectionality across difference is “reflecting what individuals, institutions, and cultures do, rather than simply characteristics of individuals” (p. 175). More specifically, the use of multiple group memberships is a methodological approach, and statistical methodologies are useful in noting disparities in social groups (E. R. Cole, 2009). E. R. Cole (2009) provides one last insight by stating that intersectionality is “developed to describe analytic approaches that consider the meaning and consequences of multiple categories of group membership” (170). McCall (2013) described the style of investigation noted by E. R. Cole (2009) as intercategory complexity and described that the complexity is in the consideration and analysis of the relationships of all of the various intersectional groups. Cho, Crenshaw, and McCall (2013) stated that they “...do not see literary or scientific or poststructural or legal or any other kind of method as inherently antithetical (or central) to this enterprise...” (p. 796). Worthen and Wallace (2017) utilized a mixed methods approach that included a survey instrument with both quantitative and qualitative responses. There is a growing group of scholars that see potential for use of an intersectional framework with quantitative data.

There are several researchers that note the need for intersectionality to be used in policy analysis and with quantitative data. Anthias (2014) noted that intersectionality should specifically be used with policy analysis to consider the uniqueness of intersectional identities. As Crenshaw (1989) noted, the experience of Black women is not summative of the experience

of Black people and women but unique unto itself. Often sexual victimization is considered an individual victimization rather than an attack on a group or community (Anthias, 2014).

By utilizing quantitative data, this study can examine the impact on many groups and populations in investigating how communities, particularly minoritized intersectional communities, may be impacted by this policy change.

### **Sampling**

One of the challenges of investigating sexual misconduct at colleges and universities using quantitative data is getting a sample size large enough to conduct the analysis (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017). In particular, to consider intersectionality of participant identities requires a data set large enough to conduct analysis focusing on marginalized populations. The MCHBS survey is utilized at 21 colleges and universities in Missouri (Anderson, 2012). The list of colleges and universities utilizing the instrument has stayed consistent since the year 2011 (D. Reilly, personal communication, April 17, 2017). The survey consistently returns a participant sample size between 9000 and 11000 participants.

The institutions that take part in the MCHBS are:

Columbia College, Drury University, Evangel University, Harris-Stowe State University, Lincoln University, Linn State Technical College, Maryville University, Missouri University of Science & Technology, Missouri Southern State University, Missouri State University, Missouri Western State University, Northwest Missouri State University, Rockhurst University, Southeast Missouri State University, Saint Louis University, Truman State University, University of Central Missouri, University of Missouri, University of Missouri-Kansas City, University of Missouri-St. Louis, and Westminster College (Anderson, 2012, p. 1)

MoPiP obtained IRB approval at each of the 21 institutions each year (Anderson, 2012). Each participant was advised of their opportunity to participate through an informed consent. A copy of the informed consent used at the University of Missouri, which is consistent at all institutions, is included in Appendix C.

The institutions involved in the sample indicated representation from a variety of institutional types. Of the institutions, 1/3 were private, and 2/3 were public. In terms of institutional size, seven institutions had 5,000 or fewer students enrolled; six had between 5,001 and 10,000 students enrolled; six had 10,001-20,000 students enrolled; and two had 20,001 or more students enrolled. All of the institutions were not for profit. The institutions involved in the survey represented one associate's level, four bachelor's level, ten master's level, and six doctoral level institutions, according to Basic Carnegie classifications (Carnegie Classifications of Institutions of Higher Education, 2017). From a geographic perspective, 13 institutions were located in cities; two institutions were located in suburbs; and six institutions were located in towns according to the National Center for Education Statistics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). Two of the institutions identified as Historically Black Colleges or Universities (HBCU), and the other remaining institutions were Predominantly White Institutions (PWI). There were no Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSI) identified in the sample. While this grouping may not be perfectly representative of Missouri and higher education in the United States, there is a variety of different educational settings represented.

### **Instrument**

The instrument used for gathering the data to answer the questions was the Missouri College Health Behavior Survey (MCHBS). The MCHBS was created by the MoPiP organization. It collected annual data in the state of Missouri on the health practices of college

students. It was based on the Young Adult Alcohol Problems Screening Test (YAAPST). The YAAPST was designed to address drinking consequences over a lifetime and past year and focused on some of the consequences of drinking such as sexual assault and academic success (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). Questions in the MCHBS related to sexual misconduct were not all related to alcohol use.

### **Reliability**

The MCHBS has not been evaluated for reliability. The YAAPST has been evaluated for reliability. The YAAPST has been shown to have good internal consistency and good test-retest reliability (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency was .87 for lifetime, .83 for the past year (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). Test-retest correlation was .85 for lifetime and .73 for past year (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992).

### **Validity**

The MCHBS has not been evaluated for validity. The YAAPST has been evaluated for validity. The YAAPST has demonstrated concurrent validity, construct validity, and criterion validity (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). For concurrent validity, the YAAPST correlated well with multiple other instruments at .43 to .67, performing better on concurrent validity to the DIS/DSM-III (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). Criterion validity was developed using a logistic regression with the DIS/DSM-III and found logistic rs of .65 for lifetime and .58 for past year (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992). Construct validity for "tension reduction," "social lubrication," and "enhanced activities" ranged for logistic rs from .47-.55 for lifetime and .45-.54 for past year (Hurlbut & Sher, 1992).

The specific survey questions utilized from the MCHBS survey for this study are available in Appendix B. The questions did show some variation from year to year but addressed the core variables in each year.

## **Variables**

The study focused on attribute independent variables related to identity and dependent variables related to experience of sexual misconduct or services for sexual misconduct. The instrument utilized some variation in the terminology used for data which was be taken into account.

The independent variables used were gender, sexuality, race, ethnicity, and year of the survey. Several of variable categories were fairly consistent such as gender, ethnicity, and sexuality. Race as a variable had a lot of variability over the five-year period of the study. “Black or African-American” as a category for race was consistent for the first two years but changed to “Black, African-American, or Native African” for the last three years. Similarly, “White” was used for year one and year two as a category for race but changed to “White, European-American, or Caucasian” for years three, four, and five. “Middle Eastern” was used in year two and “Arab or Non-Arab North African/Middle Eastern” was used in year five as a category for race but no similar term was used in year one, three, or four. Additionally, “Native Caribbean or Afro-Caribbean Islander” was used only in the last three years of the study. Given the specifics of the research question, the variability led to treating “Black or African-American” and “Black, African-American, or Native African” as one category. “White” was also treated as one category with “White, European-American, or Caucasian.” As a result of the sporadic usage, “Middle Eastern” and “Arab or Non-Arab North African/Middle Eastern” was not utilized as a category. “Native Caribbean or Afro-Caribbean Islander” was not used because it was only used as a

variable after the VAWA 2013 implementation. The other independent variables used all of variable categories except for “Asexual” within the sexuality variable, which was only used in the year five survey.

The dependent variables were consistent in their wording for Research Questions One and Three. The questions were often numbered slightly differently based on other changes to the instrument but the wording was very consistent. The only wording change was the question focused on non-consensual sexual contact which was worded “Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?” for year one through year four. In year five, the question was reworded “Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact, meaning sexual contact against your will?”

Research Questions Two and Four only had usable data in years one through four of the study. One other significant questioning concern arose in year five. In year four, the instrument did not ask if the participants had sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault. However, in the four years of the study for Research Questions Two and Four, the effectiveness of the assistance sought for sexual assault was asked. If participants evaluate the effectiveness of the assistance sought for sexual assault, it was assumed they did seek that assistance and a dichotomous variable created for those two years that the data is missing. A “yes” response was provided if they evaluated the services. A “no” was provided if they did not evaluate the services. All variables used in the study can be found in Appendix B.

### **Data Collection**

A selection of the student body emails were obtained and the instrument was sent through e-mail (Anderson, 2012). At schools larger than 4,000 students, a 25% sample was selected (D. Reilly, personal communication, April 17, 2017). The samples selected at schools larger than



1,000 students were 60% male and 40% female (D. Reilly, personal communication, April 17, 2017). At schools sized between 1,001 and 3,999 students, a sample of 600 male students and 400 female students was selected and surveyed (D. Reilly, personal communication, April 17, 2017). For schools of 1,000 and fewer students, all students were surveyed (D. Reilly, personal communication, April 17, 2017). The sampling was designed to obtain a 50% male and 50% female sample (D. Reilly, personal communication, May 5, 2017). Sampling more male students than female students was based on lower return rates from male students (D. Reilly, personal communication, May 5, 2017). The MCHBS survey utilized a stratified random sampling procedure that utilizes gender in order to get a representative sample (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017). This sampling procedure had three identifiable concerns. It did not indicate how it addresses trans\* and gender non-conforming persons in the sampling. It was likely institutions used reported sex rather than gender identity to create the samples. Additionally, it did not indicate how the stratified random sampling took into account institutions smaller than 1000 students in terms of how that impacted the overall goal of 50% female and 50% male, which still ignored trans\* and gender non-conforming persons. Lastly, it did not take into account how non-responses were considered in the sampling processes. For what reason and who does not respond to the instrument was difficult to determine.

From the initial sample, typically 21% of participants returned the survey completed. Of the overall population, the sampling was 6% (Anderson, 2012). This return rate falls above the accepted electronic survey return rate of 5% and is consistent with similar studies (Anderson, 2012; Worthen & Wallace, 2017). Not only did this procedure result in a large sample size, it also met the expectations of a representative sample, according to Gliner, Morgan, and Leech (2017). However, given the large number of non-responses, this study did not assume that the

samples were representative. From 2012-2016, there were 49,301 participants with an average of more than 9,800 participants per year.

### **Data Management**

Managing any data set requires data management. In this study with multiple large data sets, the data management is complicated and, therefore, required careful planning. Data checking, transformation, and recoding were steps that needed to be taken in order to ensure an effective and useful final dataset.

### **Data Checking**

With any data set, it is important to have rules in place to consistently address missing, unclear, or other collection issues (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017). Given the large number of data in this data set, there was opportunity for a large number of missing, unclear, or other data collection problems. Any errors were checked and accounted for (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017).

### **Recoding**

One of the most challenging aspects of the survey was the “sought assistance for sexual assault” question. In 2015 the survey no longer asked if a student sought assistance for sexual assault. As a result of that change, the researcher utilized the evaluation of resources as an indicator of whether or not someone sought services for sexual assault. The researcher recreated the evaluation of services variable as a dichotomous indicator of seeking services for sexual assault. Treiman (2009) indicated that when transforming a variable, it should not be “written over,” but a new variable should be created (p. 73). Transformation of data from approximately normal or scale to categorical or dichotomous is common (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017). The researcher made the assumption in this study that if participants evaluated the services for sexual

misconduct, then they sought services. A second assumption made by the researcher was if participants did not evaluate the services, then they did not seek services. Treiman (2009) describes this data manipulation as data transformation.

In a data set that has tens of thousands of entries, missing data was an important component. The researcher utilized “99” to indicate missing data. The value “99” is a commonly selected choice to identify missing data (Treiman, 2009). There were no identified data that was coded incorrectly. However, if incorrectly coded data had been found, those data would need to be identified and corrected, or the analysis could have been impacted negatively (Treiman, 2009).

### **Data Analysis**

The data analysis of this study focused on analyzing differences in magnitude between different intersectional identities and over time. The study did not use statistical significance because it has a tendency to limit the ability to consider the experience of marginalized populations (Stage, 2007B). The complexity of the consideration of that statistical data was the consideration of the relationships between different intersectional identities.

Initially, it was important to conduct descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistic process helped with the data checking, as well. Knowing the maximum, minimum, and “n” can help identify potential errors in the data collection process. The maximum and minimum provide valuable information in the initial data examination (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017).

The use of statistical significance is commonly used in inferential statistics to determine whether or not difference occurs by chance and to deal with uncertainty. For this study, statistical significance was not be used. Stage (2007B) noted that statistical significance should not be used when utilizing a critical approach to quantitative data because it implies sameness in experience

and reduces value of the counter story. Clarke and McCall (2013) shared this concern and pointed out that models which use intersectionality often do not carefully investigate systems of inequity. As the sampling used in the study is not random sampling, significance testing is not appropriate (Lai, 1973). Another concern with large samples can find trivial differences to be significant. In cases where trivial differences are significant, practical difference is ignored. Additionally, the chance of a Type I error is higher than many anticipate as p-values of .05 or .01 are somewhat arbitrary in the likelihood of associating samples with populations. Type II errors are similarly likely as a large difference can be ignored in significance testing especially with minoritized populations (Lai, 1973).

Strauch (1974) described policy analysis problems related to behavioral change as squishy. According to Strauch (1974), squishy policy analysis problems need to focus less on inference (Strauch, 1974). Rather than focusing on null hypotheses and significance, this study focused on practical and educational difference. Instead of relying on significance testing to analyze the data, the analysis resided with the researcher. The analysis always resides with the researcher as the researcher decides the test, the threshold, and impacts the data (Hannah, 1974; Strauch, 1974). Crenshaw (1989) noted that small samples of Black women in legal cases have made discrimination less likely to be accepted because of lack of significance. Part of the issue with the small samples is proving statistically that the discrimination occurred. Use of statistical significance caused erasure of the Black women's, and other minoritized population's, experience.

Given that significance is not the right path, crosstabular analysis was the primary manner of analysis. For example, crosstabular analysis was used in order to take into account the specific experiences of Black female participants or Asian trans\* participants related to if they

experienced being taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol. This allowed a more complex evaluation of variables as understood through an intersectional framework.

The complexity of the analysis was found with consideration of the analysis of various intersectional identities' experience related to sexual misconduct relate to each other over a period of time. The complexity of that comparison helped to understand the framework of inequity regarding intersectional identities and sexual misconduct. It is a different approach from the normal use of significance, but that was intentional. To understand this framework, a different approach must be used because the questions and use of data were different.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations are always important to consider in any research methodology. Methodology that uses surveys to collect data highlights some specific concerns. Creswell (2012) indicated that providing too great of an incentive in survey research could be problematic in becoming coercive. Gliner, Morgan, & Leech (2017) concurred with Creswell (2012) and highlighted the importance of the voluntary aspect of participant involvement. Confidentiality of responses and minimal links between respondents and their answers is also important in protecting the participant (Creswell, 2012). Creating distance between the participants and the study should not be a concern for this study as the data used in this study met the standard of anonymous as defined by Gliner, Morgan, and Leech (2017).

As the data collection has already been completed, there was no use of incentives or coercion to gather the data. The data received has no identifiable characteristics (D. Reilly, personal communication, January 19, 2017). Additionally, at the original data collection point, all of the data was collected without participant identifiers (D. Reilly, personal communication, January 20, 2017).

One of the largest ethical considerations with this research is the general approach to the topic of sexual misconduct with intersectional identity. This is a topic that must be approached with respect to the experiences of the participants. In considering how to best assess the student experience related to sexual misconduct, it was important to remember that these are not simply numbers but actual students with actual experiences and actual trauma. The methodology was important in this process because the research problem was critical to the safety and well-being of students. Additionally, the use of intersectional identities must be utilized with consideration of power dynamics. Intersectionality requires that the researcher ensure that the framework of inequity is explored authentically.

### **Limitations of the Study**

This study focused on answering important questions about how policy interacts with college students with a focus on intersectional minoritized populations. The study did have several limitations that must be noted and considered in both the process of conducting the study and analyzing the results of the data. First of all, the study used five different cohorts of students, which limits the ability to analyze change in group. The cohorts were similar in demographic make-up but were not the same participants. Additionally, the data came from 21 different IHE, which means 21 different specific campus settings. The study was not able to account for all of those variables. Lastly, the survey instrument was a large instrument of more than 250 questions that was focused on overall student health. It was not focused solely on sexual misconduct, which limits some of the analytical choices.

### **Conclusion**

This methodology was designed to answer the research questions. The findings will be structured differently than many other studies with quantitative data. The focus on

intersectionality over time through trends analysis does not utilize a statistical significance testing but looks at 62 different social locations. By utilizing a critical quantitative approach, the findings of this study describe the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy on the intersectional identities of the participants. The reader will have the opportunity to understand each social location's experience as it relates to each research question. .

## CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

### **Introduction**

The findings for this study are not simple to categorize or understand. While the study did not use the typical complex mathematical formulas to determine significance in findings, the findings are anything but simple. This study investigated 62 different social locations and their interactions power dynamics by investigating the interaction with two or four variables of sexual misconduct. As referred to by McCall (2013), inter-categorical intersectionality can help to understand how policy as an aspect of institutions of higher education impacts participants. This complexity moves past multi-dimensionality and helps to begin to understand the complexity of policy and participants.

As the study investigated utilizing intersectionality, the findings focused on exploring the impact of power dynamics on different social locations of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 (VAWA, 2013). Specifically the investigation examined each social location using a critical approach rather than a comparative approach. Question one and two investigated the overall impact of the policy over the period of the study. Question three and four investigated the social locations identified in the study. As a reminder, the specific research questions were:

1. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?



2. How much did the rate of services sought for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
3. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct for victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
4. How much did the rate of services sought for sexual misconduct by victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?

The variables explored are the following:

- Race (American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian or Asian-American; Bi-racial or Multi-racial; Black, African-American, or Native African; Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander; White, European-American, or Caucasian)
- Ethnicity (Hispanic/Latina/o/x)
- Sexuality (Bisexual, Gay, Heterosexual, Lesbian, Queer, Questioning)
- Gender (Female, Male, Transgender)

Race was paired with sexuality and gender to develop the first two social location categories.

Ethnicity was paired with sexuality and gender to develop the second two social location categories. Initially paying for school was to be used as a variable, however, an evaluation of the demographic data indicated that there were issues with using paying for school as a variable. In 2015, year four of the study, the Missouri College Health Behavior Survey allowed participants

to indicate all ways they had paid for school rather than just the primary way. This created a data inconsistency for paying for school in year four that did not allow the trends analysis to be completed for that variable.

The data were presented in this chapter within each social location without consideration for the other social locations. There was no attempt to compare or create a relationship between different social locations. As noted in Chapter one, there was a unique experience within each intersectional identity that cannot and should not be compared to other identities (Anthias, 2014; Mackinnon, 2013). Chapter five will discuss the inter-categorical complexity of the findings which highlights the power dynamics interacting with the various social locations (McCall, 2013).

