

2021

A Qualitative Exploration of Campus Law Enforcement Sexual Assault Response

David Alan Ferber
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

David Alan Ferber Jr.

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. Robert Spivey, Committee Chairperson,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Dr. Grace Telesco, Committee Member,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Dr. Joseph Pascarella, University Reviewer,
Criminal Justice Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

A Qualitative Exploration of Campus Law Enforcement Sexual Assault Response

Training

by

David Alan Ferber Jr.

MS, Columbian Southern University, 2014

BA, Western Michigan University, 1999

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Criminal Justice

Walden University

February 2021

Abstract

Sexual assault violence affects many college students regardless of ethnicity, age, gender, race, or socio-economic background. There is a problem with reporting sexual assaults on college campuses to campus law enforcement officials. The purpose of this qualitative narrative study was to utilize the theory of andragogy and social theory to identify the factors that contribute to effective campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. The research questions addressing the existing gap in the literature examined whether campus law enforcement officers were receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim and the strategies that are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma. Data were collected from open-ended interviews with 20 certified police officers who work at universities. To analyze the data gathered, the participants' interview responses were coded and themed for comparison. Results indicated that attending trauma-based sexual assault response training assisted participants with their bias toward sexual assault cases. The implications for positive social change include law enforcement officers acknowledging the existence of proper trauma-based training and how such training could improve investigations with survivors.

A Qualitative Exploration of Campus Law Enforcement Sexual Assault Response

Training

by

David Alan Ferber Jr.

MS, Columbian Southern University, 2014

BA, Western Michigan University, 1999

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Criminal Justice

Walden University

February 2021

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background of the Study	2
Problem Statement	3
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions.....	6
Theoretical Framework.....	6
Nature of the Study	7
Definition of Terms.....	8
Assumptions.....	8
Scope and Delimitations	9
Limitations	9
Significance of the Study	10
Significance to Theory	10
Significance to Social Change	11
Summary.....	12
Chapter 2: Literature Review	13
Introduction.....	13
Search Criteria	13

Theoretical Framework.....	14
Theory of Andragogy.....	14
Social Theory	17
Literature Review Related to Key Variables	18
Campus Law Enforcement.....	18
Sexual Assaults on College Campuses	20
Barriers in Survivors Reporting Sexual Assaults to Police	22
Effects of Sexual Assaults on College Survivors	24
College Students Views of Campus Law Enforcement.....	25
Law Enforcement Training.....	26
Sexual Assault Myths	29
Law Enforcement’s Response to Sexual Assault Cases	32
Improving the Police Response to Sexual Assault	33
Summary.....	36
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	38
Introduction.....	38
Research Design and Rationale	38
Research Questions.....	39
Narrative Analysis	40
Role of the Researcher	42
Ethical Concerns	43
Participant Selection	45

Data Collection	49
Data Management and Analysis	50
Summary	52
Chapter 4: Results	54
Introduction.....	54
Settings.....	54
Data Analysis	58
Trustworthiness.....	62
Credibility	62
Dependability	62
Conformability.....	63
Contexts	63
Competency	71
Summary.....	75
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	76
Introduction.....	76
Interpretation.....	76
Campus Law Enforcement Officers.....	77
Officer Training	77
Primary Research Questions	78
Interpretations of Subquestion	79
Interpretations of Other Findings.....	81

Limitations	83
Recommendations.....	83
Implications.....	84
Impacts for Positive Social Change	84
Theoretical Implications	85
Conclusion	85
References.....	87
Appendix: Interview Questions	97

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Participant Demographic Information</i>	56
Table 2 <i>Importance of Sexual Assault Training</i>	60
Table 3 <i>Work Setting</i>	64
Table 4 <i>Personal Bias</i>	82

List of Figures

Figure 1 <i>Main themes</i>	59
Figure 2 <i>Is working with survivors considered advanced training?</i>	62
Figure 3 <i>Reason for attending training</i>	65
Figure 4 <i>Percentage of respondents discussing the need for more training</i>	66
Figure 5 <i>Rewards of training</i>	67
Figure 6 <i>65% of participants noticed impact with survivors after training</i>	68
Figure 7 <i>Challenges</i>	69
Figure 8 <i>Strategies used to ensure survivors are comfortable</i>	72
Figure 9 <i>Utilizing the training</i>	73

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

A study by the White House Task Force to Prevent Students from Sexual Assault found 1 out of every 5 female students who attend college in the United States will be a victim of sexual assault and that these types of incidents are committed by someone she knows (Biden, 2017). What is even more alarming is 4 out of 5 college-aged survivors do not report the sexual assault to law enforcement or university officials (Department of Justice, 2018). In the same Department of Justice (2018) study, 40% of college students reporting feeling that the police or university officials could not do anything to help. If a student reporting a sexual assault is treated poorly or feels that she is not being heard, she will not continue with the reporting process (Department of Justice, 2018). This means a rapist may go free, but more importantly, that the student will not receive the assistance they need, and this is why it is important to understand what useful sexual assault response training is (Brewer, Thomas, & Higdon, 2018).

Under reported sexual assaults leaves untold numbers of college women feeling deceived and vulnerable, believing that their allegations are not taken seriously. Al Shaibah (2015) reported a real lack of students willing to report sexual assaults because they feel that campus law enforcement does not care. The media shows that most universities try to cover up sexual assaults on their campuses, so why would a student feel that her complaint would be taken seriously if university officials are just going to cover up the rape (al Shaibah, 2015). In general, it was the lack of awareness of resources that were available to students on their campus to assist them after the assault that

factored in not reporting (Evans, 2017). College students need to know that campus law enforcement officers are trained and able to assist them. This will allow for better communication between students and campus law enforcement? Reingold and Gostin (2015) opined that if the university fosters an environment that encourages reporting, ensures a fair and rigorous investigation, and imposes the appropriate sanctions on persons found guilty of committing sexual assaults, there would be a shift towards more female college students reporting being a victim. One way to foster this type of environment is to review and possibly improve the ways campus law enforcement are trained to respond to sexual assaults on campus.

Background of the Study

While some critics worry that campus officers are inadequately trained, these sworn campus police officers that protect colleges and universities undergo the same training procedures as local or county police and have full arrest powers granted by a state or local authority (Winn, 2018). With the increasing number of incidents of sexual assaults occurring on college campuses, these campus law enforcement officers need to be ready to respond. McMahon, Palmer, Banyard, Murphy, and Gidycz (2015) stated that sexual assaults are a major problem on college campuses because one fourth of all female college students have experienced completed or attempted rape during their college careers. Wada, Patten, and Candela (2010) pointed out that students view campus law enforcement differently than they do city law enforcement. Wada et al. suggested that college students view campus police more as babysitters or rental cops guarding a mall and do not expect them to really do anything. This is an indicator of why students on

today's college campuses do not feel comfortable reporting incidents to campus law enforcement.

Sabina and Ho (2014) questioned the reasons why students do not report sexual assaults. One of the reasons they found was that students do not believe that campus police officers are not trained to handle a sexual assault investigation. Koss, Wilgus, and Williamsen (2014) found that first responders on college campuses are more swayed by federal law than by responding appropriately to sexual assault. Briones-Robinson, Powers, and Socia (2016) suggested an absence of reporting of sexual assaults is a result of college students' mistrust of campus police officers.

One of the central beliefs in law enforcement response to sexual assaults is to improve the quality of training campus law enforcement officers receive and this, in turn, will increase the probability of a student filing a report (Etter and Griffin, 2011). Etter and Griffin described how to train older officers through proper in-service training and Shipton (2011) suggested that law enforcement training could be improved with use of the theory of andragogy to explore the effect of adult learning principles as a theory to be applied to the training of sworn police officers. Sheridan and Evans (2019) also pointed out that rape crisis advocates can work with campus law enforcement officers to manifest a multidisciplinary approach to sexual assault cases.

Problem Statement

Sexual assault violence affects many college students regardless of ethnicity, age, gender, race, or socio-economic background. There is a problem with reporting sexual assaults on college campuses to campus law enforcement officials; more specifically, less

than 5% of completed acts of sexual assault against women attending public colleges are reported to campus police officers (Wolitzky-Talyor et al., 2011). Currently, most higher education institutions do not have a written policy that makes it mandatory to report a campus sexual assault to the police (Evans, 2017). This has resulted in two thirds of public college campus survivors of sexual assaults admitting they initially only told someone close to them, like a friend or roommate, about the attack (Sabina & Ho, 2014). Recent studies on the lack of reporting have suggested that poor response training contributes to the students not trusting or being willing to work with campus law enforcement (Sabina & Ho, 2014). Many possible other factors that contribute to the reason rape survivors do not report the assault are survivors are concerned about police failing to keep the report confidential, concerns of being treated poorly by police, and police officers not taking the report seriously (Sabina & Ho, 2014). This problem impacts female public college students because on average, 35 incidents of sexual assault occur each academic year per 1,000 female college students (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011).

My aim in this study was also to examine the awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of campus law enforcement as it relates to sexual assault. This study was intended to provide evidence-based findings that will assist law enforcement leadership in creating well-developed plans and processes to change the current training of campus law enforcement officers and help to eliminate the myths related to sexual assault survivors. In turn, the new training will help to change the current culture of students not reporting sexual assaults.

The literature reviewed for this study indicated improvements in sexual assault training for campus law enforcement officials' theme(s) as the groundwork for the center of the researcher's studies (Kinney, Bruns, Bradley, Dantzler, & Weist, 2008). None of the literature reviewed was focused on police officer training from the officers' perspectives. The findings of this study will fill this gap in the literature by contributing to the body of knowledge needed to address this problem by providing data to public policy decision-makers to modify policies on sexual assault training for police officers on a college campus.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to utilize the theory of andragogy and social theory to identify the factors that contribute to effective campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. For example, the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2017) has developed a sexual assault roll-call training video to expand police officers' educational efforts on the crime of sexual assault as well as a supplemental report form to assist officers in the field. In this study, I also looked at the ability to improve the understanding of the process by which campus police officers are trained to respond to sexual assault calls for service. To address this gap, I used a qualitative paradigm. Measurements of the quality of problem statements will be utilized in combination with interviews to develop an understanding of response strategies that will better assist college sexual assault survivors.

Developing adequate training on how campus law enforcement responds to sexual assault cases is the most efficient way to improve the relationship between students and

campus law enforcement officials. The improved relationship between campus law enforcement and students will also increase the number of assault cases that will be reported to campus police departments. Some researchers have explored why students do not report such crimes to campus police, while others have investigated how to improve training of police officers in general. Studying the effectiveness of campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults will improve the social outlook of effective response and limiting bias by campus law enforcement officials will help to improve the views of sexual assault.

Research Questions

RQ1: Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim?

SQ1: What are the major strengths of a department's sexual assault training?

SQ2: What are the major weaknesses?

RQ2: What strategies are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma?