### **Demographic Data**

The demographic data of the participants is important to this study because of the intersectional focus of the study. Who the participants are in terms of their identity related to gender, race, ethnicity, and sexuality is the foundation for the structure of the investigation into the impact of the policy on their experience related to sexual misconduct. The demographic data can, based on the literature, be used to analyze findings. For example, a population that increases in female or transgender participants could anticipate a higher rate of sexual misconduct because of the rates of sexual misconduct for those populations (Bagley et al., 2012; Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011). The demographic information sheds light on the population context in which the investigation of sexual misconduct occurs.

#### **Gender**

The demographic data demonstrated several important trends. As shown in Table 1, female participants increased and male participants decreased as a percentage of the study.

Additionally, transgender participants increased their *n* as the study went along while not increasing the percentage of the participants. Gender demographic data could be suggestive of a higher rate of reporting of sexual misconduct in year three, four, and five of the study given the literature about rates of experience of sexual misconduct for women and transgender persons (Bagley et al., 2012; Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011).

Table 1

| <i>Gender by Year Demographic Data</i> |      |      |      |      |      |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|
| Gender                                 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 |
| Female                                 | 55%  | 57%  | 59%  | 61%  | 59%  |
| Male                                   | 45%  | 43%  | 40%  | 39%  | 41%  |
| Transgender                            | <1%  | <1%  | <1%  | <1%  | <1%  |
| Total                                  | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

## Race

The data on race for this study evaluates six categories: American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian or Asian-American; Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial; Black, African-American, or Native African; Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander; and White, European-American, or Caucasian. As shown in Table 2, there was an increase for American Indian or Alaskan Native; Asian or Asian-American; and Black, African-American, or Native African participants over the time period of the study. Research has indicated that participants of color have reported sexual misconduct at a higher rate than White participants (Porter & Williams, 2011). With the demographic shifts throughout the study, there was potential to see an increase in rate of reporting of sexual misconduct for research question one if the findings of this study remain consistent with the literature. A more diverse participant population also provides greater opportunity for investigation of power dynamics at each intersectional social location.

Table 2

*Race by Year Demographic Data*

| Race                                       | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|
| American Indian or Alaskan Native          | 2%   | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   |
| Asian or Asian-American                    | 5%   | 6%   | 5%   | 5%   | 7%   |
| Bi-racial or Multi-racial                  | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   |
| Black, African-American, or Native African | 7%   | 8%   | 7%   | 9%   | 9%   |
| Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander        | <1%  | <1%  | <1%  | 1%   | <1%  |
| White, European-American, or Caucasian     | 82%  | 80%  | 82%  | 80%  | 78%  |
| Total                                      | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

### **Ethnicity**

Ethnicity was evaluated in this study as either Hispanic/Latino or non-Hispanic/Latino. As shown in Table 3, there was an increase in Hispanic/Latino participants over the course of the study from 3% in year one to 5% in year five. Similarly to race, this increase could portend a potentially higher rate of reporting of sexual misconduct for research question one and provides a larger population to work with for research questions three and four.

Table 3

*Ethnicity by Year Demographic Data*

| Ethnicity           | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 |
|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Hispanic/Latino     | 3%   | 4%   | 4%   | 5%   | 5%   |
| Non-Hispanic/Latino | 97%  | 96%  | 96%  | 95%  | 95%  |
| Total               | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

## Sexual Orientation

The sexual orientation variable identified six potential sexual identity categories: bisexual, gay, heterosexual, lesbian, queer, and questioning. As shown in Table 4, bisexual participants increased from 3% to 5% over the course of the study and queer participants increased four-fold. With an increase in bisexual and queer participants and a decrease in heterosexual participants, the literature indicated that there is potential for an increase in rate of sexual misconduct in research question one (Porter & Williams, 2011). Additionally, an increase in queer and bisexual participants increases their pool of participants which may add more richness to the data in research question three and four when looking at intersectional identities.

Table 4

*Sexual Orientation by Year Demographic Data*

| Sexual Orientation | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 |
|--------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Bisexual           | 3%   | 3%   | 3%   | 4%   | 5%   |
| Gay                | 2%   | 2%   | 2%   | 2%   | 2%   |
| Heterosexual       | 93%  | 93%  | 92%  | 92%  | 90%  |
| Lesbian            | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   |
| Queer              | <1%  | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   |
| Questioning        | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   | 1%   |
| Total              | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

## Conclusion

Across many of the variables, the demographic data indicated a shift towards a more diverse population. This shift underscores the importance of this study. With an increasingly diverse student population, it is more important each and every year to understand the experience of marginalized populations particularly related to intersectional identities. The research has indicated that marginalized populations are more likely to be victim/survivors of sexual misconduct (Brown, Pena, & Rankin, 2017; Effrig, Bieschke, & Locke, 2011; Porter &

Williams, 2011). Policy often ignores marginalized populations (White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault, 2014; Wooten, 2017).

### **Evaluation of a Trend**

The evaluation of data to determine trend was complex process across the different variables and social locations. Some of the social locations, such as heterosexual and White, European-American, or Caucasian had large  $n$ . While others such as questioning and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander had quite a small  $n$ . The disparity in the groups did not allow for a set criteria in determining trend, which is partially by design. In utilizing an intersectional framework, each of the social locations needed to be considered within its own context. Additionally, Research Questions One and Three were looking for different trends than Research Questions Two and Four.

### **Research Questions One and Three**

*Curvilinear Trend.* The curvilinear trend that indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change had a high point in the data in year three with a decrease from year three to four and a decrease from year four to five. The curvilinear trend-line indicated effective educational efforts in year three and effective prevention efforts in year four and five (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005; Koss, 2011; Rowe et al., 2012). Year one and two only needed to be less than year three to indicate this trend.

*Potentialc Trend.* Data sets that demonstrated some aspects of the curvilinear trend but not all aspects of it were defined as demonstrating a potential for a trend. For example this could be that year four and five decreased from year three but the high point in the data was year one. Another example could be that year three was the high point and year four decreased but year five increased. There were many ways for the data to indicate aspects of the curvilinear trend but

not meet all expectations. It was more common for the data to be a potential trend than the curvilinear trend.

*Not Suggestive of a Curvilinear Trend.* Most of the data sets in the social locations did not indicate evidence of the curvilinear trend in any way. This could be data that was increased and decreased throughout the time period of the study with no discernable pattern. This could also be indicative of a trend that is flat or only increasing or only decreasing. While flat, increasing, and decreasing are suggestive of trends, those trends are not reflective of VAWA 2013 policy change.

### **Research Questions Two and Four**

*Increasing Trend.* An increasing trend in “assistance sought after experiencing sexual assault” and “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” was indicative of change that was reflective of the VAWA 2013 policy change. Data sets that demonstrated a consistently increasing trend from years one through four and particularly years two through four were indicative of impact of this trend. This trend-line was most evident with social locations that had larger populations. It was more challenging to determine and assess with the social locations that had fewer participants.

*Potential for a Trend.* Social locations that demonstrated the potential for a trend demonstrated some characteristics but not all of an increasing trend. Many of the social locations that fit this characteristic had some increase but perhaps a very small change. Another example would be an increase in year three with a plateau in year four. Additionally, some social locations demonstrated so few participants that it was difficult to determine what the increase meant or if it was simply an anomaly.

*No Trend.* The majority of social locations did not demonstrate an increasing trend at all. Many did not have any participants or so few that a trend was impossible to determine. Other social locations had a flat or decreasing trend. Others still were increasing and decreasing in a way that no trend could be determined.

## Conclusion

It is important to note that each social location was determined using the above elucidated structure and considered individually. With the varying *ns* and other differences across the social locations, a criterion that was not context specific could not be used. Each data set was analyzed by the researcher individually. The findings are then both subjective as determined by the researcher and objective as within the elucidated structure.

## Research Questions

### Research Question One

Determining the impact on the rate of victim/survivors experiencing sexual assault by the VAWA 2013 policy change was evaluated in this study by examining four variables related to experiencing sexual assault. The four variables are “taken advantage of sexually after drinking

Table 5

#### *Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol for All Participants*

| Year | <i>n</i> | % |
|------|----------|---|
| 2012 | 581      | 7 |
| 2013 | 548      | 8 |
| 2014 | 419      | 5 |
| 2015 | 481      | 5 |
| 2016 | 496      | 5 |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

alcohol,” “ever having experienced non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while at their current college or university,” and “experienced sexual



assault in the past year.” The variables provide an opportunity to examine the phenomenon of sexual misconduct from several of the areas from which it was perpetrated.

“Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated trends which demonstrated a decrease in percentage of victim/survivors. As shown in Table 5, the data indicated that prevention efforts could have been effective in years three, four, and five after the implementation of VAWA 2013 with a reduction in rate to 5%. However, the research would have expected a curvilinear trend with an increase in year three of the study based on educational efforts. With no evidence as to why, there was not an increase in year three.

The variable, “ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact,” indicated an increasing trend throughout the study. Given the increasing demographic-related data from 12% to 18% shown in Table 6, this data could be suggestive of effective educational efforts in which more participants understand their experiences as “non-consensual sexual contact.” The data was also suggestive of increased experiences of sexual misconduct given that it continues to increase over the five-year period. There was no evidence of effective preventions efforts. The trend was linear in an increasing fashion rather than curvilinear with an increase in year three.

Table 6

*Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact for All Participants*

| Year | <i>n</i> | %  |
|------|----------|----|
| 2012 | 922      | 12 |
| 2013 | 1067     | 13 |
| 2014 | 1045     | 15 |
| 2015 | 1453     | 17 |
| 2016 | 1398     | 18 |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

“Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated a consistent rate for victim/survivors from year one to year five. However, year four indicated a decrease of 4%, as shown in Table 7. That decrease could indicate a statistical

Table 7

*Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University for All Participants*

| Year | <i>n</i> | %  |
|------|----------|----|
| 2012 | 299      | 32 |
| 2013 | 299      | 28 |
| 2014 | 299      | 29 |
| 2015 | 361      | 25 |
| 2016 | 439      | 32 |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

anomaly in year four or could indicate there was no trend. It was not evident from the data that the VAWA 2013 policy change created change in experience for participants related to “non-consensual sexual contact” while at this college or university.

Similar to “non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced sexual assault in the past year” increased each year over the five years of the study. This finding could be indicative of effective educational efforts related to sexual assault and sexual misconduct. As shown in Table 8, the experience of sexual assault in the last year by all participants increased from 1% to 3% in the five years of the study. The data could be suggestive that as more participants are aware of what constitutes sexual assault or sexual misconduct, participants are better able to indicate that in the study. It was not evident that the increase in reporting of sexual assault was impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change but it could be related to the policy. The data may suggest that prevention efforts were not effective in reducing participants’ experience of “sexual assault in the past year.”

Table 8

*Experienced Sexual Assault in the Past Year for All Participants*

| Year | <i>n</i> | % |
|------|----------|---|
| 2012 | 103      | 1 |
| 2013 | 111      | 1 |
| 2014 | 109      | 2 |
| 2015 | 184      | 2 |
| 2016 | 200      | 3 |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

The data related to the rate of sexual misconduct did not provide an obvious picture of how the VAWA 2013 policy change impacted the participants. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” indicated a linear increasing rate of participants who reported experiencing sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” presents a picture of a decreasing rate of participants experiencing sexual misconduct. In contrast, “non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated either an unchanging trend or a data set that cannot provide a trend-line. While not definitive, “non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year,” two of the more general variables, are suggestive of a trend of increased reporting of sexual misconduct.

## Research Question Two

One of the primary objectives of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 was to provide additional assistance to victim/survivors of sexual assault. Specifically, the VAWA 2013 policy change focused on educating students on how to seek assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct and providing effective services for victim/survivors. The study investigated assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct by looking at two variables. The first variable was the rate of participants who sought services after experiencing sexual assault and the second variable was the effectiveness of the services that were sought.

For all participants, sought assistance indicated an upward trend through the four years of the study. As shown in Table 9, year one, two, and three reported fairly consistent numbers at 28%, 28%, and 30%. The slight increase in year three could have indicated that the educational efforts took a full year to become effective. The slight increase could be indicative of effective educational techniques that informed participants of their options for seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct.

Table 9

*Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault for All Participants*

| Year | <i>n</i> | %  |
|------|----------|----|
| 2012 | 29       | 28 |
| 2013 | 31       | 28 |
| 2014 | 33       | 30 |
| 2015 | 95       | 48 |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

The data for the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for all participants was inconsistent through the timeline of the study. The data from year one to three was indicative of a trend that could suggest more participants sought assistance because of the VAWA 2013 policy change. As shown in Table 10, years one to three saw a decrease from 21% to 3% in not effective at all evaluation of assistance. However, in year four the evaluation for not at all effective increased to more than 17%. This year four data were concerning. Similarly, an evaluation of very effective increased from 17% to 40% in years one through three. Again, year four the data decreased to 18% for a very effective evaluation. In summary, the trend in the data in year one through three was suggestive of effective policy; however, the year four data indicated that the policy may not be as effective as previously thought.

Table 10

*Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault for All Participants*

|                           |          | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
|---------------------------|----------|------|------|------|------|
| It negatively impacted me | <i>n</i> | 0    | 2    | 2    | 22   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 0    | 7    | 7    | 6    |
| Not effective at all      | <i>n</i> | 6    | 3    | 1    | 61   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 21   | 10   | 3    | 18   |
| Slightly effective        | <i>n</i> | 5    | 5    | 3    | 83   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 17   | 17   | 10   | 24   |
| Moderately effective      | <i>n</i> | 10   | 8    | 9    | 81   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 35   | 28   | 30   | 23   |
| Very effective            | <i>n</i> | 5    | 7    | 12   | 63   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 17   | 24   | 40   | 18   |
| Extremely effective       | <i>n</i> | 3    | 4    | 3    | 39   |
|                           | <i>%</i> | 10   | 14   | 10   | 11   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable

In investigating both how often assistance was sought and the effectiveness of that assistance for victim survivors, there are positive trends for both data sets. Participants who sought assistance increased over the years of the study when looking at all participants. Additionally, participants who evaluated the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did indicate a trend towards increased effectiveness of the assistance from years one through three of the study. Year four indicated a regression back to year one data levels for effectiveness of assistance, indicating a need for future research to further explore this curvilinear trend.

### Research Question Three

Each social location was investigated to understand the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change on that particular intersectional identity. Each social location examined was an intersection of two aspects of identity such as race and gender in order to understand dynamics of

power such as racism or sexism. For many of the social locations, the policy did not have an observable impact. Yet for other social locations, there was an evident connection between the intention of the policy and the impact on the social location. The intersectional identities of the participants allow for consideration of how power dynamics were present in and through the policy. Research question three specifically investigates the experiences of sexual misconduct for participants at each social location based on four sexual misconduct variables. The sexual misconduct variables are “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year.”

#### *Gender and Ethnicity*

*Hispanic/Latina and Female.* Hispanic/Latina female participants did not indicate an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. As shown in Table 11, “non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” both indicated an increase over the five years of the

Table 11

#### *Hispanic/Latina and Female for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual Contact | Experienced<br>Non-Consensual<br>Sexual Contact<br>While Attending<br>This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|---|---|--|
| 2012 | 7%   | 19%   | 31%   | 3%                                       |
| 2013 | 11%  | 21%   | 27%   | 3%                                       |
| 2014 | 8%   | 22%   | 41%   | 3%                                       |
| 2015 | 5%   | 29%   | 21%   | 5%                                       |
| 2016 | 6%   | 32%   | 27%   | 5%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

study. This could be indicative of educational efforts or increased occurrence. However, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact

while attending this college or university” did not have consistent trends. The data did not indicate how and if the VAWA 2013 policy change impacted Hispanic/Latina female participants.

*Hispanic/Latino and Male.* Hispanic/Latino male participants indicated some data trends that demonstrated potentially effective educational and prevention efforts. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” both indicated a high point in year three and decreasing years four and five. That data was suggestive of effective educational and prevention efforts. “Non-consensual sexual contact data” was inconsistent and difficult to draw a trend from based on the year five high point. “Experienced sexual assault in the past year” indicated a fairly consistent trend alternating between 1% and 2% for years two, three, four, and five, as shown in Table 12. There were several variables for this social location that demonstrated evidence of effectiveness for educational and prevention efforts related to sexual misconduct.

Table 12

*Hispanic/Latino and Male for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced<br>Non-Consensual<br>Sexual Contact<br>While Attending<br>This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 9%   | 6%   | 42%   | 0%                                       |
| 2013 | 5%   | 8%   | 35%   | 1%                                       |
| 2014 | 13%  | 13%  | 54%   | 2%                                       |
| 2015 | 5%   | 7%   | 50%   | 1%                                       |
| 2016 | 5%   | 14%  | 43%   | 2%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Hispanic/Latinx and Transgender.* Hispanic/Latinx transgender participants did not report a data set that a trend could be drawn from. Year two, three, and four for all aspects of

sexual misconduct studied did not have any participants indicate experiencing sexual misconduct. The lack of data makes analysis of the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change difficult to assess.

### *Ethnicity and Sexuality*

*Hispanic/Latinx and Bisexual.* Bisexual Hispanic/Latinx participants did not suggest positive impact from the VAWA 2013 policy changes. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “non-consensual sexual contact” showed a reduction over the five-year period of the study but the reduction was not consistent with the policy change. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” and “sexual assault in the past year” both indicated ups and downs for Bisexual Hispanic/Latinx participants that make determining a trend difficult.

*Hispanic/Latino and Gay.* Gay Hispanic/Latino participants did not indicate a trend that would be consistent with change based on the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a positive trend with a high point in year three and a reduction in year four and five. However, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not indicate a trend. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did have a high point in year three and a decrease in year four and five. However, it also had 0% in years one, two, and five which make drawing a conclusion challenging.

*Hispanic/Latinx and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated a couple of different trends that suggest a relationship to the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” for heterosexual Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated a data set with a high point in year three and a reduction in year four and five that



would suggest effective educational and prevention efforts. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” both demonstrated an increase over the five years of the study that may indicate effective educational efforts but failed prevention efforts, as shown in Table 13. “Non-consensual sexual contact” while attending this university or college indicated increases and decreases that were difficult to draw a trend from.