Theoretical Framework

The theory of andragogy developed by Malcolm Knowles suggests that there are six expectations related to adult learning that can be utilized in training police officers (Shipton, 2011). The social theory framework developed by Ancient Greek philosophers identifies the scientific ways people think about social life and incorporates ideas about how society changes and develops different ways of clarifying social behaviors

(Harrington, 2005). Klinger, Rosenfeld, Isom, and Deckard (2015) suggested the social theory can be used to explain to the public how the police go about their assignments and help to guide the actions of police departments and the officers on the street. In this study, I used both theories to improve the understanding of the process by which campus police officers are trained to respond to sexual assault calls for service.

Nature of the Study

This study was a qualitative narrative inquiry. Creswell (2017) stated that qualitative research methods incorporate an awareness of underlying motivations, reasons, and opinions. In general, this type of research helps to provide insights into the problem at hand (Creswell, 2017). A narrative design is used by a qualitative researcher to analyze participants' detailed accounts of events to help understand their life experiences. A qualitative narrative approach was appropriate to use in this study to develop an understanding of how campus police officers are trained to respond to sexual assault calls for service.

Thorne (2016) pointed out that a narrative analysis study can be directed by a theoretical framework. The participants' rich accounts of training and responding to sexual assaults provided information and knowledge into what is working and what needs to be improved as it relates to campus police officers responding to sexual assault cases. Instead of telling police officers what practical sexual assault training is and asking them how they apply it, the use of the narrative approach in this study allowed participants to describe their feelings about education and respond in their own words.

Definition of Terms

Basic law enforcement training: Training designed to prepare entry-level individuals with the physical skills and knowledge needed to become a law enforcement officer (Giovengo 2019).

Campus police officer: An individual who patrols institutions of higher education and can provide a faster response time to incidents on campus than local police. These officers can also give campus-specific services not automatically available from local policing organizations. Campus police forces can be comprised of sworn police officers, non-sworn security officers, or both. Certified campus law enforcement officers can have state, county, or citywide jurisdiction, while others are reduced to campus property (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2018).

Sexual assault: The U.S. Department of Justice (2018) defined sexual assault as any sexual behavior or contact that transpires without the explicit consent of the receiver. Falling under the definition of sexual assault are any types of forced sexual intercourse, compelled molestation, forced fondling, forcible sodomy, child molestation, incest, and attempted rape.

Assumptions

Before beginning fieldwork, I assumed that campus law enforcement officers want to provide outstanding response to campus sexual assault survivors and do not want to give into bias as it relates to sexual assault. The extent to which law enforcement officers participate in preventive training may be related to their knowledge, attitudes, and access to practical sexual assault response training. Lastly, it is possible that many

chiefs and officers were worried about the adverse reaction to this study and may not have wanted to participate in the study out of fear of job loss.

Scope and Delimitations

Because I did not find any extant studies on campus law enforcement and responding to sexual assaults together in a review of the literature, I deemed it appropriate to research these areas. Studying campus law enforcement officers made it easier for me to obtain participants because the amount of sexual assaults on college campuses is increasing. Differences between campus law enforcement departments include how often sexual assault response training is offered to the officers, whether training is done on campus or by an outside organization, and the officers' personal bias as it relates to sexual assault.

I obtained data from certified campus law enforcement officers who are currently working on a college campus within the Midwest region of the United States. The officers who participated in the study were from diverse backgrounds. Although the education, age level, experience, bias, and gender of the participants may be one limitation for the generalizability of results, this sample provided information about the relationship between training and responding to sexual assault cases. The findings are suggestive, and interpretation should be cautious.

Limitations

This study was limited to certified law enforcement officers working on a college campus in the Midwest region of the United States. Campus law enforcement officers' views and biases toward survivors of sexual assaults as well as educational level may be

a hindrance to finding sexual assault training useful and responding professionally. A qualitative study was most suitable for understanding how campus law enforcement officers and officials view the importance of training as it relates to sexual assault; however, the results of this study cannot be generalized to other campus law enforcement since the study was only performed at one university.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study fill a gap in understanding by focusing specifically on the training of campus police officers who respond to sexual assaults. This project is unique because it addresses an underresearched area of campus law enforcement and looked into an issue of sexual assaults that is widely accepted to be a major problem on college campuses (see McMahon & Banyard, 2012). The results of the study provide much-needed insights into the processes by which campus police officers receive training in dealing with a growing threat on college campuses. Insights from this study can be used to aid campus police departments in helping sexual assault survivors to come forward and report the offense that occurred. A broad range of students is failing to report sexual assaults to campus police departments because of their mistrust of the officers (Briones-Robinson et al., 2016). Training has been a major tool used in law enforcement to make social changes by addressing inequities and mistrust between the police and members of society (Briones-Robinson et al., 2016).

Significance to Theory

Social learning theory can be used to explain how the training of campus law enforcement officers' leads to positive outcomes when responding to sexual assaults on

college campuses. Johnson and Bradbury (2015) pointed out how the social learning theory emphasizes the significance of observing and modeling the reactions, behaviors, and attitudes of others. Positive attitudes and better response habits evolve as officers better understand the ways sexual assault survivors behave when reporting a sexual assault, and this change can only take place during actual training sessions (Stien, 2016).

Significance to Social Change

Positive social change and promoting the worth, dignity and development of communities and society benefits everyone. By supporting the improvement of law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults, the findings of this study can be used to help develop a more trusting and positive relationship between college students and campus law enforcement officers. Promoting positive social change for these groups can ultimately enhance the campus community positively. The ability to promote positive social change may be an additional advantage in studying these variables and how they affect sexual assault response training for campus law enforcement officers.

The goal of this study was to assist in improving the training received by campus law enforcement officers as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. Those working with survivors of sexual assaults can use the findings of this study to provide better support, which, in turn, will help sexual assault survivors through their recovery process. The knowledge gained in this study can be used to assist individuals in understanding how both law enforcement officers respond to calls for service as well as how they are trained to react to these calls, all while helping train officers to improve the processes and

critical elements of support for survivors. Future researchers can use the knowledge gathered from participants in this study to find better solutions to train law enforcement officers working on a college campus.

Summary

A law enforcement officer's response to any type of call is developed from eliminating personal biases and relying on past training; however, campus law enforcement officers may not be receiving sufficient instruction on how to respond to sexual assaults. In conducting this research study, I hoped to gain an understanding of how campus law enforcement officers are trained to respond to sexual assault cases as well as how the officers' own thoughts, emotions, personalities, and drive contribute to responding to a student in need efficiently. New studies and information regarding sexual assault awareness in cooperation with behavior, environment, and adequate training all work together in assisting campus law enforcement officers in understanding the importance of the training process and how they act when responding.

Chapter 2 will include a review of literature related to the sexual assaults on college campuses, the barriers in survivors reporting sexual assaults to police, the effects of sexual assault, and college students' views of campus law enforcement. I will also explore the literature that supports the methodology for the study. In Chapter 3, I will outline the methodological approach for this study, and in Chapter 4, I will present the barriers to survivors learned from the data. Chapter 5 will close out this study with a discussion of the findings and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In Chapter 2, I review both law enforcement and social science literature and identify a need for continued research to examine the beliefs and influences that guide campus law enforcement officers in how they respond to sexual assaults. Several studies have identified the importance of improving law enforcement training in the area of sexual assault response; however, much of the current literature has focused primarily on reasons why students are not reporting sexual assaults. This focus leaves little research regarding training of campus law enforcement officers to improve their interactions with students who are sexual assault survivors.

The review of the literature begins with an explanation of the search criteria and moves on to a discussion of the conceptual framework and the methodology used to support this study. Then, I present a synthesis of the current literature on best practices related to law enforcement training. Additionally, this review contains an examination of the literature on sexual assaults on college campuses, including reasons why survivors do not report the offenses to campus law enforcement.

Search Criteria

For this study, I conducted an inquiry of extant literature available in scholarly journals, peer-reviewed journals, data from law enforcement organizations, books, and personal communication. The databases used included Criminal Justice Database, Oxford Criminology Bibliographies, SAGE Journals, and SocINDEX. Keywords and phrases used as search terms included *campus law enforcement*, *law enforcement*, *sexual assault*,

law enforcement training, sexual assault response, sexual assault reporting, barriers in survivors reporting sexual assaults, students' views of campus law enforcement, campus rape culture, and improvements in sexual assault response.

Those sources that exhibited sound science and compelling arguments on the topic of campus law enforcement response to sexual assaults influenced the articles selected for review. The data portrayed in this study were analyzed by using a literature matrix that outlined the research design, methodology, research question, sample, analysis, findings, and future research recommendations of each item.

Theoretical Framework

The search for relevant literature specifically on campus law enforcement training was challenging in that there has been little research done on how effective campus law enforcement is when responding to sexual assault cases. I combined the theory of andragogy and social theory as the theoretical framework of this study to develop an understanding of the process by which campus police officers are trained to respond to sexual assault calls for service and how the campus community understands the role of campus police officers. The literature presented offers a foundation for understanding the interrelationships between campus law enforcement and adequate sexual assault training as well as how the training helps explain to the public how the police go about their assignments

Theory of Andragogy

Both Darden (2014) and Henschke (2013) opined that learning is a development central to human behavior and the results of how an individual is to learn is a

phenomenon in its own that has led to many distinctive explanations. Although some of these investigations may not allow for the development of a fully comprehensive theory of learning as it relates to law enforcement training, the insights of the theory of andragogy are important for two reasons. First, on a practical level, they offer police trainers' information that may be beneficial when teaching new response skills and competencies. Second, the adult education theory of andragogy discussed in this subsection might foster organizational change in training at all levels of law enforcement and enhance learning at the same time.

The history of andragogy and how it relates to the scientific notation of helping adults learn has fashioned an understanding of adult learning and been a strong influence on guiding the way adults learn. Henschke (2013) stated that Malcolm Knowles picked up the term andragogy in 1966 from Dusan Savicevic. Knowles (1984) imbued andragogy with much of the meaning made from an already wide-ranging familiarity with adult education. Darden (2014) wrote that andragogy focuses on adult learning and is well associated with why adults undergo training in the first place.

The core belief of policing in the United States, unchanged since its establishment, is that officers are to serve in a role that allows them to uphold social order and control (Stein, 2016). As society continues to grow, mature, and evolve, so too has the complexity of fulfilling this mission of law enforcement. Shipton (2011) pointed out that policing as a profession is a fast-paced world that is ever-changing to keep pace with a society that is ever-changing. Officers in the field continue to experience unprecedented economic, legal, social, cultural, political, and technological changes as well as dealing

with the expectations of the community toward the police that have grown exponentially (Stein, 2016).

The actions of policing come from training, and the training of new police officers has broad implications for their ability to meet new and changing duties and responsibilities. While a traditional, pedagogical, military model of training may have worked at one time and served the interests and needs of police and society, its applicability and efficacy has been called into question during this age of policing in the United States (Evans, 2017).