Table 13

*Hispanic/Latino and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 7%   | 12%  | 22%  | 0%                              |
| 2013 | 9%   | 13%  | 30%  | 2%                              |
| 2014 | 11%  | 16%  | 45%  | 3%                              |
| 2015 | 6%   | 19%  | 26%  | 3%                              |
| 2016 | 5%   | 23%  | 34%  | 3%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Hispanic/Latina and Lesbian.* Lesbian Hispanic/Latina participants did not report in numbers that would allow for an assessment of a trend. Only three years out of 20 for the variable categories had participants who reported sexual misconduct. Certainly reports of 0% have merit and add to the data. However, a data set such as this makes conclusions difficult to draw. One could draw a conclusion of no policy impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change as the data demonstrated a flat trend at 0% for the variables with one exception in year five for “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” and two exceptions for “non-consensual sexual contact.”

*Hispanic/Latinx and Queer.* Queer Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated a 0% response in many instances. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-

consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” had no participants who indicated experiencing that type of sexual misconduct. “Non-consensual sexual contact” did have responses in year two, four, and five. However, the data for queer Hispanic/Latinx participants and “non-consensual sexual contact” did not indicate a recognizable trend. There were no trends that could be drawn which indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Hispanic/Latinx and Questioning.* Questioning Hispanic/Latinx participants did not indicate a trend which was impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “sexual assault in the past year” both indicated no queer Hispanic/Latinx participants who had experienced that type of sexual misconduct. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” had responses that did not indicate a trend consistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change or otherwise.

#### *Race and Gender*

*Female and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* “Non-consensual sexual contact” for female American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated a steady increase throughout the study. As shown in Table 14, the increase for “non-consensual sexual contact” could be indicative of effective educational efforts or increased occurrence. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” all indicated up and down reporting that made a trend difficult to conclude. It was not evident that the VAWA 2013 policy change had an impact on the rate of occurrence of sexual misconduct for female American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

Table 14

*Female and American Indian or Alaskan Native for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-Consensual<br>Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual Contact<br>While Attending<br>This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault<br>in the<br>Past Year |
|------|--|---|--|--|
| 2012 | 9%   | 23%   | 22%  | 2%                                       |
| 2013 | 7%   | 30%   | 20%  | 3%                                       |
| 2014 | 4%   | 30%   | 24%  | 4%                                       |
| 2015 | 6%   | 32%   | 20%  | 5%                                       |
| 2016 | 5%   | 34%   | 31%  | 4%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Female and Asian or Asian-American.* Female Asian or Asian-American participants indicated the curvilinear trend suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. As shown in Table 15, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” showed a high point of 7% in year three followed by decreases to 6% and 3% in year four and five, respectively. Additionally, “non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” also had a high point in year three at 61% and a decrease to 40% and 31% in year four and five. The data for “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” may suggest effective educational and prevention efforts. “Non-consensual sexual contact” showed a fairly consistent increase throughout the study from 8% in year one to 15% in year five. “Sexual assault in the past year” had reporting that was up and down throughout the study.

*Female and Bi-racial or Multi-racial.* Female Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for sexual misconduct. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated a response to the VAWA 2013 policy change with

Table 15

*Female and Asian or Asian-American for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 3%   | 8%   | 27%  | 0%                              |
| 2013 | 5%   | 12%  | 25%  | 1%                              |
| 2014 | 7%   | 13%  | 61%  | 4%                              |
| 2015 | 6%   | 16%  | 40%  | 1%                              |
| 2016 | 3%   | 15%  | 31%  | 4%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

a high point in year three and a decrease in reporting in year four and five, as shown in Table 16.

“Sexual assault in the past year” indicated a steadily increasing reporting throughout the study.

“Non-consensual sexual contact” also indicated a mostly increasing report of experience of sexual misconduct with a slight decrease in year five. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated an up and down data set. Sexual misconduct for female Bi-Racial or

Table 16

*Female and Bi-racial or Multi-racial for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 4%   | 23%  | 20%  | 1%                              |
| 2013 | 8%   | 24%  | 31%  | 2%                              |
| 2014 | 7%   | 31%  | 35%  | 5%                              |
| 2015 | 12%  | 36%  | 34%  | 7%                              |
| 2016 | 8%   | 33%  | 28%  | 8%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

Multi-Racial participants indicated a complex social location in relation to the VAWA 2013 policy change. The complexity of racism and sexism with neo-liberal policy is evident in the complexity of this social location.

*Female and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Female Black, African-American, and Native African participants indicate a trend toward increasing reporting of sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated an increase from 3% in year one to 4% in years two through five, as shown in Table 17. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated an increase each year from 16% in year one to 24% in year five. “Non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated a fairly steady rate between 20% and 17% for years one through four followed by a 26% in year five. “Sexual

Table 17

*Female and Black, African-American, or Native African for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While<br>Attending This<br>College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|---|--|--|
| 2012 | 3%   | 16%   | 20%  | 2%                                       |
| 2013 | 4%   | 18%   | 20%  | 2%                                       |
| 2014 | 4%   | 21%   | 19%  | 1%                                       |
| 2015 | 4%   | 22%   | 17%  | 3%                                       |
| 2016 | 4%   | 24%   | 26%  | 3%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

assault in the past year” indicated an increase in year four and five to 3% from 2% in year one and two. Looking at these four data sets combined it was evidence of an increasing trend for the female Black, African-American, or Native African social location.

*Female and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* “Sexual assault in the past year,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” all did not indicate a trend-line for the data set. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated data suggestive of responsiveness to the VAWA 2013 policy change with a high point year three at 35% and a decrease in year four and five. Year five increased over year four but still less than year three for “non-consensual sexual contact” which makes the trend not quite as obvious.

*Female and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated a flat to slightly increasing trend. “Non-

Table 18

*Female and White, European-American, or Caucasian for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 8%   | 17%  | 32%  | 2%                              |
| 2013 | 7%   | 20%  | 29%  | 2%                              |
| 2014 | 6%   | 20%  | 29%  | 2%                              |
| 2015 | 7%   | 23%  | 27%  | 3%                              |
| 2016 | 8%   | 26%  | 31%  | 4%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” showed an increasing trend over the course of the study, as shown in Table 18. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a mostly flat trend-line with a slight decrease in years two, three, and four. These trends are suggestive of impact of educational

efforts but not prevention efforts related to sexual misconduct for female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants.

*Male and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* Male American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend in regards to sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated potential for a trend with a high point in year three and year four and five lower than year three. However, year four was at 2% and year five was at 7% which was an increase that did not indicate effective educational efforts and prevention efforts. Year four data were problematic for “non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” with reporting that interrupted trends or indicated inconsistency with the other years. The social location of male American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate an obvious response to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Male and Asian or Asian-American.* “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” for male Asian or Asian-American participants indicated a curvilinear trend-line evidence of effectiveness with the VAWA 2013 policy change. Year three was a high point at 7% with a decrease to 3% and 4% in year four and five, respectively, for male Asian or Asian-American participants, as shown in Table 19. “Non-consensual sexual contact” showed a flat trend-line at about 5% for the entirety of the study. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not demonstrate a trend. Male Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate an obvious response to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 19

*Male and Asian or Asian-American for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 6%   | 6%   | 64%  | 2%                              |
| 2013 | 4%   | 4%   | 33%  | 0%                              |
| 2014 | 7%   | 5%   | 22%  | 1%                              |
| 2015 | 3%   | 5%   | 43%  | 1%                              |
| 2016 | 4%   | 5%   | 27%  | 2%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Male and Bi-racial or Multi-racial.* Male Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated a trend for “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol.” As shown in Table 20, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” reported a high point in year three with a decrease

Table 20

*Male and Bi-racial or Multi-racial for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 8%   | 10%  | 56%  | 1%                              |
| 2013 | 5%   | 9%   | 0%   | 1%                              |
| 2014 | 10%  | 9%   | 33%  | 0%                              |
| 2015 | 7%   | 7%   | 57%  | 1%                              |
| 2016 | 6%   | 10%  | 33%  | 1%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

to 7% in year four and 6% in year five. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” indicated flat trend-lines with one aberrant year for each. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a flat trend at 10% or 9% for all years except year four which was at 7%.

Similarly, “sexual assault in the past year” indicated 1% in all years except year three.



“Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate a trend-line. Male Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants as a social location indicated a limited response to the VAWA 2013 policy change with most data indicating no response. With a policy that was likely not designed for either male or Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants, the evidence of racism and a neo-liberal policy designed for White female participants is evident in this social location.

*Male and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Male Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not show a consistent impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a curvilinear trend with a high point in year three at 6% and reduction to 5% and 3% in year four and five, respectively. However, none of the other variables related to sexual misconduct indicated a trend or any impact for the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Male and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* There did not appear to be any impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change on male Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. Only “sexual assault in the past year” indicated a trend with all five years of the study reporting 0%. “Non-consensual sexual contact” showed inconsistent returns with a high point in year three but that same level (14%) was reached in year five which indicated questionable educational efforts and ineffective prevention efforts.

*Male and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Male White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated some trends but not an obvious response to the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” each indicated an increase over the five-year period of the study, as shown in Table 21. “Non-consensual sexual contact” increased in a fairly consistent manner from 6% in year one to 9% in

year five. Additionally, “sexual assault in the past year” increased from less than 1% in years one, two, and three to 1% in years four and five. These increases could be suggestive of educational efforts or increased occurrence. Taken advantage of sexually indicated the most responsive data to the VAWA 2013 policy change. Year three was a high point at 7% for “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” with a decrease to 4% in year four and five. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a less evident trend with data all between 35% and 41% and no obvious up or down trend. There appears to be some impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change on male White, European-American, or Caucasian participants but the impact was uncertain with the variables reporting different trend-lines.

Table 21

*Male and White, European-American, or Caucasian for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 6%   | 6%   | 41%  | <1%                             |
| 2013 | 5%   | 5%   | 35%  | <1%                             |
| 2014 | 7%   | 7%   | 35%  | <1%                             |
| 2015 | 4%   | 7%   | 39%  | 1%                              |
| 2016 | 4%   | 9%   | 38%  | 1%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Transgender and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* Transgender American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not demonstrate impact from the VAWA 2013 policy impact. The data had multiple years in each variable with either 0% or an indication that there were no transgender American Indian or Alaskan Native participants for that variable. The data sets for each of the variables was up and down from 0% to 100% in some instances. There were no

evident trends for any of the variables for transgender American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

*Transgender and Asian or Asian-American.* Transgender Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate an impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change. The data indicated either one or no participants indicating experiencing the various aspects of sexual misconduct identified by the variable. From a percentage analysis, the data operates in extremes from 50% down to 0% up to 50% again or even 100%. A trend cannot be determined with data that decreases and increases so suddenly throughout the study. The frequency of responses was only at one or zero for each year of each variable. The low response and low overall population makes evaluating a trend challenging.

*Transgender and Bi-racial or Multi-racial.* As shown in Table 22, transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated a consistent trend across variables with high reporting in Table 22

*Transgender and Bi-racial or Multi-racial for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 100%   | 100%   | 100%   | 67%                             |
| 2013 | 0%   | 0%   | nd   | 0%                              |
| 2014 | nd   | nd   | nd   | nd                              |
| 2015 | 33%  | 0%   | nd   | 0%                              |
| 2016 | 0%   | 0%   | nd   | 0%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable; nd=no data available

year one for each of the variables making up sexual misconduct in the study and quick decrease to 0% for the remainder of the study for all variables except “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol.” Year four of “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a

33% yes response rate. Year three did not indicate any participants who identified as transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial. Additionally, after year one, “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate any transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. While this was one of the most evident trends for a social location, the trend was not impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change, as the trend began prior to the VAWA 2013 implementation.

*Transgender and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend related to sexual misconduct over the life of the study. The data for the variables was up and down. The data indicated a high point in year one for all of the variables related to sexual misconduct with a decrease in years two and three. However, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “non-consensual sexual contact” had increases in years four and five respectively. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not have any participants for years two, three, and four. The sexual misconduct variables studied for transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Transgender and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander transgender participants did not indicate a trend. Year one for all sexual misconduct variables indicated a high point at 100%. However, years two, three, four, and five did not indicate any transgender Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” or “sexual assault in the past year.” “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” also indicated no transgender Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants in years

two or three. The lack of participants makes a trend difficult to ascertain for Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander transgender students.

*Transgender and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend-line. “Non-consensual sexual contact” reported an increase from year one through four that could be suggestive of effective educational efforts for transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants with a decrease in year five, as shown in Table 23. The decrease in year five could be evidence of effective prevention efforts. The data for the other sexual misconduct variables did not indicate increasing, decreasing, or policy responsive trend-lines. It was not evident that transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants experienced much impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 23

*Transgender and White, European-American, or Caucasian for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 14%  | 25%  | 100%   | 13%                             |
| 2013 | 10%  | 33%  | 0%   | 0%                              |
| 2014 | 0%   | 38%  | 67%  | 0%                              |
| 2015 | 18%  | 64%  | 0%   | 18%                             |
| 2016 | 6%   | 42%  | 40%  | 14%                             |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Race and Sexuality*

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Bisexual.* Bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a consistent trend in regards to sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while

attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not indicate a trend-line. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a curvilinear trend-line demonstrating potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. As shown in Table 24, year three was a high point with a decrease in year four and five for bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. While “non-consensual sexual contact” showed a trend consistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change, bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate an overall impact.

Table 24

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Bisexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 7%   | 36%  | 75%  | 7%                              |
| 2013 | 13%  | 33%  | 20%  | 0%                              |
| 2014 | 0%   | 73%  | 13%  | 9%                              |
| 2015 | 7%   | 42%  | 20%  | 8%                              |
| 2016 | 13%  | 14%  | 100%   | 13%                             |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Gay.* Gay American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend within or across the four sexual misconduct variables. The sexual misconduct variables had increases and decreases throughout the data sets that made a trend-line of any type difficult to ascertain. The data did not indicate that the VAWA 2013 policy change had an impact on gay American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated the potential for some trends. As shown in Table 25, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated the potential for a flat trend with

the data around 6% and 7% consistently. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated the potential for an increasing trend with year three as decreasing outlier to the data set. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” reported a high point in year three and a decrease in year four. However, for “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” year five increased from 16% in year three to 28% in year four making a trend less evident. “Sexual assault in the past year” indicated a high point in year three at 3% and a decrease to 2% in year four and five. “Sexual assault in the past year” was suggestive of effective educational and prevention efforts, however, the increase and decrease are limited. Heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants reported data sets for sexual misconduct that did not provide clarity on a trend or impact related to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 25

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault the in Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 9%   | 16%  | 22%  | 1%                              |
| 2013 | 6%   | 21%  | 22%  | 3%                              |
| 2014 | 7%   | 18%  | 31%  | 3%                              |
| 2015 | 5%   | 22%  | 16%  | 2%                              |
| 2016 | 6%   | 25%  | 28%  | 2%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Lesbian.* Lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for any of the four sexual misconduct variables. The

data for lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not suggest impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. The data includes many ups and downs within each data set.

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Queer.* Queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend-line that suggested a response to the VAWA 2013 policy change or an increasing or decreasing trend. The data for queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants was inconsistent from year to year and variable to variable. The data increased and decreased in large percentages regularly throughout each of the data sets for the sexual misconduct variables.

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Questioning.* Questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate trend-lines within the different variables. There were a couple of cross variable trends. Years two and three of the study did not indicate any reported incidents of sexual misconduct by any of the questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. Additionally, year one of each sexual misconduct variable had one participant report experiencing sexual misconduct. The cross variable trends did not seem to reflect a response to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Asian or Asian-American and Bisexual.* Bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants indicated some potential trend-lines. As shown in Table 26, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a fairly flat trend ranging from 6% to 9%, except for year three which was 0%. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated a high point in year three and a decrease in year four but an increase in year five. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicate the potential for trend. “Non-



consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not indicate a trend that was suggestive of increasing, decreasing, or influence of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 26

| <i>Asian or Asian-American and Bisexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct</i> |  |   |  |  |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| Year  | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual Contact<br>While Attending This<br>College or University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
| 2012  | 6%   | 9%  | 50%  | 0%                                       |
| 2013  | 9%   | 20%   | 0%   | 0%                                       |
| 2014  | 0%   | 17%   | 67%  | 10%                                      |
| 2015  | 8%   | 18%   | 33%  | 0%                                       |
| 2016  | 8%   | 13%   | 40%  | 11%                                      |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Asian or Asian-American and Gay.* Gay Asian or Asian-American participants did not have many participants report experience sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” all had four years with no participants who indicated experiencing sexual misconduct. “Non-consensual sexual contact” had one yes response in four of the five years. The data, as limited as it is, did not show any trend except limited response. The VAWA 2013 policy change did not seem to have impacted gay Asian or Asian-American participants.

*Asian or Asian-American and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants did indicate some curvilinear trends that demonstrated potential response to the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” reported a high point at 7% in year three and decreases in both year four and five, as shown in Table 27. Similarly, “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university”

had a high point in year three at 52% and a decrease in both year four and five. This was suggestive of effective educational and prevention efforts. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated an increasing trend in years one through four with a decrease in year five. “Sexual assault in the past year” generally increased from year one to five but not in a consistent manner. The data suggests heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants experienced an impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 27

*Asian or Asian-American and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual<br>Sexual Contact While<br>Attending This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 4%   | 6%   | 37%   | 0%                                       |
| 2013 | 5%   | 8%   | 33%   | 0%                                       |
| 2014 | 7%   | 9%   | 52%   | 2%                                       |
| 2015 | 6%   | 12%  | 44%   | 1%                                       |
| 2016 | 3%   | 10%  | 31%   | 3%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Asian or Asian-American and Lesbian.* Lesbian Asian or Asian-American participants did not have many yes responses across the four sexual misconduct variables. Only “non-consensual sexual contact” in year four had a yes response. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” all had no responses for any year. This data set for lesbian Asian or Asian-American participants reported evidence of a trend of 0%, which did not indicate impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Asian or Asian-American and Queer.* Queer Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend. Several of the years for each sexual misconduct variables through the study

reported zero yes responses. A cross variable trend analysis also did not indicate consistent trends.