Training of police officers is theorized that an andragogic (i.e., adult-based) instructional methodology will serve as a more efficient means for training police recruits. Andragogy, rooted in the belief that adults learn differently than children, bases its practices on the needs, interests, readiness, orientation, experience, and motivation of the adult learner (Henschke, 2013). Considering these requirements, andragogy focuses on facilitating a holistic, integrative, and collaborative approach to learning that places great emphasis on experiential learning (Brizer and Roberson, 2007). While anecdotal data suggests that andragogy yields more significant outcomes in education and competencies when compared to a traditional, pedagogical, military model (Henschke, 2013), the absence of empirical evidence served as an impetus to this study that revealed that an andragogic instructional methodology was more efficient.

Brizer and Roberson (2007) were one of the first to associate the andragogy theory with the training of police officers. In their research, andragogy showed an emphasis on emerging life experiences into the learning process as an appropriate means

to promote learning to become a police officer or to conduct a new skill in the line of duty, such as community policing. Shipton (2011) highlighted that over the past decade, police researchers have encouraged the use of adult learning principles as a theory to be applied to the training of sworn police officers. Shipton added if the focus is shifted from the methodology of paramilitary training to adult learning principles, officers working the street will recognize their place in society and have an increased respect for the community they are serving and protecting. Etter and Griffin (2011) also noted that using these types of andragogic learning will assist in the in-service training of veteran cops to improve how they respond to mental health cases as well as how they respond to victims of sexual or domestic assault. Etter and Griffin believed that using andragogical training techniques better fit law enforcement officers due to the larger number of older law enforcement officers that require in-service training.

Social Theory

The social theory can be used to explain to the public how the police go about their work and help to guide the actions of police departments and the officers on the street (Klinger et al., 2015). I believed that the social theory can be used to impact and change how officers respond to sexual assaults based on how the theory impacted domestic violence cases in the late 80s and early 90s long before the Violence Against Women Act was signed into place.

The social theory has influenced the ways police interact and deal with the public and can be the framework to improving the training of police officers who respond to sexual assaults. At one time, officers did not make arrests during spousal abuse cases, but

the public outcry against this practice led to new laws and regulations (McMahon, Palmer, Banyard, Murphy, & Giduca, 2015). This is similar to that of sexual assault response. Survivors feel that police do not believe or take them seriously when they respond, which leads to fewer and fewer college students reporting these cases (Al Shaibah, 2015). The social theory can be used to improve the interactions between police and sexual assault survivors just like in domestic assault cases in the past.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

Campus Law Enforcement

A staff writer for *Campus Safety Magazine* suggested why the role of a campus police officer is dramatically different than the role of a city police officer or county deputy, pointing out that some people compare campus police officers to security guards while others do not see differences between law enforcement professionals that work on a college campus or what are thought of as a time-honored police officer (Winn, 2018).

My intention in this subsection is to show that the majority of campus police officers are former local law enforcement officers and the roles that both types of police officer play in their respective jurisdictions vary broadly. Unfortunately, their training, mindsets, and responsibilities are often at odds against one another (Winn, 2018).

Campus law enforcement officers have raised the bar as it relates to community policing. Winn (2018) suggested that even though traditional police officers have embraced community policing, campus police officers have taken the practice even further. Campus law enforcement officers are focused on building relationships and looking for teachable moments to help U.S. youth, and this can be the most crucial aspect of working in the

field for campus police officers (Evans, 2017). Through building familiarity with students, staff, and faculty, Winn suggested that campus police establish a high level of community policing that helps reinforce the sense of awareness within often tight-knit campus communities.

One of the key issues that differentiates the campus police officer from a local police officer is that campus law enforcement has more options as it relates to discipline (Winn, 2018). In many cases, campus officers have decisions to make whether they arrest the student or send them to the Dean of Students (Al Shaibah, 2015). Campus police officers' roles on campus are not only to be the enforcer of laws but also to play a role of guidance in the students' lives. In some cases, this affects how the officer responds to calls. Winn (2018) added that the goal of campus law enforcement is not to make a lot of arrests but to have more of a focus on prevention. Campus police officers have reported feeling that their goal on campus is to reduce crime, not to wait to catch students doing wrong things (Winn, 2018).

When comparing campus law enforcement and local police, communication is a skill needed more on campuses than in the community. Patten, Alward, Thomas, and Wada (2016) discussed how campus police officers needed to be excellent in communication because if they professionally hold themselves accountable to providing high levels of customer service, they can resolve most issues on a college campus while avoiding conflict. In-service training for campus police officers differs from what is provided for local law enforcement (Stein, 2016). Patten et al. explained how campus officers go through training on the Clery Act, Title IX, and Family Educational Rights

and Privacy Act (FERPA) compliance, whereas local police officers do not. Local police officers work on how to approach vehicles on traffic stops, whereas campus police officers are trained in sensitivity and cultural diversity (Winn, 2018). Another area where training differs between local police and campus police officers is campus police officers focus more on using nonlethal force and de-escalation techniques (Evans, 2017).

Sexual Assaults on College Campuses

The White House Task Force to Prevent Students from Sexual Assault found that 1 out of every 5 female students who attend college in the United States will be a survivor of sexual assault and that often these types of incidents are committed by someone the survivor knows (Biden, 2017). The Task Force report also indicated that 4 out of 5 college-aged survivors do not report the sexual assault to law enforcement or university officials (Biden, 2017). In an U.S. Department of Justice (2018) study, 40% of respondents felt that the police or university officials could not do anything to help.

The act of sexual assault on college campuses has been a point of study going back many decades to when sociologist Eugene Kanin (1967) stated that male college students would use peer-pressure and shame to exploit women into sexual acts against their wills. Today with the federal government pushing for reform on every campus, sexual assault awareness has been increased mostly due to President Obama's White House Task Force. When we are talking about sexual assault on college campuses, we are not talking about a stranger hiding in the bushes with a mask using a weapon and rope. We are talking about what is known by date rape, which was first introduced in the early 1980 by Mary Koss.

The Reingold and Gostin (2015) study shows that 80% of all college sexual assaults go unreported to either the university or local law enforcement. It is very worrisome that survivors will suffer from long-term consequences if not treated. Some of these include but are not limited to real trauma, depression, substance abuse, inability to focus on college studies, sexually transmitted infections, and dropping out of college altogether. A victim of sexual assault on a college campus has always had two different options for reporting the assault. They tell local police or the university officials.

In a 2018 study administered by the Bureau of Justice Statistics, was shown that approximately 21% of undergraduate female students from nine participating universities experienced a sexual assault since entering college (Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook, Peterson, & Planty, 2016). Krebs et al., (2016) added to their findings that a majority of sexual assault survivors reported being victimized by someone they knew and not a stranger.

Kaukinen (2014) noted that being a survivor of sexual assault can have an adverse impact on not only the student's mental and physical health, but also their academics. Effects that a survivor might have after the attack is depression, anxiety, abusing drugs or alcohol, and academic failures. Student survivors face different challenges than survivors who are not students because they have to deal with being in such close proximity to their perpetrators and the difficulty of maintaining anonymity (Kaukinen, 2014). The vast majority of sexual assaults of college females are unreported by the survivors. Krebs, et al. (2016) points out that only 7% of survivors reported the incident to a school official, which includes campus law enforcement. In a National Sexual Violence Resource Center

Survey (2018) fewer than 5% of college women who were sexual assault survivors reported said crimes to campus or law enforcement. A quarter of these survivors did not report the sexual assault because they were afraid of being treated with hostility by campus law enforcement. While others believed the police would not think their case was severe enough. These statistics alone point to the need for better training of our campus law enforcement personnel.

Climate surveys on sexual assaults help researchers understand how prevalent sexual assaults truly are on college campuses across the United States. This will assist in assessing and understanding the need for improvements in first responder training. Martin, Fisher, Warner, Krebs, and Lindquist (2011) and Cranney (2014) found that when it comes to sexual assaults on a college campus, freshman and sophomore women are at greater risk for attacks than their fellow students who are juniors or seniors. One study indicated that students living on campus either in a residence hall or sorority house are three times more at risk of being sexually assaulted than those students who are living off campus. Martin, et al. research concluded that college attending survivors of either incapacitated or forced sexual assault knew their attackers.

Barriers in Survivors Reporting Sexual Assaults to Police

The Bureau of Justice Statistics (2018) shows only 2% of sexual assault victims were incapacitated by drugs or alcohol and just 13% of forced victims reported the crimes to campus law enforcement. These statistics were collected from interviews of 5,446 undergraduate women and 1,375 undergraduate men at large public universities in the United States. It needs to be figured out why do campus survivors not go to law

enforcement or campus officials? Through research and personal experience each survivor case is singular, but by digging deep into the literature a few common themes come to light.

A survivor of a sexual assault on a college campus has two different options for reporting the assault. First, they can report the crime to their University's Title IX coordinator or to any member of the campus community, including campus police or public safety officers. Their second option is to report the attack to local police. Reingold and Gostin (2015) supported the lack of reporting as their research shows 80% of all college sexual assaults go unreported to either campus officials or local law enforcement. Media bias has been shown to impact a student's choice to report a sexual assault at Queen's University. Al Shaibah (2015) confirmed students felt police and college officials were covering up sexual assaults (even though there was no proof of a cover up at the time of the study) When asked why they felt this way, students cited reading news stories about universities covering up sexual assaults to ensure that enrollment numbers would remain high.

Sabina and Ho's (2014) survey included a wide-range of questions about sexual assault occurring on the nation's college campuses, how students report these crimes, and why these assaults are not reported to campus officers or law enforcement. Respondents who were survivors of sexual assault but did not notify their university or law enforcement, for example, were asked why. The results of the study showed the common factors of not reporting the assault were students were concerned that first responders

would not keep it confidential on their campus, they would be treated poorly by campus law enforcement, and they would receive an ineffective response to their report.

These results are similar to a study completed by Briones-Robinson, Powers, and & Socia, (2016) where it was believed a lack of reporting of sexual assaults is due to the student's mistrust of police officers or campus public safety officers. When this societal phenomenon of not reporting sexual abuse crimes is studied further, it is found that survivors feel a reluctance to report these types of crimes due to their feelings of embarrassment or self-blame. Also, student survivors are holding the expectation that they will not be believed by campus police or first responders will not take what happened to them seriously (Briones-Robinson et al., 2016).

Effects of Sexual Assaults on College Survivors

In the findings of a study administered by Martin, Fisher, Warner, Krebs, & Lindquist (20011) it is projected that for every 1,000 females attending a college or university in the United States, there are 35 incidents of sexual assault each academic year. Furthermore, in their study, less than 5% of attempted or completed acts of sexual assault against women attending college were reported to first responders. However, in two-thirds of these assaults, the survivor admitted they did tell someone close to them about the attack. These confidants were typically a friend or roommate but not a family member or university official/first responder (Martin et al., 2011).