*Asian or Asian-American and Questioning.* Questioning Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate many yes responses for the various sexual misconduct variables. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate any yes responses. Additionally, “non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” reported 0% for four of the five years of the study. The data did not indicate or suggest impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Bisexual.* Bisexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change in the data sets. “Sexual assault in the past year” indicated an increasing trend over the five year period of the study. The other sexual assault variables did not indicate a trend that was indicative of influence by the VAWA 2013 policy change or consistently increasing or decreasing.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Gay.* Gay Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated consistent trends for “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” and “sexual assault in the past year” with no participants indicating experiencing sexual misconduct. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “non-consensual sexual contact” did have yes responses for sexual misconduct for gay Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. However, neither “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” nor “non-consensual sexual contact” had consistent trends. None of the sexual misconduct data for gay Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants had trends which are, in some cases, suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013

policy change. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated a trend that would be consistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change with a high point in year three and a decrease in year four and five, as shown in Table 28. “Non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” indicated a consistently increasing trend (excluding year one to two for “non-consensual sexual contact”). “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a potentially increasing trend, as well, with a decrease in year five. The trend across the four variables were mostly increasing over the time frame of the study.

Table 28

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 5%   | 15%  | 24%  | 0%                              |
| 2013 | 8%   | 14%  | 28%  | 2%                              |
| 2014 | 8%   | 21%  | 41%  | 3%                              |
| 2015 | 9%   | 21%  | 38%  | 4%                              |
| 2016 | 6%   | 22%  | 31%  | 4%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Lesbian.* Lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated a potentially flat trend across most of the sexual misconduct variables. As displayed in Table 29, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” both had four of five years with no yes responses to experiencing sexual misconduct. Additionally, “sexual assault in the past year” indicated no yes responses over the five years of the study. This indicated the potential of an

overall flat trend for lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. The data also seems to indicate little to no impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 29

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Lesbian for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While<br>Attending This<br>College or University | Sexual<br>Assault<br>in the<br>Past Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 0%   | 75%  | 0%  | 0%                                       |
| 2013 | 0%   | 25%  | 100%  | 0%                                       |
| 2014 | 33%  | 50%  | 0%  | 0%                                       |
| 2015 | 0%   | 0%   | <i>nd</i>   | 0%                                       |
| 2016 | 0%   | 33%  | 0%  | 0%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Queer.* Queer Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate trends in the sexual misconduct variables that would be suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. The data has at least one 0% for each data set and up and down reporting through the different variables. There did not appear to be a trend within or across the different variables.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Questioning.* Questioning Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate within or across sexual misconduct variable trend-lines that would indicate impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. The data across variables indicated a trend of a high point in year one. After year one, the data was inconsistent on any future reporting trends.

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Bisexual.* Bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated a couple of potential trends within the sexual misconduct variables. “Non-consensual sexual contact” indicated potential influence of the

VAWA 2013 policy change with a high point in year three that remained consistent for year four and dropped in year five. As shown in Table 30, “sexual assault in the past year” indicated a potentially increasing trend with an aberration at 0% in year three. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate trends in their data sets. Bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a strong impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 30

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Bisexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 11%  | 29%  | 29%  | 3%                              |
| 2013 | 3%   | 38%  | 0%   | 4%                              |
| 2014 | 5%   | 41%  | 22%  | 0%                              |
| 2015 | 14%  | 41%  | 9%   | 12%                             |
| 2016 | 15%  | 29%  | 33%  | 15%                             |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Gay.* Within sexual misconduct variables, gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated a curvilinear trend suggesting responsiveness to the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Non-consensual sexual contact” had a high point of reporting in year three followed by a decrease in year four and five, as shown in Table 31. Year five reported a slight increase over year four but still decreased from year three. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a high point in year two and decrease in years three, four, and five. Both “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” and “sexual assault in the past year” only had one year

with students indicating experiencing sexual misconduct. Gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated potential impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change for only one variable which was not suggestive of a strong influence for this population.

Table 31

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Gay for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 0%   | 0%   | 0%   | 9%                              |
| 2013 | 10%  | 22%  | 0%   | 0%                              |
| 2014 | 9%   | 30%  | 0%   | 0%                              |
| 2015 | 7%   | 11%  | 0%   | 0%                              |
| 2016 | 0%   | 13%  | 100%   | 0%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated some potentially consistent trends across the sexual misconduct variables. As shown in Table 32, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” reported alternating 4% and 3% reporting levels across the variable. “Sexual assault in the past year” reported 1% for each year except year five which reported 5%. “Non-consensual sexual contact” reported a steadily increasing reporting rate of sexual misconduct throughout the study. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate trend within the data set. Overall, heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants reported a flat to slightly increasing trend of experiencing sexual misconduct over the five years of the study. This trend was potentially suggestive of effective educational efforts or increasing occurrence of sexual misconduct. It was

not evident that the VAWA 2013 policy change had an impact on gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

Table 32

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While Attending<br>This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 4%   | 12%  | 30%   | 1%                                       |
| 2013 | 3%   | 13%  | 26%   | 1%                                       |
| 2014 | 4%   | 13%  | 18%   | 1%                                       |
| 2015 | 3%   | 16%  | 14%   | 1%                                       |
| 2016 | 4%   | 17%  | 27%   | 2%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Lesbian.* Lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend related to sexual misconduct. The data shows that the variables each reported up and down data sets that do not provide a within or across variable trend-line. The data did not appear to suggest any evidence of an impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change on lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

*Black, African-American, or Native African and Queer.* Queer Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for rate of sexual misconduct. Additionally, there did not appear to be an increasing or decreasing trend for queer Black, African-American, or Native African participants either. The data sets are up and down with evidence of trends.



*Black, African-American, or Native African and Questioning.* Questioning Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated an across sexual misconduct variables trend with year one reporting the highest rate of sexual misconduct for all variables. After year one the data did not stay consistent across variables and did not suggest within variable trends that are increasing, decreasing, or impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Bisexual.* Bisexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend related to sexual misconduct variables and the VAWA 2013 policy change. The data returned very few yes responses for bisexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants across the four sexual misconduct variables. “Sexual

Table 33

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Gay for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While<br>Attending This College<br>or University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 0%   | 0%   | 0%  | 0%                                       |
| 2013 | 0%   | 0%   | <i>nd</i>   | 0%                                       |
| 2014 | 0%   | 0%   | <i>nd</i>   | 0%                                       |
| 2015 | 0%   | 0%   | <i>nd</i>   | 0%                                       |
| 2016 | 0%   | 0%   | <i>nd</i>   | 0%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

assault in the past year” reported no yes responses and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” reported only one year with yes responses. The trend of 0% for “sexual assault in the past year” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” was also indicative of no impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Gay.* Gay Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants indicated a trend of 0% both within and across all variables. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” reported no gay Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants in in years two, three, four, and five, as shown in Table 33. The flat trend of 0% did not indicate impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants indicated one potential trend related to sexual misconduct and the VAWA 2013 policy change. As shown in Table 34, “non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a

Table 34

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage of Sexually After Drinking Alcohol | Ever Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-Consensual Sexual Contact While Attending This College or University | Sexual Assault in the Past Year |
|------|--|--|--|---------------------------------|
| 2012 | 3%   | 4%   | 0%   | 0%                              |
| 2013 | 3%   | 8%   | 33%  | 3%                              |
| 2014 | 0%   | 31%  | 14%  | 0%                              |
| 2015 | 7%   | 18%  | 0%   | 5%                              |
| 2016 | 0%   | 14%  | 67%  | 5%                              |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

high point in year three and decreases in both year four and five. The data from “non-consensual sexual contact” for heterosexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants could be suggestive of effective educational and prevention efforts. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not have trends that were increasing, decreasing, flat, or suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Lesbian.* Lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not have many yes responses or data in general for sexual misconduct variables. Year two and three of the study did not indicate any lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. Additionally, only year five of “non-consensual sexual contact” and year four of “sexual assault in the past year” had yes responses with one each. The limited amount of data makes a trend or any connection to the potential impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change difficult to assert.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Queer.* Queer Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend with no data in year two and several other no data years for some of the variables. The only across variable trend was that year one was the only year of the study with yes responses with each of the four sexual misconduct variables having one yes response. All other years had either no participants or no yes responses. A trend or connection to the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change was challenging to state.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Questioning.* Questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend related to sexual misconduct. Year five did not have any queer Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants and year four did not have any participants for “non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” or “sexual assault in the past year.” Limiting the study to three years makes a trend more difficult to ascertain.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Bisexual.* Bisexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated complicated trend-lines related to sexual misconduct. As shown in Table 35, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a high point in year three and a decrease in year four and five. However, the percentage

Table 35

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Bisexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken<br>Advantage of<br>Sexually After<br>Drinking<br>Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-<br>Consensual<br>Sexual<br>Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While Attending<br>This College or<br>University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>the Past<br>Year |
|------|--|--|---|--|
| 2012 | 11%  | 32%  | 30%   | 3%                                       |
| 2013 | 10%  | 36%  | 23%   | 4%                                       |
| 2014 | 14%  | 39%  | 25%   | 6%                                       |
| 2015 | 11%  | 38%  | 30%   | 7%                                       |
| 2016 | 12%  | 44%  | 26%   | 7%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

point difference between the high point and other data points in the set were minimal, which makes a trend of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change unlikely. “Sexual assault in the past year” indicated an increasing trend over the five years of the study. Similarly, “non-consensual sexual contact” indicated a mostly increasing trend with the exception of a 1% decrease in year four. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate an increasing or decreasing trend but was up and down with the data hovering within 3% or 4% of 26%. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “non-consensual sexual contact,” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” indicated potential for a trend but not an obvious trend. The connection to the VAWA 2013 policy change was not evident throughout the different variables.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Gay.* Gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend related to sexual misconduct or the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Non-consensual sexual contact” did indicate a high point in year three and a decrease in year four and five which was suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy

change. However, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” did not indicate trend-lines consistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change or otherwise. The data were inconsistent for gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants related to sexual misconduct.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated trends that were not related directly to

Table 36

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Heterosexual for Rate of Experience of Sexual Misconduct*

| Year | Taken Advantage<br>of Sexually After<br>Drinking Alcohol | Ever<br>Experienced<br>Non-Consensual<br>Sexual Contact | Experienced Non-<br>Consensual Sexual<br>Contact While<br>Attending This<br>College or University | Sexual<br>Assault in<br>Past the<br>Year |
|------|--|---|---|--|
| 2012 | 7%   | 11%   | 34%   | 1%                                       |
| 2013 | 7%   | 13%   | 31%   | 1%                                       |
| 2014 | 7%   | 14%   | 30%   | 1%                                       |
| 2015 | 5%   | 16%   | 29%   | 2%                                       |
| 2016 | 5%   | 17%   | 34%   | 2%                                       |

Note: %=percent of yes responses for each variable

the VAWA 2013 policy changes. As shown in Table 36, “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” indicated a decreasing trend. “Non-consensual sexual contact” reported a consistently increasing trend. “Sexual assault in the past year” was also increasing. “Experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate a trend. With both increasing and decreasing trends it was difficult to ascertain an overall trend for this social location.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Lesbian.* Lesbian White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not show a cross sexual misconduct trend. “Taken

advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” did report a trend that indicated potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change with a high point in year three and a decrease in year four and five. “Non-consensual sexual contact,” “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university,” and “sexual assault in the past year” indicated reporting rates that were inconsistent with a trend.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Queer.* Queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change related to sexual misconduct. The data were not suggestive of increasing, decreasing, flat, or influence by the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Sexual assault in the past year” was potentially suggestive of an increasing rate if year two were ignored. However, if year two was taken into account for “sexual assault in the past year” and queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants then there was no trend.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Questioning.* Questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not demonstrate any trends which were influenced by the VAWA 2013 policy change. “Sexual assault in the past year” indicated an increasing trend over the five years of the study. “Taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol,” “non-consensual sexual contact,” and “experienced non-consensual sexual contact while attending this college or university” did not indicate trends with data sets that were up and down year to year.

#### **Research Question Four**

Research question four examines the rate of change for participants seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct and the effectiveness of the assistance that was sought. The Violence Against Women Act Reauthorization of 2013 (VAWA 2013) focused on providing

support and developing distinct pathways through educational efforts and other endeavors to that support. Research question four examines each of the social locations within this study to determine if the support resources for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct effectively reached participants in different social locations. Whether participants chose to report sexual misconduct and the effectiveness of the assistance received for sexual misconduct can demonstrate for various social locations the perceived and experienced power dynamics through discrimination. The data set for research question four was for years one through four of the study. Year five of the study did not have data related to assistance received after experiencing sexual misconduct.

#### *Gender and Ethnicity*

*Hispanic/Latina and Female.* Hispanic/Latina female participants did not indicate a trend for seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct. As shown in Table 37, years one, two, and three did not report a large number of participants seeking assistance with a large

Table 37

#### *Hispanic/Latina and Female for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 1        | <1       |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | <1       |
| 2015        | 16       | 6        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

increase in year four. This trend may be suggestive of more Hispanic/Latina female participants seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct. However, the result was not suggestive of an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change with only one year of increased seeking of services.

The evaluation of the services sought was somewhat limited in the ability to determine a trend for Hispanic/Latina female participants. Table 38 displays the evaluation of effectiveness of services sought by Hispanic/Latina female participants throughout the study. Years one, two, and three have limited data to evaluate a trend and year four has a fairly dispersed evaluation of the services. There was no obvious indication from the data that the effectiveness of the services

Table 38

*Hispanic/Latina and Female for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 2                    | 0                  | 0                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 67                   | 0                  | 0                    | 33             | 0%                  |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 100                  | 0              | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 3                         | 4                    | 3                  | 3                    | 2              | 1                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 19                        | 25                   | 19                 | 19                   | 13             | 6                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

sought after experiencing sexual misconduct by Hispanic/Latina female participants was impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change. The evaluation of the assistance in year four was fairly balanced with a slight slant towards more effective rather than less effective.

*Hispanic/Latino and Male.* Hispanic/Latino male participants “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” at very limited levels in years one two and three of the study. As displayed in Table 39, year four indicated a more than fourfold increase at 4%. This increase could be suggestive of effective educational efforts. However, with only one year of data with such an increase it was difficult to determine if year four was a trend or an outlier.



Year four did produce the most evaluations of the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” by Hispanic/Latino male participants. The data, as

Table 39

*Hispanic/Latino and Male for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 1        | <1       |
| 2014        | 1        | <1       |
| 2015        | 7        | 4        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

shown in Table 40, indicated a slight trend towards a positive evaluation of the assistance in year four. However, given that year one and two had no evaluations and year three had only one evaluation, it was difficult to determine a trend regarding the evaluation of the “effectiveness of the services received after experiencing sexual assault”.

Table 40

*Hispanic/Latino and Male for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> |          | <u>It negatively impacted me</u> | <u>Not effective at all</u> | <u>Slightly effective</u> | <u>Moderately effective</u> | <u>Very effective</u> | <u>Extremely effective</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 2012        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2013        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2014        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 1                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 100%                  | 0                          |
| 2015        | <i>n</i> | 1                                | 2                           | 0                         | 3                           | 1                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | 14                               | 29                          | 0                         | 43                          | 14                    | 0                          |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Hispanic/Latinx and Transgender.* Hispanic/Latinx transgender participants did not indicate seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct at any time during the study. In year four of the study, four Hispanic/Latinx transgender participants did evaluate assistance received after experiencing sexual assault. The data demonstrated that the evaluation of the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual misconduct” trended towards the positive in year four with 75% indicating moderately or very effective. However, with only one year of participants evaluating the services sought after experiencing sexual misconduct for Hispanic/Latinx transgender participants, it was difficult to determine any type of trend.

#### *Ethnicity and Sexuality*

*Hispanic/Latinx and Bisexual.* Hispanic/Latinx bisexual participants did not demonstrate a trend-line related to seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault. The data was inconsistent with high points in year one and four. It did not appear, based on the reporting of seeking assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct for Hispanic/Latinx bisexual participants, that the VAWA 2013 policy change was impactful on participants seeking assistance.

Similarly, the data for Hispanic/Latinx bisexual participants evaluation of assistance received did not indicate a trend of increased effectiveness throughout the study. Year one and year four reported that Hispanic/Latinx bisexual participants did not evaluate the assistance received as effective.

*Hispanic/Latino and Gay.* The data for Hispanic/Latino gay participants and seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault and the evaluation of that assistance was limited with just one participant indicating that they sought assistance and one participant evaluating the assistance. The data for Hispanic/Latino gay participants seeking assistance after experiencing

sexual assault indicated that the VAWA 2013 policy change did not have much, if any impact, on the participants. As shown in Table 41, year four did have one Hispanic/Latino gay participant who “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 41

*Hispanic/Latino and Gay for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 0        | 0        |
| 2015        | 1        | 8        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

The evaluation of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault was evaluated at very effective by the one Hispanic/Latino gay participant who evaluated the assistance received.

Table 42

*Hispanic/Latino and Gay for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> |          | <u>It negatively impacted me</u> | <u>Not effective at all</u> | <u>Slightly effective</u> | <u>Moderately effective</u> | <u>Very effective</u> | <u>Extremely effective</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 2012        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2013        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2014        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2015        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 1                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 100                   | 0                          |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; nd=no data available

As shown in Table 42, no other participants in any years of the study evaluated any assistance received. It was good that the assistance received was very effective according to the

Hispanic/Latino gay participant who evaluated, but it was difficult to develop a trend from one participant. The data did not support a conclusion that the VAWA 2013 policy change impacted the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” of Hispanic/Latino gay participants.

*Hispanic/Latinx and Heterosexual.* Hispanic/Latinx heterosexual participants indicated a slightly increasing trend in years one, two, and three for seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault that increased greatly in year four. As shown in Table 43, the data was not

Table 43

*Hispanic/Latinx and Heterosexual for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 1        | <1       |
| 2013        | 1        | <1       |
| 2014        | 2        | <1       |
| 2015        | 17       | 4        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

supportive of calling it an increasing trend as the year four data were such an increase that it could be an outlier or a data point that disrupts that trend in years one, two, and three. For Hispanic/Latinx heterosexual participants, there was no evidence that the VAWA 2013 policy change impacted the likelihood of seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault.