Fisher and Cullen (2013) discussed that being a survivor of sexual assault can destructively impact a student's mental and physical health as well as affect their academic outcomes. These effects can pose a swarm of negative health and social

performance results, such as depression or anxiety, increased dependency on alcohol and drugs, as well as academic failure (Fisher & Cullen, 2013). In a campus environment, Fisher and Cullen suggested that students who are sexually assaulted by fellow students face unique challenges, such as proximity to aggressors and the complexity of keeping anonymity.

College Students Views of Campus Law Enforcement

While working on this research, I came across a 2010 study that openly observed college students' perceptions of the authority of campus police officers. Wada, Patten, and Candela (2010), were drawn in by contrasting students' views of the local law enforcement with their perceptions of the campus law enforcement in a way to verify how their views of each agency were either different or similar. Wada et al. distributed surveys to a sample study of 593 undergraduates at an institution and learned that there was a statistically remarkable difference between students' perceived legitimacy of the local and campus law enforcement officers. Unambiguously, they learned that students in the survey recognized the local officers as being more legitimate than fellow campus police officers (Wada et al., 2010).

As a way to explain their findings, Wada et al. (2010) explored that the campus cops are downgraded by students, who identify the campus police officers more as a security officer than as a sworn police officer. This present study aims to build on this important work by uncovering how the particular context of training provided to the campus law enforcement officers may impact students' views of those who have the responsibility of policing their campus. If college students do not see campus law

enforcement officers as legitimate officers, this could help to explain reasons why students fail to report crimes like sexual assault.

Law Enforcement Training

Stein (2016) pointed out in an article that less time is spent to become a police officer than many trade jobs in the United States. For example, in most states police officers while gaining certification are required to complete 594 hours of training, whereas 4,000 hours of training are needed to become a licensed electrical sign specialist. In other regions, a future police officer needs only 360 hours of training whereas a licensed manicurist needs 500 hours (Evans, 2017).

According to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2018), every state has diverse training requirements to become a police officer. The future officers might be required to attend a basic law enforcement training academy at a local community college, or you might be required to complete an in-house training academy program. The majority of the future officers initial training will be classroom based, accompanied with practical scenarios (Stein, 2016).

The International Association of Chiefs of Police (2018) pointed out when it comes to training future cops there is no national curriculum, but that each state has a Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training. This organization establishes selection values for law enforcement officers, sets training, education and standards, and serves as the licensing authority for sworn law enforcement personnel. In all academies, future police officers learn the basics like report writing, patrol procedures, investigations, emergency vehicle operations, basic first aid, firearms, defensive tactics,

use of force, ethics, communications, professionalism, nonlethal weapons, traffic law, criminal law, and juvenile justice (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 2018).

In the information provided above, there is a real gap in training as it relates to sexual assault response for law enforcement officials. As seen above new police officers receive very little training on how to handle sexual assault cases in the academy or the classroom. Most of the training provided to law enforcement officials in this field is in-service training, and we should ask ourselves if an hour here or there over the year provides our officers enough training to make a response to survivors effectively

If you are going to change the culture of students not connecting with officers or feeling they treated them well in their time of need the best place to start at is the training of first responders. According to a study completed by Birzer and Roberson (2013), training is the key tool in the process of facilitating change on how officers respond to any situation. In the study, Birzer and Roberson concluded if the culture of students not connecting with officers or not feeling treated will in their time of need is going to change, the best place to start is with the training of campus law enforcement officers. Changes are made in how officers are trained, this will improve how the same officers respond to any situation. Alter the focus of training more like attending college courses and where an officer will learn theories and best practices of dealing with the public and they will improve their relations with the public.

In the Koss, Wilgus, and Williamsen, (2014) study the authors felt that police officers on college campuses are more influenced by federal law than faculty responding appropriately to sexual assault. Some speculated that this is more of a judicial response to

sexual assaults than a helping action by campus law enforcement, and this is why a larger gap in reporting numbers is seen. This follows a study by Kinney, Bruns, Bradley, Dantzler, and Weist (2008) in which their results indicated a serious need for the first responders to provide a different type of response to sexual assaults than non-sexual assault crimes.

These attitudes and beliefs show clearly how our culture of victim-blaming tremendously impacts peoples' lives. Far too often, survivors are put through a ringer figuring out if they should or should not report the attack. They are forced to feel or face the bureaucracy or the stigma of not being treated properly in their time of need. Our students should not have to worry about rape on college campuses, but they should also feel confident if something horrible does happen to them, they will be supported by their universities' first responders as they seek healing and justice. These low reporting numbers should be a wake-up call to college administrators that our culture on sexual assault reporting needs to change considerably—if a student is a survivor of sexual assault, they shouldn't be too afraid to report it

In a study completed Kinney, Burns, Bradley, Datzler, and Weist (2008) it was noted there is a genuine need for first responders to provide the proper response when responding to survivors of sexual abuse and assault. However, despite that common knowledge, there is little training on how police and fire officials conduct this aspect of their jobs and the training they receive. Furthermore, in the study, Kinney et. al. said results indicated that a significant improvement is needed in campus law enforcement training as it relates to sexual assault calls. This improvement in training should be

focused on more positive impacts with the survivors which would increase the likelihood the survivor would be willing to participate in the investigation (Kinney et. al, 2008).Also, Kinney et.al. found that police officers needed better education on sexual assaults in general.

One of the more unusual forms of a researcher that looked into the training of police officers as it related to sexual assaults response was done by Lonsway, Welch, and Fitzgerald (2001). In this study, they evaluated an experimental training program at a Midwestern police academy to see how officers are trained to handle sexual assaults. They had one group of police cadets take part in regular academy training while another group of cadets attended external sexual assault training. Results of the Lonsway et al. study suggested that strong and specialized training as it related to sexual assaults was active in refining behavior which could have impacted communicating with the public and possibly increased the number of reported incidents.

Sexual Assault Myths

Research establishes a particular relationship between public attitudes toward women and sexual assault myth acceptance. Not much is known about whether this relationship also exists within campus law enforcement culture. Page (2008) pointed out that discrepancy expectations about tolerated behavior for males and females influence our actions and thoughts as well as our evaluation and expression of gender and sexuality. Furthermore, Page illustrated that men and women are desperate to hold gendered beliefs about sexuality and these gaps inform attitudes toward rape.

Burt (1980) was the first scholarly study that looked into sexual assault myths which refer to the stereotypical and incorrect attitudes that a society or an individual might hold concerning sexual assaults, the aggressor, and the survivors of sexual assaults. Some examples of rape myths include: “only bad girls get raped,” “women ask for it,” and “women ‘cry rape’ only when they've been jilted or have something to cover up.

The Student Affairs Department at Washington University in St. Louis published that sexual assault myths are damaging, and false beliefs about sexual assault are perpetuated when individuals make judgments about survivors based on these inaccurate beliefs (Webb, 2017). These myths are sometimes spread because it is easier for people to believe the survivor must have done something to deserve being assaulted (Webb, 2017). This belief allows people to feel they are safer due to the fact they can protect themselves. However, sexual assault survivors are not to blame for an aggressor’s behavior. Sexual assault is a crime, and responsibility lies only with the perpetrator (Webb, 2017).

One massive misconception as it relates to the sexual assault on college campuses in the United States is that if a survivor was indeed assaulted, they would report it to campus law enforcement. In the University of Michigan’s 2015 Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Misconduct (2016), results showed that only three and a half percent of students reported an experience of sexual misconduct to campus officials or campus law enforcement. Another myth as it relates to a sexual assault on a college campus is that most aggressors in a sexual assault do not know their victims. As a result the University of Michigan Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Misconduct found that 56.5% of students

who had unwanted sexual experience said another University of Michigan student was responsible

Page (2008) indicated in a study that police officers are unvaryingly swayed by their socialization, as is anyone would be when raised within a particular society. To discourse this issue, some law enforcement agencies have attempted to adjust their policies and training concerning sexual assault survivors to reeducate officers' views while investigating sexual assaults. Police officers who adopt stereotypical attitudes about social and sexual roles for men and women will also be more likely to accept and show these rape myths toward survivors, which originate from traditional gender schemas (Page, 2008).

The results of Page's (2008) study of eleven different law enforcement agencies found overall police officers tend to view the crime of sexual assault as a serious one. However, in this research, it shows that while they consider the crime of sexual assault as the significant one, officers are more likely to discredit a survivor who doesn't adhere to stereotyped characteristics of the rape victim (Page, 2008). Furthermore, Page indicated that several of the traits that comprise what a real victim of sexual assault is would fit within the traditional framework of gendered expectations as they relate to sexuality. Page felt that it is possible that following sexist ideologies, whether modern or old-fashioned, can negatively affect how particular sexual assault survivors are seen by police officers and whether their accounts of the cases are deemed credible.

Law Enforcement's Response to Sexual Assault Cases

Through research on the subject matter, the majority of law enforcement training in the field of sexual assault cases included examining and discarding negative attitudes towards victims. In the past, instead of apprehending and prosecuting sexual assailants, police sometimes decided that the victim was responsible for what happened (Kinney, Bruns, Bradley, Dantzler, and Weist, 2008). In the direction to better assist the needs of survivors of sexual assault, it is vital that law enforcement officers remove any lingering misbeliefs they're harboring about the nature of sexual assaults. For campus law enforcement officers they need to realize that most reporters of sexual assault are women, but these intimate assaults can also occur in transgender or gay relationships.

Due to the gap in law enforcement sexual assault response training, police training needs to include attitudes towards sexual assault and its victims. Sexual assault presents particular challenges to law enforcement. The alleged victim and suspect may have conflicting stories, and often there are no witnesses to help police sort out what happened. Technology has been a real boom to sexual assault investigations. With the help of DNA and other evidence from a "rape kit", this evidence can help determine whether or not the offense was committed and who the aggressor was. The medical exam and evidence collection are complex processes that can take several hours. The evidence is then sent to a lab for processing that can cost a thousand dollars or more.

Chemaly (2016) pointed out that it makes sense that unaware and untrained law enforcement officers are no less a follower to popular sexual assault myths than anyone else. However, Chemaly demonstrated that studies have shown that cops in line with

studies of other fraternal settings on a college campus like fraternities as being less likely to trust the accounts of sexual assault survivors. Ramsey (2013) noted that law enforcement officials felt that sexual assault survivors don't conform to faultless versions of how a sexual assault survivor victim should act and the untrained and inexperienced cop, as a majority of the public, are highly likely to doubt them.

Further studies have demonstrated that 50% of police officers feel those reporting sexual assaults are making false claims, and this percentage of officers will drop once they have more than seven years on the job (Ramsey, 2013). Chemaly (2016) showed associated problems of rape mythologizing exist at every section of the criminal justice system, which starts with dispatchers who are often accountable for allotting a penal code to incidents as they are reported and ending in courtrooms, where judges have immense scope in sentencing, usually with disgraceful outcomes for victims.

Improving the Police Response to Sexual Assault

Since many police officers remain highly skeptical of survivors reporting sexual assaults, the Humans Rights Watch (2013) recommended the use of training to improve law enforcement response to sexual assaults. The Humans Rights Watch advised that training law enforcement officials in the changing aspects of sexual assault and the consequences of trauma on the survivors is crucial to neutralizing the inherent assumptions responding police officers may have about rape and how “real” sexual assault survivors behave.

It was pointed out by the Human Rights Watch (2013) that the training officers usually receive in investigations of other crimes can be counterproductive when applied

to sexual assault cases. Police officers are trained to interrogate the witnesses and suspects rather than interview them. Due to trauma, survivors send out clues that seem deceptive and often leave the officers to feel suspicious of the survivors reporting of events. Also, the Human Rights Watch pointed out that officers receive insufficient training in how to interview traumatized victims.

Petterson (2010) recommended training first responding police officers in the elements of sexual assault offenses. That way these officers can better identify the situations that meet the criteria of a sexual assault even when they lack the details of fear or force. For example in San Diego, California, detectives assigned to the sexual assault unit are specially trained in interviewing traumatized victims and must complete thirty-two hours of training in topics related to sexual assaults and their investigations (San Diego Police Department, n.d.).

Some departments have noticed that improvement needs to be done with how their officers respond to sexual assaults. Education, as it relates to sexual attacks, is part of mandatory training for recruits in Philadelphia and Kansas City. In both of these departments, the local sexual assault crisis centers assist in the training of current and new officers as well as they both added on-going training for patrol officers at roll call (Evans, 2017).

In this worked I have pointed out the sexual stereotypes, myths and bias people including police officers have of sexual assaults. Campus law enforcement officers are first responders and their behaviors are critical to survivors to trust them, and that is where the improvement of training needs to come into play. The reaction of responding

officers is vital to survivors in believing the police and participating in the prosecution. University and campus safety requires that we overcome actual bias as it relates to sexual assaults and improves our campus law enforcement response to sexual assaults and other related crimes. This is primarily because a significant body of research teaches us that sexual predators on a college campus are serial predators who commit many sex crimes as well as other violent crimes on or around campus.

Sweeney and Taggart (2018) pointed out that survivors of incidents of sexual violence or sexual assault cases warrant to be regarded with respect and dignity as they seek out justice and attempt to reach a level of closure. The goal of improving training is to deliver officers with the most up to date grasp of the influence sexual assault has on victims to eliminate any extra trauma associated with the criminal justice process (Sweeney & Taggart, 2018). Sweeney and Taggart believed that survivors have been held back in finding justice because of catastrophes at just about every part of the reporting process. Advocates have reported that those cops who respond often don't take reports nor do they communicate appropriately with survivors (Sweeney & Taggart, 2018). Furthermore Sweeney and Taggart pointed out detectives sometimes don't know how to develop a winning case. Part of the problem, Sweeney and Taggart (2018) states, is that law enforcement officers haven't been trained in how survivors of sexual assault react to the trauma.

Since officers are not trained Sweeney and Taggart (2018) felt they need to have improved training that shows how a victim's brain reacts affected memory in a way that may ready investigators to uncertainty, dismiss or continually question the survivors.

Sweeney and Taggart pointed out that this could inflict more damage, and eventually contribute to fewer cases being charged.

Evans (2017) believed training is vital to the investigation of sexual assault cases because in these cases victims deal with issues unlike what those of victims of other criminal offenses deal with. However, Evans pointed out that the training program Boston University police officers go through as it relates to sexual assault can be emotionally difficult for officers.

Newman (2018) felt the answer is hiring more female police officers as a better way than training by pointing to a study by University of Virginia economics professor Amalia Miller. Miler's study showed that an increase in female officers in a particular area is associated with an equal increase in crime reporting by female assault victims (Newman, 2018). This move by colleges and universities would be more cost-effective than training for universities. Other scholarly experts feel that extensive training in sexual assault response is something small universities cannot currently offered for their officers.

Summary

Chapter 2 included a review of the extant literature on campus law enforcement, sexual assaults, and social factors that attribute to the training of campus law enforcement officer in responding to sexual assaults. I also in this chapter discussed the conceptual framework for this study. Chapter 3 will outline the methodological approach of this research study. The purpose of this qualitative, narrative study is an exploration of campus law enforcement sexual assault response training. I want to explore and obtain an

understanding of this phenomenon by conducting interviews of participants to see what is helpful in their training and what improvements need to be added. The sample size consists of 15 certified law enforcement officers currently working on a college campus. Chapter 4 of this study will present the results derived from the data collected in those interviews, and Chapter 5 will close out this study with a discussion of the findings and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

In the preceding chapter, I reviewed the current literature on sexual assault training for campus law enforcement and demonstrated a need for continued research to understand the phenomena of the beliefs and influences that guide how campus law enforcement officials respond to sexual assault cases on college campuses. In this chapter, I present the research methodology used to observe this phenomenon, the framework of the study, the participant selection process (including inclusion and exclusion criteria), and the role of the primary investigator, the measures used to protect all study participants, and the data collection and data analysis procedures.

Research Design and Rationale

A qualitative methodology was appropriate for this study because, as Creswell (2017) described, the approach does not involve controlling variables, which permits for limitless and natural thematic concerns that the researcher desires to locate. Johnson and Christensen (2016) defined qualitative research as a form of investigation that uses innumerable data collection methods to conduct a realistic assessment of data grounded on the view that truth is a social construction. Gutterman, Fetters, and Creswell (2015) stated that using a qualitative investigation allows the data to be more visible to the researcher.

The data produced by a qualitative investigation conveys reasons, engagements, and views of the participants of the study (Creswell, 2017). I chose this approach for the

current study because it allowed for the collection and better understanding of participants' experiences on the topic of study.

Research Questions

RQ1: Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim?

SQ1: What are the major strengths of a department's sexual assault training?

SQ2: What are the major weaknesses?

RQ2: What strategies are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma?

According to Lune and Berg (2017), a methodology is the organized, abstract analysis of the research methods utilized in a research field of study. The method encompasses the theoretical investigation of the body of methods and ideologies associated with a branch of knowledge on the topic (Lune & Berg 2017). Creswell (2017) defined out methodology as the overall research strategy used by a researcher that shapes the way in which research is to be embarked on. Lune and Berg added that methodology covers concepts, such as theoretical model and investigation techniques. The methods, designated in the methodology, express the modes or means of data collection or even how to calculate accurate results (Thorne, 2016). The methodology does not define exact methods, even though much attentiveness is given to the quality and kinds of processes to be obeyed to attain an objective or a particular procedure (Lune & Berg, 2014).

Narrative Analysis

Creswell (2017) defined narrative research as a term that incorporates a cluster of approaches that, in turn, depend on the written or, in the case of this study, spoken words of the study participants. This method focuses on the lives of participants as told through their own stories or experiences (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Kleres (2011) added that the fundamental premise of a narrative analysis is that of human experience and that the design does not focus on emotions. At its core, the sequential analysis dissects the narrative structure of the text of an interview and allows for stories to make up a series of discrete chronological segments that help to describe events or phases (Kleres, 2011).

I selected a narrative design for this study because the study was investigating the real-life problems with campus law enforcement responses to sexual assaults and the design can be used to reflect real-world measures. Creswell (2017) stated that a drawback to historical research is that the study can only be validated by the audience. The narrative design allowed for the collection of individual views in this study. During the data collection phase of a narrative study, the researcher and the participants are working together in a collaborative dialogic relationship that allows for data to be drawn from field notes, journal records, interviews, and observations (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008).

The most appropriate methodology to examine the beliefs and influences that guide the examination of training provided to campus law enforcement when responding to sexual assaults was the narrative inquiry. According to Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, and Ormston (2013), narrative research has as many forms and uses as varieties of analytic practices in qualitative research. Historical research is also rooted within different social

and humanities disciplines. The narrative approach starts with collecting the knowledge of a person or group of individuals that are articulated, witnessed, or discussed events. Wells (2011) summarized the narrative research design as the collection of a spoken or written text that gives an account of any action or series of events. This type of research is chronologically connected from start to finish and allows for the understanding and analysis of stories.

Thorne (2016) opined that the approach closely aligned with Polkinghorne's "analysis of narratives," while Lune and Berg (2017) proposed that researchers may utilize paradigmatic reasons for a narrative inquiry, such as how people are constrained and enabled by social resources, which are a way to analyze the training the officers are receiving.

Clandinin (2006) proposed that narrative inquiry can be used in cooperation with the method and phenomenon of a qualitative study. Since I used using it as a method in this study, the narrative starts with the knowledge articulated as lived and told accounts of those individuals who were a part of the phenomenon of study. Researchers utilize the narrative inquiry as way to deliver ways for understanding and analyzing the stories lived and told to them by the participants of the study who lived the accounts (Ritchie et. al., 2013). Wells (2011) wrote that a narrative inquiry could be comprehended as either written or spoken text that can paint a picture of accounts or a series of actions of an event that are connected in chronologically order. A researcher's procedures for executing the knowledge gained in their study consists of studying a group of individuals,

collecting the data as an assortment of their accounts, an reporting those experiences and the significance of those experiences in chronological order (Creswell, 2017).

Hesse-Biber (2017) stated that although narrative research originated from sociology, literature, history, anthropology, sociolinguistics, and education, several fields of study have embraced the approaches. For me as a researcher, I found the human developmental viewpoint in Hesse-Biber's research to be the most appropriate to this study examining the training provided to campus law enforcement when responding to sexual assaults.

Role of the Researcher

My role in this study was that of an observer. A qualitative approach was the most suitable for this study on campus law enforcement training because it allowed me, the researcher, to uncover the role of training as it relates to responding to sexual assault cases on a college campus. The qualitative method allows the researcher to have an active role in the lives of those being studied by building a rapport with the participants to obtain an understanding of the personal meanings and subjective experiences participants accord to the phenomenon of interests (Creswell, 2017). Using this approach allowed for me to become immersed in the data to learn more about the phenomenon being studied. As the research of this study I am able to set my own biases and preconceptions aside and exclusively focus on the experiences of the participants in the study.

Participants in this study included certified campus law enforcement officers who were currently working on college campuses and may have recognized me as someone working in their field because I was currently a director of public safety at a private

university in the Midwest. I acknowledged my professional role and the potential influence that it might have in this study. I ensured participants that there would be no pressure to participate in the study. Any inquiries from the participants regarding my experiences were addressed before the interview began as a way of building rapport with the study participants.

Ethical Concerns

I did recognize that I may have preconceived biases, beliefs, and assumptions about the effectiveness of campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. Bracketing was used to help reduce my biases and allowed for me, the researcher, to view the experiences of the participants with open and fresh eyes (see Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I described my own experiences with the phenomenon under study and examined my assumptions before interviewing the participants of this study. Before any interview took place, I informed the participants of the purpose of this study and their rights using an informed consent form.