The “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for Hispanic/Latinx heterosexual participants indicated, with increasing reporting from year two through four, an increasing varied experience of sexual misconduct. As shown in Table 44, while year two and three reported limited number and responses, year four shows the complexity of the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” The data indicated a balanced data set that did not indicate a specific trend related to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Table 44

*Hispanic/Latinx and Heterosexual for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 100            | 0                   |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 50                   | 50             | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 3                         | 4                    | 2                  | 5                    | 2              | 1                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 18                        | 24                   | 12                 | 29                   | 12             | 6                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Hispanic/Latina and Lesbian.* The data set for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for Hispanic/Latina lesbian participants indicated a trend of participants not seeking assistance. In no years of the study did a Hispanic/Latina lesbian participant report seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault. Additionally, no Hispanic/Latina lesbian participants evaluated any assistance received after experiencing sexual assault. This data could suggest that the VAWA 2013 policy change was not effective in impacting Hispanic/Latina lesbian participants.

Table 45

*Hispanic/Latinx and Queer for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u><i>%</i></u> |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 2012        | 0               | 0               |
| 2013        | 0               | 0               |
| 2014        | 0               | 0               |
| 2015        | 1               | 17              |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Hispanic/Latinx and Queer.* Queer Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated an increase in year five for reporting of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault,” as shown in Table 45. The data showed evidence a large percentile increase from 0% to 17% but demonstrated a limited numerical jump from 0 to 1. The data was suggestive of a low trend of seeking assistance by queer Hispanic/Latinx participants. The data did not suggest that the VAWA 2013 policy change had influence on Hispanic/Latinx queer participants.

The evaluation of the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” by Hispanic/Latinx queer participants had a limited data set with just one participant in year four evaluating any assistance received. As shown in Table 46, the assistance received by the one Hispanic/Latinx queer participant was moderately effective. However, with just one data point, a trend was difficult to ascertain.

Table 46

*Hispanic/Latinx and Queer for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 100                  | 0              | 0                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Hispanic/Latinx and Questioning.* Hispanic/Latinx questioning participants did not indicate any participants who “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or who evaluated the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault. Years one, two, and three of

the data had no participants for Hispanic/Latinx questioning participants in regards to “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Additionally, the data demonstrated that there were no Hispanic/Latinx questioning participants who evaluated the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” This data may suggest that the VAWA 2013 policy change was not impactful for Hispanic/Latinx questioning participants as it relates to seeking assistance after experiencing sexual assault.

### *Gender and Race*

*Female and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* Female American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 47, years one and three reported 1% while year two was at 0% and year four was at 10%. It may be tempting to suggest that the increase in year four was suggestive of the VAWA 2013 policy change. However, with only one year of increase consistent with that trend it would not be a conclusion that was supported by the data.

Table 47

| <i>Female and American Indian or Alaskan Native for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault</i> |          |          |
|---|----------|----------|
| <u>Year</u>   | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
| 2012  | 1        | 1        |
| 2013  | 0        | 0        |
| 2014  | 2        | 1        |
| 2015  | 17       | 10       |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

American Indian or Alaskan Native female participants indicated the potential for a trend regarding “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 48, American Indian or Alaskan Native participants in year one, two, and four indicated a positive response to the assistance received. With no data in year two, the trend could certainly

Table 48

*Female and American Indian or Alaskan Native for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 100                  | 0              | 0                   |
| 2013 | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 50                   | 50             | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>N</i> | 1                         | 1                    | 2                  | 7                    | 4              | 2                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 6                         | 6                    | 12                 | 41                   | 24             | 12                  |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

be stronger. Additionally, the data were slightly suggestive of a more positive response to assistance over time. The data were potentially suggestive that the VAWA 2013 policy change have had an impact on the female American Indian or Alaskan Native participants in regards to “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Female and Asian or Asian-American.* Female Asian or Asian-American participants indicated the potential for a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As

Table 49

*Female and Asian or Asian-American for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u><i>%</i></u> |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 2012        | 0               | 0               |
| 2013        | 0               | 0               |
| 2014        | 2               | <1              |
| 2015        | 12              | 4               |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable



shown in Table 49, year three and four of the data increased over year one and two. The data increase for year four was a large increase which challenges the trend somewhat. However, there was certainly potential that the VAWA 2013 policy change influence the experience of female Asian or Asian-American participants with regard to “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for female Asian or Asian-American participants indicated the potential for a downward trajectory. There were no data for years one and two which limits the confidence regarding the conclusion of the trend. As shown in Table 50, there was evidence of the shift from a positive response in year three to a more negative response in year four. This was potentially a negative trend which would be in contrast of what would be expected based on the 2013 VAWA policy change for female Asian or Asian-American participants regarding “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 50

*Female and Asian or Asian-American for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 201  | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 2    | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 201  | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 3    | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 201  | <i>N</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 1              | 0                   |
| 4    | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 50                   | 50             | 0                   |
| 201  | <i>N</i> | 1                         | 3                    | 2                  | 6                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 5    | <i>%</i> | 8                         | 25                   | 17                 | 50                   | 0              | 0                   |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Female and Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial.* Female Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated the potential for a trend regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 51

*Female and Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u><i>%</i></u> |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 2012        | 0               | 0               |
| 2013        | 0               | 0               |
| 2014        | 1               | <1              |
| 2015        | 14              | 8               |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable

As shown in Table 51, the data shows increases in year three and four. However, the increase from less than 1% in year three to 8% in year four makes a trend and an outlier similarly likely. Therefore, the conclusion of a trend was not determined with a high degree of confidence. If

Table 52

*Female and Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> |          | <u>It negatively impacted me</u> | <u>Not effective at all</u> | <u>Slightly effective</u> | <u>Moderately effective</u> | <u>Very effective</u> | <u>Extremely effective</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 2012        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2013        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2014        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 1                     | 0                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 100                   | 0                          |
| 2015        | <i>n</i> | 1                                | 4                           | 5                         | 1                           | 1                     | 2                          |
|             | <i>%</i> | 7                                | 29                          | 36                        | 7                           | 7                     | 14                         |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

there was a trend, it could be suggestive of the VAWA 2013 policy change having an impact on female Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

The “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for female Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. There were no data for years one and two. As shown in Table 52, year three indicated a positive effectiveness of assistance received. However, year four indicated a distributed evaluation of effectiveness of assistance received. There did not appear to be a connection between the VAWA 2013 policy change and the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for female Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants.

*Female and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Female Black, African-American, or Native African participants indicated a potential curvilinear trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As evident in Table 53, years one, two, and three indicated a consistent trend with an increase in year four. Given the decreasing *n* in years one through three, the suggestion of an upward trend was unlikely. The VAWA 2013 policy change

Table 53

*Female and Black, African-American, or Native African for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|-----------------|----------|
| 2012        | 2               | <1       |
| 2013        | 4               | <1       |
| 2014        | 1               | <1       |
| 2015        | 21              | 3        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

did not appear to impact the experience of female Black, African-American, or Native African participants regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” indicated the potential for an increasing trend. The data, as limited as it were in some years, moves fairly

Table 54

*Female and Black, African-American, or Native African for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It                           | Not                 | Slightly  | Moderately | Very      | Extremely |
|------|----------|------------------------------|---------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|
|      |          | negatively<br>impacted<br>me | effective<br>at all | effective | effective  | effective | effective |
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                            | 0                   | 0         | 2          | 0         | 0         |
|      | %        | 0                            | 0                   | 0         | 100        | 0         | 0         |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                            | 0                   | 1         | 2          | 1         | 0         |
|      | %        | 0                            | 0                   | 25        | 50         | 25        | 0         |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                            | 0                   | 0         | 0          | 1         | 0         |
|      | %        | 0                            | 0                   | 0         | 0          | 100       | 0         |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 0                            | 3                   | 3         | 5          | 5         | 5         |
|      | %        | 0                            | 14                  | 14        | 24         | 24        | 24        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

consistency from moderately effective toward extremely effective assistance received after experiencing sexual assault. As shown in Table 54, the data has some data below moderately effective in year two and four but nevertheless consistently moves towards the more effective end of the Likert scale over the four year period of the study. The data were suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on the experience of female Black, African-American, or Native African participants for the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Female and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* Female Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants indicated an increasing trend for “sought assistance after experiencing

Table 55

*Female and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | 3        |
| 2015        | 1        | 3        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

sexual assault.” As shown in Table 55, year three and four of the study reported 3% of female Native American or Pacific Islander participants “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” compared to 0% in year one and two. It should be noted that the 3% for years three and four was only one participant each. However, to show an increase in two years out of a four-year study was certainly suggestive of an increasing trend and potentially of an impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change for female Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

Table 56

*Female and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> |          | <u>It negatively impacted me</u> | <u>Not effective at all</u> | <u>Slightly effective</u> | <u>Moderately effective</u> | <u>Very effective</u> | <u>Extremely effective</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| 2012        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | %        | ;                                | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2013        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | %        | <i>nd</i>                        | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                   | <i>nd</i>             | <i>nd</i>                  |
| 2014        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 1                         | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | %        | 0                                | 0                           | 100                       | 0                           | 0                     | 0                          |
| 2015        | <i>n</i> | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 1                           | 0                     | 0                          |
|             | %        | 0                                | 0                           | 0                         | 100                         | 0                     | 0                          |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for female Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend. As shown in Table 56, there were not data for years one and two and only one datum in year three and four respectively. Given the limited data, a trend was difficult to determine. Additionally, there did not appear to be an influence by the VAWA 2013 policy change for female Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants regarding the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Female and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated the potential for a curvilinear trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” The data, as shown in Table 57, indicated a consistent trend both in percentage and *n* for years one, two, and three with a large increase in year four. The data were suggestive that the year four data may be an outlier. If the data in year one, two, and three were the trend for female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault,” then the data were also suggestive that the VAWA 2013 policy change did not influence how often assistance was sought after experiencing sexual assault.

Table 57

*Female and White, European-American, or Caucasian  
for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual  
Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|-----------------|----------|
| 2012        | 23              | <1       |
| 2013        | 23              | <1       |
| 2014        | 27              | <1       |
| 2015        | 231             | 4        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated a consistent trend across all four years

Table 58

*Female and White, European-American, or Caucasian for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 5                    | 3                  | 7                    | 5              | 3                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 22                   | 13                 | 30                   | 22             | 13                  |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 3                    | 4                  | 5                    | 5              | 4                   |
|      | %        | 5                         | 14                   | 18                 | 23                   | 23             | 18                  |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 2                         | 1                    | 2                  | 9                    | 7              | 3                   |
|      | %        | 8                         | 4                    | 8                  | 38                   | 29             | 13                  |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 11                        | 38                   | 64                 | 50                   | 43             | 25                  |
|      | %        | 5                         | 16                   | 28                 | 22                   | 19             | 11                  |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

of the study. As evident in Table 58, 78%, 81%, 88%, and 79% of participants indicated a positive impact from the assistance received for female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. This trend was not suggestive of impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change for female White, European-American, or Caucasian participants regarding the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Male and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* Male American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated the potential for a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” The data, as shown in Table 59, indicated an increase in year three and four. An increase in years three and four over years one and two could be suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. It was important to note that the increase was only 1% and only one participant in both years three and four.

Table 59

*Male and American Indian or Alaskan Native for  
Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | 1        |
| 2015        | 1        | 1        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for male American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. As shown in Table 60, there were not data for year one and two and years three and four had only one evaluation of the effectiveness of assistance received. With only two data points across six categories of effectiveness over two years, a trend was difficult to establish for male American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

Table 60

*Male and American Indian or Alaskan Native for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After  
Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> |          | <u>It<br/>negatively<br/>impacted<br/>me</u> | <u>Not<br/>effective<br/>at all</u> | <u>Slightly<br/>effective</u> | <u>Moderately<br/>effective</u> | <u>Very<br/>effective</u> | <u>Extremely<br/>effective</u> |
|-------------|----------|--|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 2012        | <i>n</i> | 0  | 0                                   | 0                             | 0                               | 0                         | 0                              |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                                    | <i>nd</i>                           | <i>nd</i>                     | <i>nd</i>                       | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                      |
| 2013        | <i>n</i> | 0  | 0                                   | 0                             | 0                               | 0                         | 0                              |
|             | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                                    | <i>nd</i>                           | <i>nd</i>                     | <i>nd</i>                       | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>                      |
| 2014        | <i>n</i> | 0  | 0                                   | 0                             | 0                               | 1                         | 0                              |
|             | <i>%</i> | 0  | 0                                   | 0                             | 0                               | 100                       | 0                              |
| 2015        | <i>n</i> | 0  | 1                                   | 0                             | 0                               | 0                         | 0                              |
|             | <i>%</i> | 0  | 100                                 | 0                             | 0                               | 0                         | 0                              |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; nd=no data available



*Male and Asian or Asian-American.* Male Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” There are only yes responses in years one and four for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” The data were not suggestive of an increasing trend, decreasing trend, or impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

The “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for male Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend. There were multiple data points in years one and four but no data in years two and three. Additionally, the data in years one and four were not suggestive of any specific trend. The data were somewhat distributed across the middle of the Likert scale in year one and more distributed across the Likert scale in year four. The data were not suggestive of an impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change on male Asian or Asian-American participants in relation to the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Male and Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial.* Male Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend related to either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” The data did not return any yes responses for years one, two, or three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With limited data to draw a trend from for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault,” the only trend that could be drawn would be a 0% trend. However, with the large increase year four makes a trend of 0% unlikely either. Similarly, there were no data for years one, two, or three for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With only one year of data, the ability to draw a conclusion about a trend for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Additionally, neither “sought assistance

after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” indicated an impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Male and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Male Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” There were zero yes responses in years one, two, or three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With a slight increase in year four, the data has the potential to suggest an increasing trend. However, an increasing trend was not conclusive with just one year of increases. If there were an increasing trend, which was not certain, then that would be suggestive of an impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

The “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for male Black, African-American, or Native African participants. There were only data in year four which makes a trend difficult. Additionally, the data did not indicate impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Male and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* Male Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate trends related to “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were data available in years one, two, and three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Year four for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” did have the potential for data but had a 0% response rate. For “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there were no data for any of the four years of the study. Both variables make the consideration of trend difficult given the dearth of data. Additionally, no impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change seems evident.

*Male and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Male White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated a potential trend for “sought assistance after experiencing

Table 61

*Male and White, European-American, or Caucasian  
for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual  
Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|-----------------|----------|
| 2012        | 1               | <1       |
| 2013        | 4               | <1       |
| 2014        | 3               | <1       |
| 2015        | 46              | 1        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

sexual assault.” As shown in Table 61, the data reported less than 1% for years one, two, and three, and 1% for year four. This could be suggestive of a consistently low at trend. However, it was necessary to know that the *n* for years one, two, and three was much lower than the *n* in year four. With the increase in *n*, the trend could be questionable. Therefore, it was difficult to be confident in the trend. It was possible that year four was part of an increasing trend as part of a response to the VAWA 2013 policy change, but with only one year of increasing data that trend was also not confident.

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for male White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. The data set included responses in all four years of the study. The data in years one through three for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” suggested increasing effectiveness of assistance received. However, year four, with more data than years one through three combined, did not continue the trend in years one through three and shifted towards less effectiveness, as shown in Table 62. The data was not suggestive of evidence of the VAWA 2013 policy change

impacting the experience of male White, European-American, or Caucasian participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 62

*Male and White, European-American, or Caucasian for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 1                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 0                    | 100                | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 33                        | 0                    | 0                  | 33                   | 33             | 0                   |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 3              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 100            | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 4                         | 13                   | 10                 | 8                    | 7              | 4                   |
|      | %        | 9                         | 28                   | 22                 | 17                   | 15             | 9                   |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

*Transgender and American Indian or Alaskan Native.* Transgender American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Only one response indicated “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for transgender American Indian or Native Alaskan participants. A trend was difficult to determine with only one datum point. Similarly, American Indian or Alaskan Native participants only had one participant evaluate the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in years one, two, or three and only one datum point in year four, a trend was difficult to ascertain. The data did also not seem to indicate any impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Transgender and Asian or Asian-American.* Transgender Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate any data points in years one through three for “sought assistance

after experiencing sexual assault” and reported 0% in year four. With no data in three years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. For transgender Asian or Asian-American participants, there were no data evaluating the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data to develop a trend from, there was no ability to determine the trend. There did not seem to be any influence from the VAWA 2013 policy change on transgender Asian or Asian-American participants for either variable.

*Transgender and Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial.* Transgender Bi-Racial and Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” “Sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” and transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate any data points for years one, two, and three and a 0% in year four. There was no way a trend can be determined from that data set. Additionally, “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not have any data over the four years of the study. With no data points, a trend cannot be ascertained. There did not appear to be any indication the data of impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for transgender Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants.

*Transgender and Black, African-American, or Native African.* Transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate at trend related to “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There was only one datum point (in year four) for transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants for “sought assistance after

experiencing sexual assault.” With only one data point, there was potential for determining a low or 0% as a trend; however, it was not a conclusion that can be considered with much confidence. The lack of data points makes a trend difficult to determine. Similarly, “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have data for years one, two, and three for transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants. This lack of data for most of the study makes a trend difficult to determine. There also did not seem to be any indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for either variable for Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

*Transgender and Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander.* Transgender Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” The lack of data for both variables made trend assessment challenging. There were no data points in years one through three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” and transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants. With no data in three of the four years a trend was difficult to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” had not data points for any of the years of the study for transgender Black, African-American, or Native African participants. With no data points, there simply can be no trend. The data were also not suggestive of an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Transgender and White, European-American, or Caucasian.* Transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Only year four had yes responses with a 27% yes response rate. This response rate was inconsistent with 0% in years one, two, and three. There were no data for years one,

two, or three for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. With no data in the majority of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. Additionally, there did not seem to be any impact related to the VAWA 2013 policy change for transgender White, European-American, or Caucasian participants for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

### *Race and Sexuality*

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Bisexual.* Bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated a potential trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” The potential trend was a flat trend based on 0% in years one, two, and three and an *n* of one in year four. The increase in year four would often interrupt the trend in years one, two, and three. However, given that the increase in year four was only one participant, there was potential for a determination of a continued flat trend. There did not appear to be based on the data for bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants any influence by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. Years one, two, and three did not have any data which makes determining a trend difficult. The data, additionally, did not suggest for bisexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants any indication of influence by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Gay.* Gay American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data in years one, two, or three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, there did not indicate any trend. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend with no data for all four years of the study for gay American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. With limited data for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there was not an indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for gay American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated a potential trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 63, the increase in reporting in years three and four was

Table 63

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Heterosexual  
for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual  
Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 1        | <1       |
| 2013        | 0        | 0.0      |
| 2014        | 3        | <1       |
| 2015        | 13       | 5        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

suggestive of an increasing trend. The decrease in year two of the study was not supportive of the increasing trend. However, because the decrease was simply from one to zero heterosexual participants reporting that they sought assistance, the decrease was less impactful on the determination of a trend. The increase in year three presents the possibility of impact by the



VAWA 2013 policy change for heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 64

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Heterosexual for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 1                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 100                  | 0              | 0                   |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 2                    | 2                  | 5                    | 1              | 1                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 8                         | 17                   | 17                 | 42                   | 8              | 8                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. As shown in Table 64, there were no data in years one, two, and three of the study for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. With no identified trend, it appears evident that there was no impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change in impacting the experience of heterosexual American Indian or Alaskan Native participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Lesbian.* Lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three reported a flat trend of 0% which was interrupted in year four with an increase to 29%. While the first three years of the study are certainly suggestive of a

trend, the data in year four indicated either an increasing trend or an outlier. With no ability to determine what year four represents for the data set, determining a trend was difficult.

Additionally, there did not appear to be an indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. Years one, two, and three did not have any data. With no data in three of the four years of the study, it was difficult to determine a trend. The data in year four indicated very effective assistance received after experiencing sexual assault for lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. However, the positive nature of the evaluation of the assistance received was not a reason to determine it was a trend. With no data in year three, there was no indication that lesbian American Indian or Alaskan Native participants were impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Queer.* Queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three reported an even trend at 0% which was interrupted in year four with an increase to 44%. The increase in year four can be either viewed as an outlier, which would suggest an even trend at 0%, or an increase, which would suggest the beginning of an increasing trend. It was not evident whether year four was an outlier or an increasing trend which makes determination of a trend difficult. With no determination of a trend, it cannot be stated that queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants were impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. There were only data reported in year four of the study which makes determination of a trend difficult to determine with only one year of data. The data in year four were polarizing with 75% reporting very or extremely effective and 25% reporting the assistance negatively impacted them. With no trend, there was not an indication for queer American Indian or Alaskan Native participants that the VAWA 2013 policy change impacted the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*American Indian or Alaskan Native and Questioning.* Questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants did not report data for years one, two, or three and year four reported 0%. With no reported data in three of the four years, a trend was difficult to determine. Similarly, “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for any years within the study. With no data, a trend cannot be determined for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants. With no trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there was no indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on questioning American Indian or Alaskan Native participants.

*Asian or Asian-American and Bisexual.* Bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants indicated an increasing trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 65, year three and four demonstrated an increase over year two and three, respectively.

The consistent increase indicated an increasing trend for bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Additionally, the beginning of the increase in year three for bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 65

*Asian or Asian-American and Bisexual for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | 4        |
| 2015        | 2        | 7        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend. Three of the four years of the

Table 66

*Asian or Asian-American and Bisexual for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

|      |   | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|---|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Year |   |                           |                      |                    |                      |                |                     |
| 2012 | n | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | % | nd                        | nd                   | nd                 | nd                   | nd             | nd                  |
| 2013 | n | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | % | nd                        | nd                   | nd                 | nd                   | nd             | nd                  |
| 2014 | n | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | % | nd                        | nd                   | nd                 | nd                   | nd             | nd                  |
| 2015 | n | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 2                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | % | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 100                  | 0              | 0                   |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; nd=no data available

study There were no data for bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants regarding “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” as shown in Table 66. With no trend available, there was no indication of bisexual Asian or Asian-American participants experiencing an impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Asian or Asian-American and Gay.* Gay Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data in years two or three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in two of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. The data indicated no data in years two, three, or four for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend cannot be determined. The VAWA 2013 policy change did not indicate influence for gay Asian or Asian-American participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Asian or Asian-American and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants indicated a potentially increasing trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 67, there was an increase in years three and four after a decrease in year two. The increase in year three was minimal with an *n* of one. The increase in year four was greater with an *n* of 17 and a 4% increase. The trend was there potentially but the small increase in year three provides caution. Assuming an increasing trend, there was suggestion of impact on heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants. As shown in Table 68, there were no data for years two and three of the study. With no data in years two and three, it was difficult to connect the year one and four data with any confidence. With no data in year three and no

Table 67

*Asian or Asian-American and Heterosexual for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u><i>n</i></u> | <u><i>%</i></u> |
|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 2012        | 1               | <1              |
| 2013        | 0               | 0               |
| 2014        | 1               | <1              |
| 2015        | 17              | 4               |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable

trend, there did not appear to be any impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 68

*Asian or Asian-American and Heterosexual for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

|      |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Year | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 1                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 100                  | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 3                         | 3                    | 3                  | 7                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 18                        | 18                   | 18                 | 41                   | 6              | 0                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*Asian or Asian-American and Lesbian.* Lesbian Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data available in years one, two, or three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” which makes determination of a trend difficult. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report data for any of the four years of the study. With no data available on lesbian Asian or Asian-American participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” a trend cannot be determined. There was no indication for lesbian Asian or Asian-American participants of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Asian or Asian-American and Queer.* Queer Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data for years one, two, and three for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have any data for any years of the study. With no data reported, a trend cannot be determined. With no trend available, there was no impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change evident for queer Asian or Asian-American participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Asian or Asian-American and Questioning.* Questioning Asian or Asian-American participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or

“effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one through three of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for questioning Asian or Asian-American participants. With no data available for three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have any data for any of the years of the study. With no data a trend cannot be determined for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” For questioning Asian or Asian-American participants, there did not appear to be any impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change related to “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Bisexual.* Bisexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three are consistent at 0%, however, year four reported an increase to 11%. With the increase in year four, it was uncertain if year four was an outlier or the beginning of an increasing trend. With no clarity as to the role of year four, a trend cannot be determined. With no trend determined and no increase in reporting in year three, there did not appear to be an impact on bisexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for bisexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend. There were no data for years one, two, and three of the study. With data only in year four of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. With no trend and no data in year three, there was no indication of an impact by the



VAWA 2013 policy on bisexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Gay.* Gay Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data for the first three years

Table 69

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Heterosexual for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | <1       |
| 2015        | 13       | 5        |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was very difficult to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for any of the four years of the study. With no data to evaluate for a trend, no trend can be determined. With no trend for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there did not appear to be any impact on gay Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated a potentially increasing trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 69, year three and four of the study demonstrated an increase over the previous years for heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Two consecutive years of increase was an

indication of a trend. The increase in year three was limited but paired with the year four increase it was suggestive of an increasing trend. The increasing trend beginning in year four was suggestive of an impact on heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 70

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Heterosexual for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 100            | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 3                    | 5                  | 2                    | 1              | 1                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 8                         | 23                   | 38                 | 15                   | 8              | 8                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. As shown in Table 70, the data in year three and four for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have a connection between the data. The year three datum was situated at very effective with the year four data more distributed across the Likert scale. With no trend, there was not an impact on heterosexual Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Lesbian.* Lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Three of the four years for “sought

assistance after experiencing sexual assault” did not have any data available. With no data for three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have data for any of the four years of the study for lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. With no data available, a trend cannot be determined. With no trend for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there did not appear to be an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants.

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Queer.* Queer Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Only year four had reports of participants who “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With the first three years at 0%, there was the potential for a trend. However, year four interrupted the consistent trend at 0% and it was uncertain if year four was an outlier or an indication of increasing trend. The data for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend. With no evident trend, there was no suggestion of impact on queer Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for queer Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. There were no data for years one, two, and three of the study. With no data in the first three years, determining a trend was difficult. With no trend and no data in year three, there was no indication of impact on queer Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial and Questioning.* Questioning Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data for the first three years of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend cannot be determined for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report data for any of the years of the study for questioning Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants. With no data trend cannot be determined for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With neither a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there was no indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on questioning Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants.

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Bisexual.* Bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” While years one through three reported 0%, year four indicated an increase to 6%. The first three year suggested a flat trend but that was interrupted by the year four data which was suggestive of an increasing trend. The year four data could be an outlier or indication of an increasing trend. With no evidence to suggest whether the year four data were the outlier or increasing trend indicator, no trend can be determined. With no trend, there was no suggestion of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants. While the year four

data were suggestive of very effective assistance, the lack of data in years one, two, and three make determination of a trend difficult. With no trend identified, there was no indication of impact on bisexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change regarding “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Gay.* Gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants potentially indicated a flat trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” The data had a consistent 0% for the first three years of the study with an increase to 5% with an *n* of one. With an increase of only one participant responding yes connected to a suggestive flat trend in the first three years, a flat trend appeared to be the reasonable assertion for gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no change in the trend, there was no indication of impact on gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not demonstrate a trend for gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants. There were no data available in years one two and three for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine. With no trend for the data set, there did not appear to be any impact on gay Black, African-American, or Native African participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three demonstrated low reporting of

“sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” which increases twenty-fold in year four. The increase in year four and slight variations up and down in years one, two, and three did not suggest a trend. The data may have indicated year four as a shift in trend or year four as an outlier. With no identifiable trend, there was no indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” on heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” was not suggestive of a trend for heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants. The data in year one and two consistently centered on moderately effective assistance. Year three demonstrated increasing effectiveness with 100% very effective; however, year four produced a much more distributed data set which did not trend towards more effective assistance. With the data trending multiple directions in a four-year study, there was not one trend which could be applied to the whole data set. With no trend identified, there was no indication of impact on heterosexual Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Lesbian.* Lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three reported a consistently flat and even trend which was interrupted in year four. The year four data could be suggestive of an outlier or the beginning of an increasing trend but it was not evident which. There was not a trend that can be determined with much confidence given the data set. With no trend, there was no indication of impact for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” by the VAWA 2013 policy change for lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants.

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants. There were no data available for years one, two, and three of the study. With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was challenging to identify. The lack of an identified trend means that there was no indication of impact on lesbian Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Queer.* Queer Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data available for years one, two, or three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data available in three of the four years, it was difficult to determine a trend. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” had no data for any of the years of the study. With no data for effectiveness of assistance received, there can be no trend identified. Additionally, with no trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there was no impact on queer Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Black, African-American, and Native African and Questioning.* Questioning Black, African-American, or Native African participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data in years one, two, and three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” It was difficult to determine a trend with no data for

three of the four years of the study. There were no data for any years of the study for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data available, there was no ability to determine a trend. With no trends identified, there was no indication of impact on questioning Black, African-American, or Native African participants by the VAWA policy change for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Bisexual.* Bisexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data for years one, two, and three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years of the study, a trend was difficult to determine for bisexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not have any data for any of the four years of the study. With no data available, a trend cannot be determined. With no data for either “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there was no indication of impact on bisexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change.

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Gay.* Gay Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one through three of the study did not report any data for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for gay Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. With no data in the first three years of the study, a trend was challenging to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after



experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data during any years of the study. With no data available, a trend could not be determined. There was no indication of impact on gay Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data available in years one, two, and three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for heterosexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. With no data in most of the study, a trend was challenging to determine. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for any of the years of the study. With no data to work with, there was no ability to determine a trend. With no trends determined, there was no indication of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on heterosexual Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Lesbian.* Lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants indicated a potential trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three reported 0% and year four reported 50%. The increase in year four by percentage was large; however, the *n* increase was only one. As the *n* increase was so limited, it would be reasonable to determine a trend that was at or near zero for the *n* with percentage increases that were greater based on low population numbers. This trend was not

suggestive of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. There were no data available in years one, two, or three of the study on lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” With no data in three of the four years the study, it was difficult to determine any trend. With no trend available, there was no indication of impact on lesbian Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Queer.* Queer Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data available for year two or three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for queer Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. With no data in year two or three, it was difficult to determine and connect the data in year one and four into any type of identifiable trend. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for any years of the study. With no data available, a trend cannot be determined. With no trends identified, there was no indication of impact on queer Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander and Questioning.* Questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no data available for years two and three of the study for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” for questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. With no trend in years two and three, it was difficult to connect the data in year one and four in any way that could confidently identify a trend for questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants. “Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not report any data for any of the years of the study. With no data available in any years of the study, a trend cannot be determined for questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” There was no indication of impact on questioning Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Bisexual.* Bisexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Years one, two, and three consistently reported 1% with an increase to 7% in year four. The increase in year four interrupted the potential trend in the first three years. It was not evident whether year four was the beginning of an increasing trend or simply an outlier. Without clarity on how year fits in with the rest of the data, a trend cannot be determined. With no discernible trend, there was no indication of impact on bisexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for bisexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. The data was inconclusive of a consistent response both within and across years of the study for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” Year one has three data points that are in not effective at all and moderately effective, while year two has two data points with one in not effective at all and the other in very effective. The disparateness of the experience of bisexual

Table 71

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Gay for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 1        | 1        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 1        | 1        |
| 2015        | 5        | 3        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

White, European-American, or Caucasian participants makes determining any type of trend difficult. With no trend, there was no indication of impact on bisexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Gay.* Gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated a potential trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 71, year three and four both increased over the previous two years. The two-year increase was suggestive of an increasing trend. Year two did decrease from year one which did negatively impact the confidence with which one can assert the increasing trend for gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. However, the data was still suggestive of an increasing trend. With the increasing trend initiating in year three, there was

suggestion of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 72

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Gay for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 1                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 0                    | 100                | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | %        | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 100            | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 1                  | 1                    | 3              | 0                   |
|      | %        | 0                         | 0                    | 20                 | 20                   | 60             | 0                   |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. There were no data in year two and the data in the other years was disparate from one another, as shown in Table 72. With no evident trend in the data, there was no indication of impact on gay White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Heterosexual.* Heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 73, the first three years of the study indicated a 1% reporting rate for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” with an increase in year four. The data in year four was suggestive of either an outlier or an increasing

Table 73

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and  
 Heterosexual for Sought Assistance After  
 Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 17       | <1       |
| 2013        | 25       | <1       |
| 2014        | 23       | <1       |
| 2015        | 233      | 3        |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

trend, but it was not obvious which. Without being able to confidently determine how to interpret the year four data, a trend cannot be determined for heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” With no determined trend, there was no indication of impact on heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

Table 74

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Heterosexual for Effectiveness of Assistance  
 Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

|      |   | It<br>negatively<br>impacted<br>me | Not<br>effective<br>at all | Slightly<br>effective | Moderately<br>effective | Very<br>effective | Extremely<br>effective |
|------|---|------------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Year | n | 0                                  | 2                          | 2                     | 6                       | 4                 | 3                      |
|      | % | 0                                  | 12                         | 12                    | 35                      | 24                | 18                     |
| 2013 | n | 2                                  | 2                          | 4                     | 6                       | 5                 | 4                      |
|      | % | 9                                  | 9                          | 17                    | 26                      | 22                | 17                     |
| 2014 | n | 1                                  | 1                          | 1                     | 8                       | 7                 | 3                      |
|      | % | 5                                  | 5                          | 5                     | 38                      | 33                | 14                     |
| 2015 | n | 15                                 | 44                         | 64                    | 46                      | 39                | 25                     |
|      | % | 6                                  | 19                         | 27                    | 20                      | 17                | 11                     |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” indicated a trend of positive effectiveness for heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. As shown in Table 74, the data consistently demonstrated the large majority (88%, 82%, 90%, and 75%, respectively over the four years) of participants indicated slightly to extremely effective assistance received. This data was suggestive of effective assistance received overall by heterosexual white participants. While there was a positive trend regarding “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” there did not appear to be any impact as a result of the VAWA 2013 policy change on heterosexual White, European-American, or Caucasian participants.

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Lesbian.* Lesbian White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no reports of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” in year two or three for lesbian White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. With a decrease in year two, a flat year two to three, and an increase in year four, there was no discernible trend within the data. With no data available, there was no indication of impact on lesbian White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for lesbian White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. There were no data available in year two or three of the study. With no data in two of the four years of the study, connecting the year one and four data in a trend was difficult to do with any confidence. With no identified trend, there was no indication of impact on lesbian White, European-American, or

Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Queer.* Queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants indicated an increasing trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” As shown in Table 75, year three and four demonstrated increasing

Table 75

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Queer  
for Sought Assistance After Experiencing Sexual  
Assault*

| <u>Year</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> |
|-------------|----------|----------|
| 2012        | 0        | 0        |
| 2013        | 0        | 0        |
| 2014        | 2        | 2        |
| 2015        | 10       | 10       |

Note: n=number of yes responses for each variable; %=percent of yes responses for each variable

levels of reporting of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” Increasing reporting of sought assistance in two consecutive years with no decreases was evidence of an increasing trend. Additionally, as the increase began in year three of the study, there was evidence of an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. The data in year three and four was disparate across the Likert scale and not suggestive of any particular trend for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault,” as shown in Table 76. With no identified trend, there was no suggestion of impact for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” by the VAWA 2013 policy change on queer White, European-American, or Caucasian participants.