Methodology

Qualitative Interviews

In this qualitative study, the methodology directed the interview process. Qualitative research consistently puts faith in interviewing as the chief data collection tool (Creswell, 2017). Starks and Trinidad (2007) pointed out that in any qualitative study, the critical tool for gathering information like thoughts, feelings, ideas, intentions, or behaviors that took place and which the researcher is unable to observe directly is interviewing. Consequently, I used interviewing as the method to gather data in this study

because it allowed me to be inserted into the participants' perspectives (see Creswell, 2017).

Ritchie et al. (2013) recommended that the design of the interview questions in a qualitative study should encourage participants to talk outright about their experiences and understanding of the situation. Therefore, I asked open-ended interview questions in this study. These types of questions tend to be less leading and allow the study participants to answer as they decide as opposed to close-ended interview questions. Creswell (2017) pointed out there are numerous forms of interview designs that can be used to obtain rich, thick data while utilizing a qualitative investigational perspective. For this study, I used the standardized, open-interview style.

Throughout this study, I asked open-ended interview questions because they depend on the same predetermined questions that all study participants were asked. This type of questioning is referred to as semi structured interviewing (Hesse-Biber, 2017). A limitation of this approach is that a semi structured interviewing system will not allow for alternative or pursuing topics or questions that are not prearranged (Hesse-Biber, 2017). Furthermore, a structured approach downgrades the extent to which individual tones or differences can be encouraged by the data (Hesse-Biber, 2017).

Kallio, Poetila, Johnson, and Kagasniemi (2016) stated that semi structured, open-ended interviews are tremendously structured as it relates to the writing and wording of the questions that are asked of the participants. In this study, like in other semi structured, open-ended interviews, I asked the participants identical questions, but these questions were worded so that responses from the participants would be open ended (Hesse-Biber,

2017). Semi structured interviewing is the favored data collection tool when the researcher has one chance to interview participants for study in the field (Hesse-Biber, 2017). Creswell (2017) reported that this style allows participants to donate as much detailed information as they wish, and it allowed me to ask examining questions as a means of follow up throughout the study. Open-ended interviews are possibly the most utilized form of interviewing participants in a qualitative study because of the nature of the questions asked because they allow all participants to adequately convey their experiences and viewpoints of the study topic (Creswell, 2017). The main weakness associated with open-ended interviewing is the complexity of coding the data (Creswell, 2017).

Participant Selection

Kalliko, Pietila, Johnson, and Kagasniemi, (2016) stated that to gain access to interview participants in a research study, the researcher cannot go directly into the community and start questioning persons without prior approval. For this study, I gained permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Walden University before data collection began (IRB Approval No. 08-20-19-0532075). The IRB is a board of members from the campus community that studies research projects for their potential to harm the participants (Shoenbill, Song, Cobb, Drezner, and Mendonca, 2017).

This study was conducted in the Midwest, primarily out of proximity to where I live. An introduction letter was sent out via email introducing myself and explaining the central purpose of this study and how the research may benefit their campus, as well as, a

letter of cooperation to University Public Safety Departments in the Midwest to interview the officers about their sexual assault response training.

After receiving IRB approval from Walden University, I contacted the police chief at the university where the study took place since this position is concerned with the gatekeepers to my data. I needed to inform them of the study; that way the chief was on board with me interviewing their officers. This was completed by setting up times where I could answer any questions the chief had regarding the study. After meeting with the department's police chief, a flyer which states the central purpose of my study and my contact information for participant recruitment. All study participants had a minimum of three weeks after the initial introduction to contact regarding participation from a flyer posted in the department. This allowed the possible participants who do indeed think about participating in this study to ask additional follow-up questions about participating in the study.

During our first interaction, I reviewed all information on the informed consent document to allow sufficient time for potential study participants to ask questions. The informed consent document states the central purpose of the study, ensuring the confidentiality of every participant, addresses potential risks, and will provide expected benefits of the research for participants. Lastly, before having study participants sign the consent form, I will ask if they have any additional questions or comments. All interviews will be conducted during non-work hours; therefore, I am planning on the conversations to take place in the evenings or on officers off days. For those who agreed

to proceed with the interview process, I conducted a face-to-face in-depth, open-ended interview based on the interview guide (see Appendix A).

The population for this qualitative study was made up of certified/sworn police officers who work on a college campus and are employed by the same college or university. The goal is to have a sample size considerable enough to comprehend the characteristics of the phenomena being studied. Qualitative researchers commonly work with small sample sizes and recommend between 5 and 25 participants (Clandinin, 2006), while Creswell (2017) suggested collecting extensive details during the qualitative inquiry and has provided a recommendation of a sample size of one to two cases for a narrative inquiry.

The sample size of 20 participants was designed to investigate sexual assault training provided to certify police officers who respond to sexual assaults on a university campus. Based on previous narrative inquiry, 20 participants will give a sizable enough sample to answer the planned research questions. The sample size of 20 participants for this study was based on research indicating that thematic saturation is achieved at eight participants in qualitative research (Hangman & Wutich, 2016). Saturation is a tool I utilized to ensure both the adequate and quality of the data I will be collecting during this research project. Fusch, Ness, and Lawrence (2015) wrote that failing to reach data saturation will impact the quality of research conducted. For this researcher, saturation was achieved during the coding process when I found no new codes occurring in the data that was collected during the interview process (Saunders et al., 2018).

Qualitative research has a broad range of sampling strategies ranging from a purposive to snowball (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). Hesse-Biber (2017) pointed out in their writing that the most shared method for selecting participants is purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling is a tool utilized by researchers to choose information-rich cases of participants because they can decisively stimulate information to answer the research question or phenomena being studied (Hesse-Biber, 2017). Purposeful sampling techniques will be used to identify participants who had knowledge about sexual assault training for campus law enforcement.

The next stage of this study's data collection process is field issues. Before any interviews, the researcher needs to foresee potential field issues before setting off into the field (Hesse-Biber, 2017). Some possible things to think about before beginning fieldwork are: what part the research will take, the procedure related to conducting the interview, ethical issues, locating needed documents, and of course, gaining access (Hesse-Biber, 2017). One area I had to be mindful of is my own beliefs about sexual assault training for campus law enforcement since I am a director of public safety and not let these beliefs control the study participants.

Additionally, I was aware of encountering individuals who are not comfortable in voicing their opinion about their department's training standards. Similarly, the chief from the department where the study is taking place might be hesitant of my presence about training or lack of training standards. These concerns were covered in the introductory letter sent to the university where the study took place.

Data Collection

After receiving approval from Walden University's IRB board, I started collecting data at an institution of higher education in the Midwest region of the United States for two months. In any qualitative study like this narrative inquiry research, the researcher is the primary data collection tool (Creswell, 2017); thus, I was the primary data collection tool for this study. During the interview process, all participants who signed an informed consent form were asked consent to audio record the interview. In this study, I did not use proper names, but I assigned numbers and aliases to each study participant as a way to protect their privacy and as a means to de-identify the data. The interviews lasted between 45–90 minutes, depending on any follow-up questions. Also, all interviews were conducted away from the department to ensure privacy and confidentiality. For confidentiality, I held one-on-one meetings with each participant at a coffee house in the area for the interview. This location provided privacy from coworkers as well as protection from the elements. Each of my discussions were guided by a structured interview worksheet, which will aide consistency between all study participants (Flick, 2018).

After the interviews, all study participants were provided with a crisis line number that will have the capability to discuss sensitive topics while still maintaining the confidentiality of my participants in case they experience emotional discomfort or stress from the interview or from discussing a sensitive subject. Lastly, I took the advice by Starks and Trinidad (2007) as I utilized a research journal to capture my participants'

self-reflections during our interviews. This journal assisted in the future of this project while identifying themes.

Criterion sampling is one of many purposeful sampling methods and a critical tool in this study's sampling process. Criterion sampling is a method of selecting study participants based on specific criteria Hesse-Biber (2017). The criterion for this study included study participants must be certified/sworn law enforcement officers working on a college campus. Additionally, they must have experience in both attending sexual assault response training and responding to sexual assault cases in the past on their college campuses. All potential participants who met the criteria and were asked to participate until 20 participants are interviewed.

Data Management and Analysis

In qualitative research, data management is a method a researcher will sort, code, make sense of codes, and present the study's findings to an intended audience (Creswell, 2017). According to Creswell (2017), data management techniques need to be in place before starting the research project. When dealing with data management, the primary issues are ensuring documentation, high-quality, accessible data, and maintenance of data after the study is complete (Creswell, 2017).

To safeguard tolerable data collection, documentation, and retention, this study used a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). Through researching several CAQDAS programs available, it was decided that NVivo12 by QSR was selected as the computer assisted data analysis software for this study. As the researcher for this study, I have previous experience with using NVivo10 in two

qualitative courses in which I was enrolled at Walden University. NVivo has several critical characteristics, including the ability to store data and files together in a single file and easily manipulate data (Castleberry, 2014).

Qualitative research is fundamentally subjective because the chief research tool is, I the researcher (Richie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). In a qualitative study the researcher crafts all the decisions regarding themes, coding, decontextualizing, and recontextualizing (Richie et al., 2013). In narrative research, the researcher must be vigilant and honest with their viewpoints, beliefs, and developing the hypothesis (Creswell, 2017). One method researchers can use to maintain transparency and self-reflection is bracketing (Richie et. al., 2013). The use of bracketing allows the researcher to conduct self-reflection during sessions with participants to add reflections, and processing (Hesse-Biber, 2017). Other reflexive practices include consulting with committee members and colleagues throughout the data analysis process.

To ensure the validity of data collection during this study, all interviews (with consent) were recorded using a digital recorder with an external microphone and transcribed verbatim. Also, all discussions followed a structured interview worksheet to assist in texture between different participants of this study. All interview transcriptions were typed into a word document on a password protected personal computer. The word document, observations, field notes, and audio files were uploaded to NVivo12 on a password protected computer for data management and analysis. A methodical process of coding will help to guide data analysis in which statements will be analyzed and grouped into themes that represent the phenomena at hand (Hesse-Biber, 2017).

Once I conducted all interviews of the participants, I approached the data analysis process by studying the qualitative data procedures outlined by Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014). Miles et al. (2014) enforce the need for full disclosure of steps and techniques conducted by qualitative researchers to prove the study's consistency. After the transcription processes of the research, which I verified by listening to the recordings against the transcripts and then uploaded into Nvivo 12, qualitative data analysis software or theme identification and coding purposes. Nvivo software has an intuitive user interface that is best for large datasets to aid with the organization, and coding of all data collected during the face-to-face interviews. This allowed for arrangement and analysis of unstructured data collected to make prime decisions, while systematically functioning to ensure that nothing was omitted from the uploaded data. These steps allowed for complete analyzation of the data.