Table 76

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Queer for Effectiveness of Assistance Received After Experiencing Sexual Assault*

| Year |          | It negatively impacted me | Not effective at all | Slightly effective | Moderately effective | Very effective | Extremely effective |
|------|----------|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2012 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2013 | <i>n</i> | 0                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 0              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | <i>nd</i>                 | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>          | <i>nd</i>            | <i>nd</i>      | <i>nd</i>           |
| 2014 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 1              | 0                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 50                        | 0                    | 0                  | 0                    | 50             | 0                   |
| 2015 | <i>n</i> | 1                         | 0                    | 2                  | 2                    | 4              | 1                   |
|      | <i>%</i> | 10                        | 0                    | 20                 | 20                   | 40             | 10                  |

Note: *n*=number of yes responses for each variable; *%*=percent of yes responses for each variable; *nd*=no data available

*White, European-American, or Caucasian and Questioning.* Questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants did not indicate a trend for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.” There were no reports of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” by questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants in years one, two, or three with an increase in year four. While the year one, two, and three data could be suggestive of a flat trend, the year four data was either an outlier or the beginning of an increasing trend. A trend was difficult to determine without an understanding of the meaning of the year four data. With no identified trend in year four, there was no indication of impact on questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

“Effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not indicate a trend for questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. There were no data for years one, two, and three of the study. With no data in three of the four years of the study, it was difficult to determine a trend. With no trend available, there was no evidence of impact on

questioning White, European-American, or Caucasian participants by the VAWA 2013 policy change for “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.”

### **Conclusion**

Unlike many studies that work with qualitative data, this study did not provide an obvious response within the findings that can be articulated quickly and easily. Quite the contrary, this study was structured to reside within the complexity of intersectional identities. The complexity was evident in the changing trends across a variety of intersectional identities.

There is a tendency that must be fought against to attempt to evaluate across intersectional identities. To take, for example Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islanders, one category of a variable and attempt to draw conclusions about the experience of those participants. However, to do so would be answering questions different from what this study hopes to address. In chapter five, there will be an attempt to make sense of the 62 social identities and what they may tell us as a whole about the impact of federal sexual misconduct on college students related to intersectionality. Rather than attempting to follow our human instinct to create simplistic patterns, the discussion will hope to engage the complexity of the results around concepts of power and oppression, privilege and discrimination as they relate to intersectional theory.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

### **Introduction**

This study utilized quantitative data to critically analyze the impact of federal sexual misconduct policy on the students for whom the policy is designed. An intersectional framework was used to examine how different intersectional identities are impacted by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Additionally, the study uses a trend analysis to assess change over the five or four years of the study depending on the variables involved. The study looked at the expected change based on the literature regarding sexual misconduct and prevention efforts and compared that information with the data (Treiman, 2009). Using this approach, the study intended to evaluate the impact of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013 on college students in Missouri regarding sexual misconduct from 2012-2016. Additionally, the study examined how the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change was experienced by participants' intersectional identities related to race, gender, ethnicity, and sexuality.

The questions examined were:

1. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
2. How much did the rate of services sought for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?
3. How much did the rate of sexual misconduct for victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions

of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?

4. How much did the rate of services sought for sexual misconduct by victim/survivors of different intersectional identities (race, sexuality, gender, socio-economic status) at institutions of higher education change after the passage of the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act of 2013?

The methodology used a critical quantitative approach. Critical quantitative research utilizes quantitative data but does not utilize statistical significance (Guo, 2015; Stage, 2007B). Statistical significance assumes the sameness of experience of participants, which this study challenges from critical quantitative and intersectional perspectives (Cho, Crenshaw, and McCall, 2013; Hopkins & Koss, 2005; Stage, 2007B). By utilizing the researcher to analyze the data rather than a statistical test, the experiences of participants from different social locations based on intersectional identities can be analyzed. The sub-sample groups for different intersectional identities were often too small for statistical significance test in addition to the other concerns. Additionally, the critical quantitative approach can demonstrate the conflict within this type of research by challenging the status quo of the White female narrative of sexual misconduct research (Stage, 2007A). The trends analysis approach focuses on change over time for each of the 62 social locations studied in addition to Research Question One and Two.

### **Interpretation of Findings**

Interpretation of findings must be considered in relation to what the literature has found. While always tempting, conclusions from the findings must not overstate the data. A study such as this will not be causal and is not structured for generalization because of its critical nature. As

statistical significance has not been utilized, this study can only discuss the findings in relation to the participants within the study.

### **Research Question One**

The findings in Research Question One demonstrated an overall trend of increasing experience of sexual misconduct for all participants. This finding was not unexpected. As the literature has noted, providing education defining and explaining sexual misconduct can increase the rate of reporting of sexual misconduct (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005; Koss, 2011). The VAWA 2013 policy required additional educational efforts. Another intent of the VAWA 2013 policy was that the additional prevention efforts would result in decreased experience of sexual misconduct. However, being “taken advantage of sexually after drinking alcohol” was the only variable which indicated a decrease over the time period of the study for all participants. With both “non-consensual sexual contact” and “sexual assault in the past year” both increasing throughout the time period of the study, it appears that either sexual misconduct increased or participants defined their experiences as sexual misconduct. While certainly not conclusive, for the population of this study, there was little evidence of the VAWA 2013 policy change decreasing the rate of sexual misconduct. While the rate of sexual misconduct increased overall and there were increased educational efforts, it cannot be conclusively determined that the increase was related to the VAWA 2013 policy change.

### **Research Question Two**

Research Question Two addressed both if participants sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault *and* if that assistance was effective. It was evident in the study that participants over the course of the study for this variable, 2012-2015, sought assistance at a higher rate as the study progressed. As noted in the literature, increased educational efforts

mandated by the VAWA 2013 policy change would have helped victim/survivors recognize their experience as rape or other forms of sexual misconduct (Burnett et al., 2009; Koss, 2011). The study did not determine that participants sought assistance because of the VAWA 2013 policy change. There could have been a variety of factors that influenced the rate of “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault.”

However, the determination of the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” did not return results that indicated an obvious increase or decrease. Years one through three indicated a distinctive increase in “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” However, year four data indicated a decrease in the “effectiveness of the assistance received after experiencing sexual assault.” The literature highlighted the need for a supportive environment for reporting multiple mechanisms to report in order to increase likelihood of reporting (Krivoshey et al., 2013; Mikhailovich & Colbran, 1999). Embarrassment, unsympathetic response, or a lack of confidence in the system can all undermine the success of a reporting process (Mikhailovich and Colbran, 1999). It is unknown why the change in year four and given the varied environments of the study determining cause is impossible. Any negative experiences could have had a chilling effect on other student reports. There is limited literature about the effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual misconduct. There are many reasons why the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” may have been reduced in the fourth year. To speculate the reason for the reduction is beyond the scope of this study.

### **Research Question Three**

Research Question Three was made up of 62 social locations which made any one conclusion about the findings not possible. However, the intersectional social locations created

an opportunity to see if any patterns can be determined related to intersectionality and power dynamics. Discussion of Research Question Three is an important analysis of the data as power dynamics are at the core of intersectionality. The study focused on each individual social location which can be reviewed in chapter four. In this discussion, there is perhaps a larger narrative that can be discussed through analysis and synthesis of power dynamics and the various social locations. From that narrative, there is potential to ask additional questions for future research.

### *Ethnicity and Gender*

With only three social locations, this was not an especially complex social location group. The data indicated that there was potential for impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for both cis-gendered Hispanic/Latinx social locations with no indication for a trend from the transgender Hispanic/Latinx participants. This indicated the potential for a concern related to the interaction of transgendered Hispanic/Latinx population and the VAWA 2013 policy change. This determination was not conclusive but perhaps suggestive of some concerns related to the interaction of transgender Hispanic/Latinx participants and the VAWA 2013 policy change.

The literature consistently demonstrated that transgender and non-binary persons are more at risk of sexual misconduct than their cisgender peers (Kenagy, 2005; Langenderfer-Magruder et al., 2016). This study, while not focused on rate of experience of sexual misconduct, did suggest that policy intended to reduce sexual misconduct was less effective for transgender and gender non-binary participants. The impact of ineffective policy for transgender and gender non-binary persons creates a perpetual cycle in which the privileged group receives assistance and the minoritized group is repeatedly targeted. This is an example of when gender is paired with gender discrimination (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017).

### *Ethnicity and Sexuality*

Hispanic/Latinx participants presented a stark consideration of how sexuality interacted with the VAWA 2013 policy change. Bisexual, gay, lesbian, queer, and questioning Hispanic/Latinx participants all indicated no impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Heterosexual Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated the potential for a trend that did not demonstrate an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Heterosexism must be paired with sexuality in consideration of this data (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). This is potentially suggestive of the benefit that majority populations received in the implementation of the VAWA 2013 policy change.

Porter and Williams (2011) found in their study that lesbian, gay, and bisexual participants experience sexual misconduct at a higher rate than heterosexual participants. The findings from this study agree with the findings from literature regarding sexuality and sexual misconduct. That Hispanic/Latinx participants coincide with other more general studies regarding sexuality presents an interesting suggestion of the interaction of sexuality and ethnicity. There is potential for additional studies to understand sexuality and ethnicity from a qualitative data or more complex surveying data approach.

### *Gender and Race*

Gender and race presented a complex overall picture with some potential takeaways. It is first worth noting that transgender and male participants had four and three times, respectively, as many racial identity groups that indicated no impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change as female participants. Additionally, two female participant racial identities, Asian or Asian-American and White, European-American, and Caucasian, were the only groups that indicated an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. As indicated by liberal feminism, it would be



expected for the policy to benefit women, particularly white women (Hopkins & Koss, 2005; Sallee, 2008). Again, gender discrimination is present when gender is present (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017).

From a racialized perspective, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participants did not indicate any impact from the VAWA 2013 policy change regardless of gender identity. Additionally, American Indian or Alaskan Native and Black, African-American, or Native African did not indicate potential impact or better by the VAWA 2013 policy change for male or transgender participants. While the data cannot conclude that American Indian or Alaskan Native participants were more ignored in the policy process than White, European-American, or Caucasian participants, it certainly indicated the inequity in the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change. In racial social locations, there is the presence of racism (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). The inequity in these social locations indicated a preference in the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change towards women and dominant racial groups.

### *Race and Sexuality*

Race and sexuality suggested some trends throughout the 36 different social locations that were indicative of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Lesbian, queer, and questioning participants had no social locations with racial identities that indicated impact or potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants indicated a trend. However, the trend that was determined for Lesbian Bi-Racial or Multi-Racial participants that was inconsistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change.

In contrast to the lesbian, queer, and questioning participants related to race, heterosexual Asian or Asian-American participants indicated the only sexual racial social location that indicated a response to the VAWA 2013 policy change. In addition, all of the heterosexual social

locations indicated a trend of some kind or the potential for a trend consistent with the VAWA 2013 policy change. This indicates some favorability in the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy for heterosexual participants in regards to their racial identity.

Bisexual and gay participants indicated a more complex response to the VAWA 2013 policy change in regards to their racial identity. The racial identities were similar in their reaction to the VAWA 2013 policy change. All of the racial identities except Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, which had only one, had two social locations with suggestion of or the possibility of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. This lack of difference across racial identities in regard to the impact of the policy is not expected given Porter and Williams (2011) research regarding rate of occurrence of sexual misconduct. Additionally, from a power dynamic perspective, it was unexpected to see equity across racial and sexuality social locations. Porter and Williams (2011) would have expected that racial minority participants would have had a different response to the VAWA 2013 policy change than White, European-American, or Caucasian participants. The data was consistent with Porter and Williams' (2011) research regarding sexual identity and rate of sexual misconduct.

#### **Research Question Four**

In evaluating the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” and the effectiveness of that assistance, there were data for 2012-2015. Creating patterns for these data consistently presented challenges related to trends. The data in 2015 consistently demonstrated a higher level of participation than other years. Developing trends for the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” presented challenges with the complexity of the tables. With all of those challenges in place, the data presented some findings that provide interesting insights into the student experience related to the VAWA 2013

policy change and the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” for various locations.

### *Ethnicity and Gender*

Ethnicity and gender indicated a positive response to the VAWA 2013 policy change for male and female Hispanic/Latinx participants. Transgender Hispanic/Latinx participants indicated no impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. The indication of potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change on male and female Hispanic/Latinx participants is impactful because it could be suggestive of a benefit in the policy towards cisgender participants. While the findings are not causal or correlated, the data is suggestive that cisgender Hispanic/Latinx participants were benefitted by the VAWA 2013 policy change while transgender Hispanic/Latinx participants were not. Gender and gender discrimination are paired as one in the data (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017).

There is little research regarding the effectiveness of assistance received regarding sexual misconduct and the power dynamics of intersectional identities. Mikhailovich and Colbran (1999) indicated that unsympathetic response and lack of confidence in the system as some of the barriers for reporting and seeking assistance. It is possible that transgender and gender non-binary participants would be more likely to fear an unsympathetic response and lack of confidence in the system.

### *Ethnicity and Sexuality*

Hispanic/Latinx gay, heterosexual, and queer participants indicated a potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for the “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” and “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” while bisexual, lesbian, and questioning Hispanic/Latinx participants did not. The findings for sexuality and ethnicity are

less evident in terms of suggestion of power dynamics within the findings. Certainly, that heterosexual Hispanic/Latinx participants' data were suggestive of a potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change would be suggestive of influence by cultural power dynamics. However, it is not evident how the outcomes for bisexual, gay, lesbian, queer, and questioning influence the indication of impact of power dynamics.

There is little literature regarding ethnicity and sexuality for reporting experiencing sexual misconduct or the effectiveness of assistance received. Foley et al. (1995) indicated that racial minority victim/survivors were taken less seriously than their dominant identity peers. Given Porter and Williams (2011) work regarding occurrence of sexual assault, a thinly drawn suggestion could indicate that sexual minorities might also be taken less seriously in the reporting process and therefore might be less likely to report. However, that literature does not support that argument well. Therefore, the findings from this study regarding sexuality and ethnicity are largely without literature to relate to.

### *Gender and Race*

Gender and race results indicated some of what would have been expected related to sexual misconduct policy changes regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” and “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” (Foley et al., 1995; Porter & Williams, 2011). Transgender participants did not indicate any impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for any racial identity. There was no found literature specifically noting the differences in reporting experiences for different gender identities. The findings in this study noting no impact on transgender students for any racial identity social location certainly may warrant additional research in the future.

For male participants, only White, European-American, or Caucasian and American Indian or Alaskan Native participants indicated the potential of an impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change regarding “sought assistance after experiencing sexual assault” or “effectiveness of assistance received after experiencing sexual assault” in this study. Female participants who were either Black, African-American, or Native African and White, European-American, or Caucasian indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for sought assistance and effectiveness of assistance received. Additionally, all female participants regardless of racial category reported at least some impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change for sought assistance and effectiveness of assistance received. These data are evidence that is suggestive of a policy change that benefited cisgender female participants within all identified racial groups.

That White, European-American, and Caucasian students had either impact or the potential of impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change should be noted. This indicates that perhaps privileged racial identities had more impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. This finding reflects the work of Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011) who noted in their research that White racial identity was impactful in participants being more likely to report. Race and racism are paired in these social locations (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). These findings again suggest that privileged racial groups experience sexual misconduct differently from oppressed racial identities.

### *Race and Sexuality*

Race and sexuality did not have any social locations that indicated impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change through an evident trend. There were a couple of suggestions of the impact of the influence of power dynamics on the data. For example, there were only seven social locations of the 36 within the various race and sexuality social locations that had the suggestion

of a potential impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change. Of those seven social locations, four were heterosexual participants' social locations, and three were White, European-American, or Caucasian participants' social locations. The impact of White racial identity on reporting is supported in the research of Wolitzky-Taylor et al. (2011). Evidence of both gender discrimination and racism paired with gender and race (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017).

Of the social locations that showed potential for impact by the VAWA 2013 policy change who were not either heterosexual or White, European-American, or Caucasian participants were bisexual Asian or Asian American participants. There is evidence of the impact of power dynamics in the evidence within this data. The impact on different social locations that included heterosexual or White, European-American, or Caucasian participants is suggestive that the VAWA 2013 policy change benefitted dominant sexual and racial social locations.

### **Limitations**

As with any study, this investigation has several limitations. There are three limitations to note. First of all, the sample was not representative. While the sample is large and contains many social locations through participant intersectional identities, it was not representative of Missouri college students or, more broadly, all college students. The study did not indicate racial, gender, sexuality, or ethnicity variables that are consistent with the college student population in Missouri or the United States. This limits the ability of the study to be applied more generally. Statistical tests that are used to determine significance and increase likelihood of generalization were not used.

Additionally, many of the social location populations were limited in size which made a judgement of trend or otherwise challenging. Some suggestions and indications of trend were

drawn. Larger social location samples would have been more useful. For many of the least researched populations in the literature, this study was not able to determine the impact of the VAWA 2013 policy change perhaps in part because of the small populations. The study is still worthwhile because this is a departure point for future research for many of the lesser researched social locations.

Lastly, by using an already created survey there were limitations to the questions. The wording of some of the questions were limiting or exclusionary in ways that were not ideal. The wording also left some interpretation up to the participants that could have led to errors in response due to a lack of understanding by the participants. Any study will have limitations, and this study is no exception.

### **Recommendation for Practice**

This study provides several important messages for practice moving forward. In policy design, all impacted persons must be considered. As noted in the literature, the Not Alone Report by the White House did not mention race at all except to recommend the inclusion of demographic information in surveys (Wooten, 2017). It is evident that the impact of policy must be more thoroughly considered and especially the impact on marginalized populations. The data did not demonstrate that the VAWA 2013 policy change was especially impactful for any populations. However, the data consistently demonstrated the impact on White, European-American, or Caucasian and female and heterosexual participants was more suggestive of a positive effect. Policy changes that are not impactful for the most marginalized populations continue to perpetuate systems of inequity.

For practitioners who implement policy, the study provides input especially regarding who sought services after experiencing sexual misconduct. There were certainly increases in

participants seeking services. However, the study's findings suggest that privileged populations responded more positively to the assistance received and were more likely to seek assistance after experiencing sexual misconduct. Practitioners should take that data under advisement and make additional effort to reach out to minoritized populations on their campuses.

### **Implications for Future research**

This study suggests that marginalized and minoritized populations are not experiencing sexual misconduct policy in the same way as dominant populations. One limitation of a study that investigates quantitative data such as this is that there is limited depth of understanding of the experience of individual participants. A qualitative investigation into how minoritized students experience sexual misconduct policies would be a rich research area. An investigation using qualitative data from interviews, focus groups, journaling, or other sources could provide a rich picture of how some individual participants experienced different aspects of support (or lack thereof) and prevention related to sexual misconduct.