Summary

Chapter 3 involved the methods that will be used in the study and the tools I will use to assess participants' responses to interview questions. In this chapter, I included the purpose of the research, the research design, the methodology, and the tools with an assessment that will be used to gain data from individuals in the study. To conclude this chapter, I detailed the settings where the interviews will take place, the number of participants, ethical considerations, and the modes of analysis of the data that will be collected. I will obtain the data in a concise manner that will not reveal the identity of my participants but will provide information useful for myself and future researchers. The purpose of this study is to explore the training provided to campus law enforcement

officers as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. Semi structured interviews will be conducted to obtain participants' insight related to the effectiveness of training and eliminating social bias as it relates to sexual assaults. A research journal will be kept to log the participants' responses, nonverbal responses, and their reactions throughout the interview process. In this chapter the methods and procedures implemented in this narrative study were presented. Chapter 4 will include the results of the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

In previous chapters, an overview of the issue at hand, a review of the literature related to topic of the study, and an overview of procedures and methodology have been provided. The main purpose of the study was to explore and identify the factors that contribute to effective campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults. The research questions that guided this study were:

RQ1: Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim?

SQ1: What are the major strengths of a department's sexual assault training?

SQ2: What are the major weaknesses?

RQ2: What strategies are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma?

In this chapter, I present the setting of this study, significant demographics of participants, the data collection and analysis process, trustworthiness of the study, and the overview of the results of the study.

Settings

Participant recruitment occurred remotely through e-mail and phone/video chat while the data collection occurred face to face. Participants were self-selected to take part in the study after reading a flyer and having communication through e-mail and over the phone/video chat with me. They participated in the study from within their work settings.

I limited the recruitment of participants to certified campus police officers who were currently working on a university campus. Those who declined to participate chose to do so when they discovered they were not eligible for the study because they were not certified campus police officers but were working as civilians in the university police department. All participants received invitations to participate through e-mail and a posting within the police department. I contacted those that were interested in being interviewed through their preferred method of contact to arrange an individual interview time. Personal interviews with 20 participants were conducted. I offered the participants with the option of being interviewed in a face-to-face meeting at a local coffee shop, which all 20 participants agreed to. All participants were also invited to respond to a write-up of the results from the interview. Three participants provided a reaction through e-mail supporting the initial results. No antagonistic events occurred through the data collection process.

Demographics

Participants were diverse in their work settings and experience with campus law enforcement as well as age, race, number of years of experience, and educational background. The ages of participants ranged from 24 to 58 years old. Twelve participants were male and eight were female. Reported race/ethnicities included African American, Hispanic American, European American, Asian American, and mixed race. Participants' time working in the field of law enforcement ranged from 2 to 27 years. Levels of education included associate degrees, bachelor's degrees, and graduates of master's

programs. All participants worked as certified law enforcement police officers at a public university.

Table 1

Participant Demographic Information

	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Education	Role	Experience
Participant 1	49	African American	Male	Bachelor of Arts	Sergeant	15 years
Participant 2	44	European American	Male	High School Diploma	Sergeant	12 years
Participant 3	27	European American	Male	Associates of Arts	Patrol Officer	2 years
Participant 4	40	Hispanic	Female	Bachelor of Science	Detective	18 years
Participant 5	36	African American	Female	Bachelor of Arts	Patrol Officer	11 years
Participant 6	40	Mixed Race	Male	High School Diploma	Sergeant	17 years
Participant 7	29	Hispanic	Male	Bachelor of Arts	Patrol Officer	4 years
Participant 8	41	European American	Female	Master of Arts	Sergeant	19 years
Participant 9	58	European American	Female	Bachelor of Arts	Captain	27 years
Participant 10	25	African American	Male	Bachelor of Science	Patrol Officer	2 years
Participant 11	33	Asian American	Male	Bachelor of Arts	Patrol Officer	12 years
Participant 12	45	African American	Female	Associates of Arts	Detective	21 years
Participant 13	40	African American	Male	High School Diploma	Patrol Officer	18 years
Participant 14	29	Asian American	Female	Bachelor of Science	Patrol Officer	5 years
Participant 15	52	European American	Male	High School Diploma	Patrol Officer	26 years
Participant 17	37	European American	Male	Master of Arts	Detective	17 years
Participant 18	33	Asian American	Male	Associates of Arts	Patrol Officer	10 years
Participant 19	37	Mixed Race	Male	High School Diploma	Patrol Officer	13 years
Participant 20	32	European American	Female	Master of Science	Patrol Officer	9 years

Data Collection

Data collection for this study occurred at three main points: a demographic form, individual interviews, and feedback from data interpretation. Twenty participants completed the demographic questionnaire. All 20 of those completed distinctive one-on-one, face-to-face interviews with me, and three participants provided written feedback

through e-mail after the one-on-one interviews, stating the data were interpreted correctly.

The demographic form took a few minutes for the participant to complete before the one-on-one interview commenced and consisted of six questions. The individual interviews lasted on average of 55 minutes and consisted of 26 questions, which were asked of each participant, with additional, follow-up questions asked depending on the information shared in the interview. I provided eligible participants with the semi-structured interview protocol outlining the open-ended interview questions to be posed for review before the start of the interview. The face-to-face interviews took place at a local coffee shop near campus. Each participant was interviewed once. During all meetings, I took notes in a journal and recorded the interviews on a digital voice recorder. After the interviews, I presented a summary of the data collected to each participant through e-mail and asked them for feedback. To follow up, several additional questions were asked of participants for their initial impressions of the implications of the research. This information was provided to all participants by e-mail, and I invited them to respond with any reactions or feedback within 1 week.

The demographic form was a Microsoft Word document, and I exported the answers into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The one-on-one interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. Three participants also provided reactions to initial results through e-mail, which I saved on a Word document. The transcripts, responses, and participant reactions were imported into NVivo12 for data analysis.

Data Analysis

I analyzed the data as they were collected from the interviews. All interviews were reviewed, and the transcription edited immediately following each interview. Open coding of the transcripts was conducted, and participants were no longer recruited because the ideas expressed by participants in the interviews appeared to be repetitive. After the individual, one-on-one interviews were completed and all data were collected, the axial coding of the transcriptions was managed by separating those codes into categories, which were then organized into themes. I presented these categories and themes to participants by e-mail as a way to ask follow-up questions to enrich the understanding in the findings of the data analysis. Those participants that responded reported they were impressed with the comprehensive analysis of the data that was provided to them. I completed a selective coding of all the data collected after obtaining participant feedback and attuned the categories and themes as needed.

Categories and themes emerged directly from the data. The main themes included context, challenges, professional development, mandatory, and trauma based.

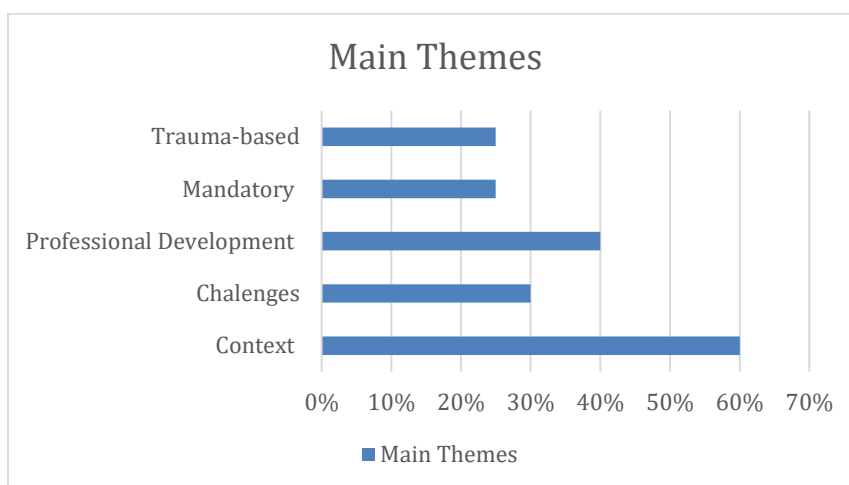


Figure 1 *Main themes*

Participants brought up many different themes during the interview process (See Figure 1). During the interviews, 60% of data learned fell into context, which includes reasons for attending training, the importance of training, practical training, and utilizing the training in the field. The next broad theme was professional development, where 40% of participants spoke about the importance of always learning and developing. 30% of participants discussed challenges in attending the training. 25% of the participants talked about the significance of trauma-based training. Lastly, 25% of participants stated they felt the training was mandatory. These themes will be described in greater detail in the Results section of this chapter. Barriers included limited training opportunities, funding, bias, and assumptions. The complexity of the themes involved complex power dynamics between the officers and training officers, diagnosing the problem of sexual assault on college campuses, and the need for trauma-based interviewing skills. Participants identified that working with survivors involves working with multiple layers of trauma, the potential risk for reexposure to events of the incident, a heightened need for self-care,

and an ability to knowing symptoms of traumatic distress. The theme of professional development involved the many ways that officers attained competence, including learning trauma-based interviewing skills and how trauma affects the survivor. All participants agreed on the importance of training related to being an effective campus law enforcement officer; however, as shown in Table 2, only 80% of participants felt that sexual assault response training was a vital training skill.

Table 2

Importance of Sexual Assault Training

Participant	Is sexual assault training important?
Participant 1	Yes
Participant 2	Yes
Participant 3	No
Participant 4	Yes
Participant 5	Yes
Participant 6	Yes
Participant 7	No
Participant 8	Yes
Participant 9	Yes
Participant 10	Yes
Participant 11	No
Participant 12	Yes
Participant 13	Yes
Participant 14	Yes
Participant 15	Yes
Participant 16	Yes
Participant 17	Yes
Participant 18	Yes
Participant 19	Yes
Participant 20	No

All participants from this study shared information that could be brought together in a holistic picture of competency in responding to sexual assaults on college campuses, notwithstanding the diversity of contexts and perspectives. There were no seriously discrepant cases or quarreling data. What at first seemed to be discrepant could be integrated into an excellent conceptualization of the main themes. For example, some

reported that their training prepared them not to make things worse for the survivor as they waited for an investigator. Data collection focused on the skills and dispositions said to identify the factors that contribute to practical campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults rather than to focus on the sometimes “yes” or “no” answers participants provided when asked to reflect on what strategies were being used by their department to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma. There appeared to be some disagreement on whether working with sexual assault survivors should be considered an advanced level of training for campus law enforcement officers. This study showed that only 45% of the participants felt they needed advanced training to respond to and investigate sexual assaults (see Figure 2). However, it was agreed upon among the participants that law enforcement officers working on a college campus need to continuously develop their approach, training, and competence when responding to calls of sexual assault.