One of the challenges of this study is the use of intersectionality with focus on each intersectional social location. Many of the social locations had a limited or no participants in a given year. The lack of participants created an analysis concern for this type of study. Future research may considerate how to aggregate certain social locations in order to great groups that are large enough for a more complete analysis. Critical quantitative studies bring an important voice to quantitative data. Continuing to consider how to evolve a study such as this methodologically could provide for new avenues of research in the future.

Another research avenue opened up by this study would be a quantitative survey with more explorative questions focusing on some of the marginalized populations. By focusing on a particular population, such as gender or race, there is the potential to find a better understanding



of the experience related to one aspect of this study. Also, by crafting specific questions there is the option to understand that experience more specifically and, perhaps, more accurately. This approach could go well with a qualitative interview component in a mix-methods study.

Additionally, the five-year period of this study concluded with the election of a new presidential administration. The experience of participants from 2017 to 2021 could be very informative in regard to sexual misconduct on college campuses to either solidify the findings of this study or to open up new pathways in research. As this study is impacted by the political culture in the United States, a new political landscape could provide an interesting continuation of this investigation. The Department of Education in the Trump administration has been focused on due process from the perspective of the accused which is in stark contrast to the Obama administrations focus on support and reporting for victim/survivors. The contrast of the presidential administrations provides interesting research avenues regarding policy and trends analysis.

This study has focused on the impact of policy on the victim/survivors of sexual misconduct. Another avenue that could be explored would be the impact of policy on the perpetrators of sexual misconduct. The structure of the study and variables examined would need to change. The results of such a study could complement the findings of this study in an interesting way.

### **Conclusion**

The findings from this study are not causal or generalizable. This study has unearthed the potential inequity within the structure of sexual misconduct policy related to the impact on minoritized populations (Gillborn, Warmington, & Demack, 2017). The policy itself and the implementation of the policy can both influence the impact of policy. The combination of the

policy and the implementation could be considered an attack on minoritized communities (MacKinnon, 2013). This study took into account various contexts and implementations of the VAWA 2013 policy change. Given the breadth of the study, the evidence was suggestive that the policy as constructed did not account for the varied experience of the students for whom the policy was designed. Given that the Not Alone Report did not take into account race at all (Wooten, 2017), this study similarly suggests that the VAWA 2013 policy change did not consider race, ethnicity, gender or sexuality in a way that would provide a more equitable intervention for all students. Future policy makers should make intentional efforts to consider the impact of students besides the dominant population.

Given what has come of the #metoo movement, this area of study has never been more important. Whether in business, government, or education, the pervasiveness of sexual misconduct becomes more evident each day. As the Brett Kavanaugh confirmation hearings unfolded, it is evident that the United States as a country simply does not understand what sexual misconduct is or how it impacts victim/survivors. The behavior of many White, male senators during the Ford/Kavanaugh hearing was an example of why quality policy is needed for sexual misconduct. Change is needed in content and approach. Perhaps this small piece of research will add to the conversation in a way that creates positive change for victim/survivors of sexual misconduct.

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APPENDIX A—VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN ACT REAUTHORIZATION OF 2013,  
SECTION 304

**SEC. 304. CAMPUS SEXUAL VIOLENCE, DOMESTIC VIOLENCE, DATING VIOLENCE, AND STALKING EDUCATION AND PREVENTION.**

(a) IN GENERAL.—Section 485(f) of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (20 U.S.C. 1092(f)) is amended—

(1) in paragraph (1)—

(A) in subparagraph (C)(iii), by striking the period at the end and inserting “, when the victim of such crime elects or is unable to make such a report.”; and

(B) in subparagraph (F)—

(i) in clause (i)(VIII), by striking “and” after the semicolon;

(ii) in clause (ii)—

(I) by striking “sexual orientation” and inserting “ national origin, sexual orientation, gender identity,”; and

(II) by striking the period and inserting “; and”;

(iii) by adding at the end the following: “(iii) of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking incidents that were reported to campus security authorities or local police agencies.”;

(2) in paragraph (3), by inserting “, that withholds the names of victims as confidential,” after “that is timely”;

(3) in paragraph (6)(A)—

(A) by redesignating clauses (i), (ii), and (iii) as clauses

(ii), (iii), and (iv), respectively;

(B) by inserting before clause (ii), as redesignated by subparagraph (A), the following: “(i) The terms ‘dating violence’, ‘domestic violence’, and ‘stalking’ have the meaning given such terms in section 40002(a) of the Violence Against Women Act of 1994 (42 U.S.C. 13925(a)).”; and

(C) by inserting after clause (iv), as redesignated by subparagraph (A), the following: “(v) The term ‘sexual assault’ means an offense classified as a forcible or nonforcible sex offense under the uniform crime reporting system of the Federal Bureau of Investigation.”;

(4) in paragraph (7)—

(A) by striking “paragraph (1)(F)” and inserting “clauses (i) and (ii) of paragraph (1)(F)”; and

(B) by inserting after “Hate Crime Statistics Act.” The following: “For the offenses of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking, such statistics shall be compiled in accordance with the definitions used in section 40002(a) of the Violence Against Women Act of 1994 (42 U.S.C. 13925(a)).”;

(5) by striking paragraph (8) and inserting the following: S. 47—37 “(8)(A) Each institution of higher education participating in any program under this title and title IV of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, other than a foreign institution of higher education, shall develop and distribute as part of the report described in paragraph (1) a statement of policy regarding—

“(i) such institution’s programs to prevent domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking; and “(ii) the procedures that such institution will follow once an incident of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking has been reported, including a statement of the standard of evidence that will be used during any institutional conduct proceeding arising from such a report.

“(B) The policy described in subparagraph (A) shall address the following areas:

“(i) Education programs to promote the awareness of rape, acquaintance rape, domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking, which shall include—“(I) primary prevention and awareness programs for all incoming students and new employees, which shall include—“(aa) a statement that the institution of higher education prohibits the offenses of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking;

“(bb) the definition of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking in the applicable jurisdiction;

“(cc) the definition of consent, in reference to sexual activity, in the applicable jurisdiction;

“(dd) safe and positive options for bystander intervention that may be carried out by an individual to prevent harm or intervene when there is a risk of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking against a person other than such individual;

“(ee) information on risk reduction to recognize warning signs of abusive behavior and how to avoid potential attacks; and

“(ff) the information described in clauses (ii) through (vii); and “(II) ongoing prevention and awareness campaigns for students and faculty, including information described in items (aa) through (ff) of subclause (I).

“(ii) Possible sanctions or protective measures that such institution may impose following a final determination of an institutional disciplinary procedure regarding rape, acquaintance rape, domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking.

“(iii) Procedures victims should follow if a sex offense, domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking has occurred, including information in writing about—

“(I) the importance of preserving evidence as may be necessary to the proof of criminal domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking, or in obtaining a protection order;

“(II) to whom the alleged offense should be reported;

“(III) options regarding law enforcement and campus authorities, including notification of the victim’s option to—

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“(aa) notify proper law enforcement authorities, including on-campus and local police;

“(bb) be assisted by campus authorities in notifying law enforcement authorities if the victim so chooses; and

“(cc) decline to notify such authorities; and

“(IV) where applicable, the rights of victims and the institution’s responsibilities regarding orders of protection, no contact orders, restraining orders, or similar lawful orders issued by a criminal, civil, or tribal court.

“(iv) Procedures for institutional disciplinary action in cases of alleged domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking, which shall include a clear statement that—

“(I) such proceedings shall—

“(aa) provide a prompt, fair, and impartial investigation and resolution; and

“(bb) be conducted by officials who receive annual training on the issues related to domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking and how to conduct an investigation and hearing process that protects the safety of victims and promotes accountability;

“(II) the accuser and the accused are entitled to the same opportunities to have others present during an institutional disciplinary proceeding, including the opportunity to be accompanied to any related meeting or proceeding by an advisor of their choice; and

“(III) both the accuser and the accused shall be simultaneously informed, in writing, of—

“(aa) the outcome of any institutional disciplinary proceeding that arises from an allegation of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking;

“(bb) the institution’s procedures for the accused and the victim to appeal the results of the institutional disciplinary proceeding;

“(cc) of any change to the results that occurs prior to the time that such results become final; and

“(dd) when such results become final.

“(v) Information about how the institution will protect the confidentiality of victims, including how publicly-available recordkeeping will be accomplished without the inclusion of identifying information about the victim, to the extent permissible by law.

“(vi) Written notification of students and employees about existing counseling, health, mental health, victim advocacy, legal assistance, and other services available for victims both on-campus and in the community.

“(vii) Written notification of victims about options for, and available assistance in, changing academic, living, transportation, and working situations, if so requested by the victim and if such accommodations are reasonably available, regardless of whether the victim chooses to report the crime to campus police or local law enforcement.

“(C) A student or employee who reports to an institution of higher education that the student or employee has been a victim of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, or stalking, whether the offense occurred on or off campus, shall be provided

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with a written explanation of the student or employee’s rights and options, as described in clauses (ii) through (vii) of subparagraph (B).”;

(6) in paragraph (9), by striking “The Secretary” and inserting “The Secretary, in consultation with the Attorney General of the United States,”;

(7) by striking paragraph (16) and inserting the following: “(16)(A) The Secretary shall seek the advice and counsel of the Attorney General of the United States concerning the development, and dissemination to institutions of higher education, of best practices information about campus safety and emergencies.

“(B) The Secretary shall seek the advice and counsel of the Attorney General of the United States and the Secretary of Health and Human Services concerning the development, and dissemination to institutions of higher education, of best practices information about preventing and responding to incidents of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking, including elements of institutional policies that have proven successful based on evidence-based outcome measurements.”; and

(8) by striking paragraph (17) and inserting the following: “(17) No officer, employee, or agent of an institution participating in any program under this title shall retaliate, intimidate, threaten, coerce, or otherwise discriminate against any individual for exercising their rights or responsibilities under any provision of this subsection.”.

(b) EFFECTIVE DATE.—The amendments made by this section shall take effect with respect to the annual security report under section 485(f)(1) of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (20 U.S.C. 1092(f)(1)) prepared by an institution of higher education 1 calendar year after the date of enactment of this Act, and each subsequent calendar year.

## APPENDIX B—VARIABLES

| Question  | Variable  | Values   | Measure                       | Notes  |
|---|-----------|--|-------------------------------|--|
| Year the survey was administered  | Year      | 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016   | Approximately normal, Ordinal | May break the year data into two groups to view as pre and post 2013 |
| 2012: Q3 Gender<br>2013: Q3 Gender:<br>2014: Q3 Gender:<br>2015: Q3 Gender<br>2016: Q4 Gender:  | Gender    | Male (2012-2016), Female (2012-2016), Transgender (2012-2016), I prefer not to respond (2012-2016), Other (2016)   | Nominal                       |  |
| 2012: Q5 Ethnicity<br>2013: Q5 Ethnicity<br>2014: Q5 Ethnicity<br>2015: Q5 Ethnicity<br>2016: Q6 Ethnicity  | Ethnicity | Hispanic/Latino (2012-2016), Non-Hispanic/Latino (2012-2016), I prefer not to respond (2013-2016)  | Nominal                       |  |
| 2012: Q6 Racial/ethnic background<br>2013: Q6 Racial/ethnic background<br>2014: Q6 Racial/ethnic background<br>2015: Q6 Racial/ethnic background<br>2016: Q7 Racial/ethnic background | Race      | American Indian or Alaskan Native (2012-2016), Asian (2012, 2013), Asian or Asian American (2014-2016), Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (2012-2013), Native Hawaiian or Pacific | Nominal                       |  |

|   |           |  |         |  |
|---|-----------|--|---------|--|
|   |           | Islander<br>(2014-2016),<br>White (2012,<br>2013), White,<br>European-<br>American, or<br>Caucasian<br>(2014-2016),<br>Black or<br>African<br>American<br>(2012, 2013),<br>Black,<br>African-<br>American, or<br>Native<br>African<br>(2014-2016),<br>Middle<br>Eastern<br>(2013), Arab<br>or Non-Arab<br>North<br>African/Middle<br>Eastern<br>(2016), Native<br>Caribbean or<br>Afro-<br>Caribbean<br>Islander<br>(2014-2016),<br>Bi-racial or<br>Multi-racial<br>(2012-2016),<br>Other (please<br>specify)<br>(2012-2016), I<br>prefer not to<br>respond<br>(2012-2016) |         |  |
| 2012: Q7 Sexual orientation<br>2013: Q7 Sexual orientation<br>2014: Q7 Sexual orientation<br>2015: Q7 Sexual orientation<br>2016: Q8 Sexual orientation | Sexuality | Bisexual<br>(2012-2016),<br>Gay (2012-<br>2016),<br>Heterosexual<br>(2012-2016),   | Nominal |  |

|  |   |  |             |  |
|--|---|--|-------------|--|
|  |   | Lesbian (2012-2016), Queer (2012-2016), Questioning (2012-2016), Asexual (2016), I prefer not to respond (2012-2016) |             |  |
| <p>How often in the past year have you experienced the following after, or as a result of, alcohol consumption?</p> <p>2012: Q86 Were taken advantage of sexually</p> <p>2013: Q88 Were taken advantage of sexually</p> <p>2014: Q93 Were taken advantage of sexually</p> <p>2015: Q94 Were taken advantage of sexually</p> <p>2016: Q101 How often in the past year have you experienced the following as a result of alcohol consumption? Were taken advantage of sexually</p>                                 | CONSEQUENCE Taken advantage of sexually | 0, 1, 2, 3-5, 5+   | Ordinal     |  |
| <p>2012: Q194 Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?</p> <p>2013: Q202 Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?</p> <p>2014: Q198 Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?</p> <p>2015: Q201 Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?</p> <p>2016: Q189 Have you ever experienced non-consensual sexual contact, meaning sexual contact against your will?</p> | Non-consensual sexual contact           | Yes, No, I prefer not to respond   | Dichotomous | Will remove prefer not to respond and treat as dichotomous |

|   |   |                                  |             |   |
|---|---|----------------------------------|-------------|---|
| 2012: Q195 Has the non-consensual sexual contact occurred while you were attending this college/university?<br>2013: Q203 Has the non-consensual sexual contact occurred while you were attending this college/university?<br>2014: Q200 Has the non-consensual sexual contact occurred while you were attending this college/university?<br>2015: Q203 Has the non-consensual sexual contact occurred while you were attending this college/university?<br>2016: Q191 Has the non-consensual sexual contact occurred while you were attending this college/university? | Non-consensual while at school          | Yes, No, I prefer not to respond | Dichotomous | Will remove prefer not to respond and treat as dichotomous          |
| 2012: Q226 Which of the following have you experienced in the past year? (Check all that apply)<br>2013: Q214 Which of the following have you experienced in the past year? (Check all that apply)<br>2014: Q199 In the past year, have you experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?<br>2015: Q202 In the past year, have you experienced non-consensual sexual contact (against your will)?<br>2016: Q190 In the past year, have you experienced non-consensual sexual contact, meaning sexual contact against your will?                        | Sexual Assault                          | Yes, No                          | Dichotomous | Is part of a larger multiple choice question. Will recode as yes/no |
| Have you sought assistance for any of the following in the past year?<br>2012: Q228 Sexual assault<br>2013: Q216 Sexual assault<br>2014: Q230 Sexual assault  | Sought assistance for sexual assault in | Yes, No                          | Dichotomous |   |



|  |                              |  |                      |  |
|--|------------------------------|--|----------------------|--|
| 2015: Did not ask—Utilize Q225 as an indicator that if they evaluated the services then it is yes, if they did not evaluate then it is no  | the past year                |  |                      |  |
| 2012: Q250 How effective was the assistance you received for sexual assault?<br>2013: Q238 How effective was the assistance you received for sexual assault?<br>2014: Q252 How effective was the assistance you received for sexual assault?<br>2015: Q225 How effective was the assistance you received for sexual assault? | How Effective Sexual Assault | It negatively impacted me, not effective at all, slightly effective, moderately effective, very effective, extremely effective,<br>(2013-2015) I prefer not to respond,<br>(2015-2015) Not applicable<br>none of the above | Approximately normal |  |

## APPENDIX C—INFORMED CONSENT

### **You have been randomly selected for the 2017 MACHB Survey!**

Hello there! You have been randomly chosen to complete the 2017 Missouri Assessment of College Health Behaviors and a chance to win a \$50 credit at the Mizzou Bookstore. You are being asked to participate in this research study to assess the alcohol and drug attitudes and behaviors of students at the University of Missouri. This data allows us to research trends of these behaviors on campus over time. The questions will ask about your personal attitudes and behaviors (e.g., drinking, sexual, and illegal behaviors) and the choices you make.

You must be 18 years or older to participate in this survey. Your completion of the survey is voluntary. The survey takes approximately 15-25 minutes to complete, and your responses are completely confidential. Your answers will not be associated with your e-mail address, name, or any contact information. Your participation will have no effect on your grades or relationship with the University of Missouri faculty or staff. You may stop or leave the survey at any time. Your participation is anonymous. There are no identifiers to link you to your responses. Your complete honesty is appreciated.

Data collected from the survey will be stored for 7 years before it is destroyed, accessible only to our research staff and Missouri Partners in Prevention. Because your answers are not associated with your e-mail address, name or any contact information, your confidentiality will be maintained by staff. The only data that will be published or shared will be overall responses, such as *"97% of Missouri students would be active bystanders and help someone they suspected had alcohol poisoning"*.

Students who opt to participate will be entered into a drawing for a \$50 credit at the Mizzou Bookstore. There is a risk of experiencing discomfort when disclosing personal information. You may also become more aware of attitudes and behaviors related to substance use and more aware of programs offered on campus that address substance abuse issues.

If you have any questions, concerns, or emotional difficulties that arise during this survey, please contact the Counseling Center, located at 119 Parker Hall. If you would like to seek counseling for any reason as a result of this survey, please contact the Counseling Center at 573-882-6601. If you have any questions regarding human subject research, contact the University of Missouri IRB Committee at (573) 882-3181.

When you have completed the survey, please keep a copy of this e-mail as the consent form for your personal records. Thank you for your consideration!

I have read the informed consent information and **AGREE** to participate.

I have read the informed consent information and **DO NOT AGREE** to participate.