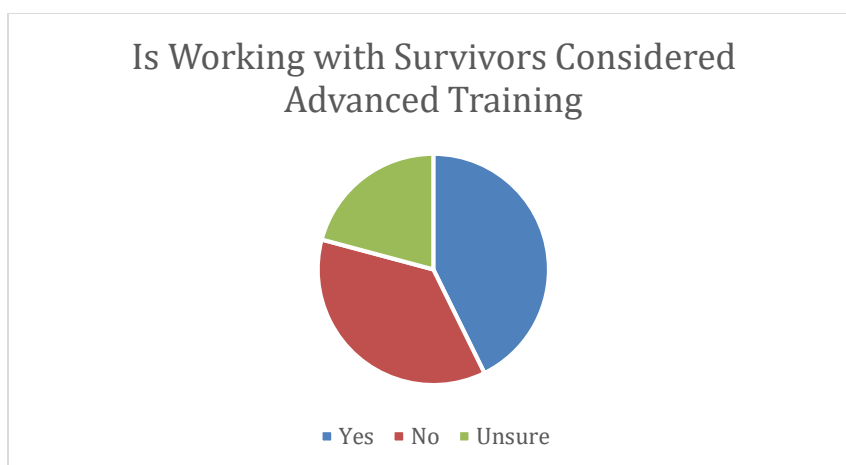


Figure 2 *Is working with survivors considered advanced training?*

Trustworthiness

In this section, I show how the study methodology and procedures maintained the trustworthiness of the study and the findings. Lincoln and Guba (2016) recommended that the trustworthiness of a study is important to evaluate.

Credibility

I ensured the credibility of the findings through triangulating the data by collecting them from participants at two different points through different methods. Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCesno, Blythe, and Neville (2014) described triangulation as using more than one method to collect data on the same research topic or study. This type of approach is a way to assure credibility as to capture different dimensions of the same phenomenon (Carter et al., 2014). Although it proved difficult to receive feedback from all 20 participants, credibility was maintained by allowing them the opportunity to provide written feedback to the initial results of this study. In the Results section of this chapter, I present the main themes of the results in relation to the raw data.

Dependability

The procedures of the raw data collection process and the data analysis stage of this study are described, including modifications I made and reasons for the changes so that others have adequate information to replicate the study as needed in the future to ensure the dependability of this study.

Conformability

For conformability the study followed a narrative analysis process guide by Ritchie, Lewis, Nichollas, and Ormston (2013), was followed by narrative methods can be reflected in real-world measures. Also in this study an incorporated member checks was performed by allowing participants to authorize or dispute initial findings and deliver additional feedback. Feedback from the participants confirmed and enriched the findings and impending implications of the study.

In this section of Chapter 4, a response to this study's two main research questions is provided. This response is organized by the main themes discovered: context, challenges, professional development, and trauma-based training a description of these themes to the raw data supporting them is provided.

Contexts

Part of the value of this study was obtaining a comprehensive picture of the context in which campus police officers respond to sexual assault and receive sexual assault response training. Participants shared which settings they encountered sexual assault response training and the techniques in which they trained. They also shared what led them to these settings, the reactions from the training, and the rewarding nature of the work they do.

Work settings. It is important to conceptualize the results with an understanding of the context. During data collection statistics were gathered from participants on their experience working with sexual assault survivors and what led them to that work. Table 2 presents a list of work settings of participants, roles played and services provided.

Table 3

Work Setting

Position	Setting	Role	Service
Police Officer	University	First responder	Patrol of Campus, incident responder, initial report writer
Detective	University	Investigator	Interview of survivor and suspects
Police Sergeant	University	Supervisor	Training, patrols, interviews
Captain	University	Supervisor	Command Staff

Reason. Two main reasons were found in the answers to the first research question; Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate trainings to assist a sexual assault victim One group of officers stated it was one of those required training we have to attend every so often. While other officers felt the training is beneficial in ensuring they can be the best officer for that student at that time in her/his life. Participant 7 discussed how the training was just that, training. Participants mentioned two critical themes for reasons why they attended sexual assault response training. The first theme mentioned was a promotion where 25% of participants felt attending sexual assault response training would help them move into a detective role within their department. The second theme mentioned was they were told to participate in the training. Twenty percent of the participants stated they were said to be a required sexual assault response training session.



Figure 3 Reason for attending training.

Participant 3 stated “now and then, we meet and discuss how to respond to sexual assaults.” Participant 3 continued by stating, “it is not brain surgery, we get the call and arrive at the scene and talk to the victim about what happened, then we file the report.”

Participant 20 said “having a personal experience of being a survivor of sexual assault, feels like it allows me as an officer the motivation to help survivors on my campus to have a better experience with law enforcement than what I had while attending college”. Participant 9 shared about how she was a survivor of a sexual assault while attending college and wished the cop that responded was better trained. She said, “he treated this case like my dog was missing.” “He didn't seem to care about me, or what happened, he was just going through the motions.” Participant 9 continued by saying “this is why survivors do not come forward and I want to make sure no one at the university I work at ever feels the way I did.”

Participant 20 stated:

“because I am a survivor, I had to learn the culture and learn a way to survive after the incident. I know how trauma affects your mental state and how hard it is to remember the facts in the proper timeline. I know you freak out and how you feel talking to a male officer who would rather not be talking to me at this moment. I know how it feels to be studying for a final a month or so later, and you re-live the trauma of being raped.”

“I experienced it myself and know how I would have liked to be treated by the police. I tell my story to everyone and feel that it helps our department when responding to these types of cases.” While learning about why campus law enforcement officers attended training, a theme appeared of officers discussing the need for more training. In Figure 4 it is shown that 55% of the participants felt the need for additional sexual assault response training.

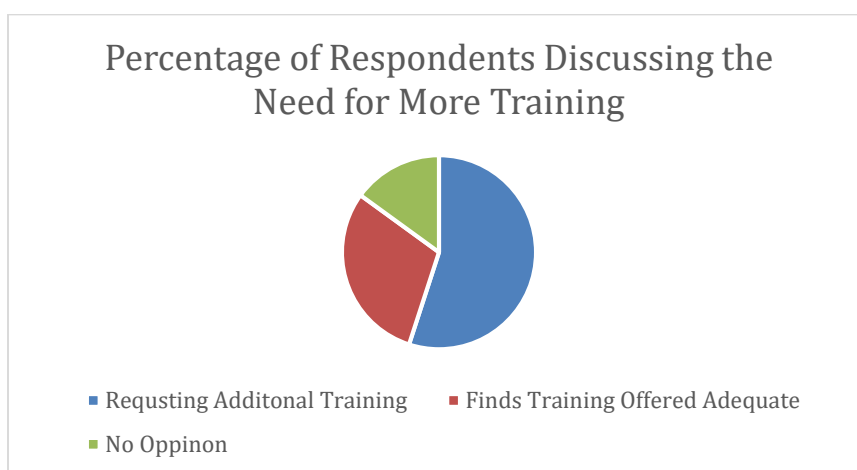


Figure 4 *Percentage of respondents discussing the need for more training.*

Rewards. Almost all of the participants spontaneously discussed the benefits of their department’s sexual assault training and what it gave them personally and professionally as campus law enforcement officers. The rewards of attending effective training included being able to sharpen interview skills, a better knowledge on trauma-based interviewing, and expanding competency to investigation work. These trainings humbled some of the participants as Participant 18 said “I didn’t know that I retraumatized victims by body language and how I asked questions”. Without effective training on how to respond to sexual assaults I would still be doing the same wrong approach.” Thirty percent of the study participants felt that their biggest reward of the training was having a better knowledge of sexual assaults and how trauma affects the survivor. In contrast, 25% felt the training could sharpen their interview skills was their best reward because they are better equipped to handle a trauma case in the future.



Figure 5 *Rewards of training.*

Reactions. Participants in this study shared ways they noticed their impact with survivors of sexual assaults changed after they attended effective response training. A10

year veteran officer stated he noticed that his approach has changed for the better after attending a trauma based training. Participant 18 stated that now his approach toward a survivor is a no threatening process and more of a gradual approach. Prior to the new training the participant stated we (the investigators) “would gather evidence about a sexual assault case, conduct a victim interview or two, and screen the case with the prosecutor .Participant 15 stated “were merely doing what we had always done. With the training we received we did the best we could with the facts and training we had at the time”.

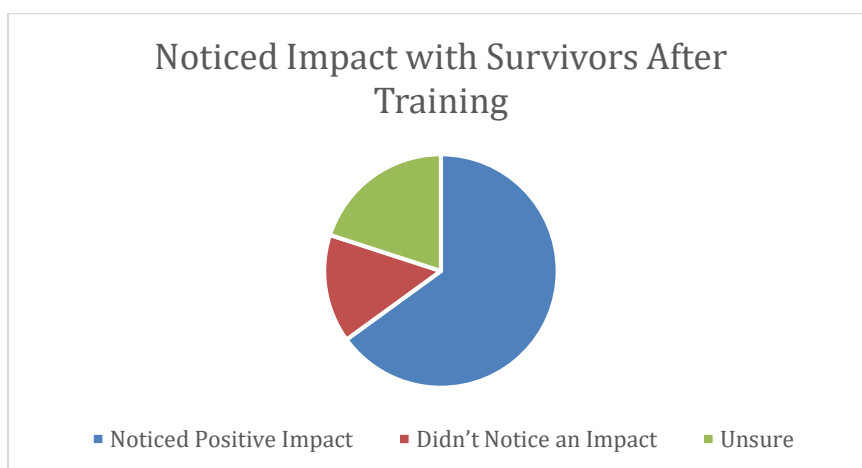


Figure 6 *65% of participants noticed impact with survivors after training.*

As outline in Figure 6, 65% of participants commented that they noticed a positive impact on survivors after attending sexual assault response training. This positive impact allowed them to conduct better interviews with survivors and conduct a better comprehensive investigation.

Participant 9 stated that “now we train together and attend sessions on the neurobiology of trauma.” Another participant stated he “felt bad” as he looked back on

how he would miss judge statements of survivors and quickly judging them as lying for not being able to provide simple and clear time lines of events. Participant 6 stated now that he understands how trauma affects a person, he conducts delayed interviews to allow the survivor time to understand what has happened.

Challenges. There were a number of challenges that participants shared spontaneously when discussing attending sexual assault response training.



Figure 7 *Challenges*

Time. Time was the number one key factor as to why officers were not attending training. Time was a factor in two ways. Participant 17 stated it was hard for our chief to justify the time away from work training. Some of the trauma-based training sessions are a week away from patrols on campus, which can be hard to explain to administration. The second factor is the officer's personal time. Participant 11 stated they could use their off time or vacation time to attend training, but they feel they shouldn't have use their vacation time or non-working time for development.

Budget. From talking with participants, their departments are experiencing budget cuts and the first thing that goes is personal development.

Cost. Participants stated the cost of training is expensive, and they would attend more training if they could afford it. A training officer noted that the average cost is \$2,000 per officer to send to a trauma-based interviewing class.

Limited training opportunities. Participants described limited training opportunities for sexual assault response in their region. One participant stated they try to stay on top of the topic by attending free webinars, but it is not the same as attending a conference with peers.

Sexual assault assumptions/not needed. Several participants felt no additional training was needed as it was related to responding to sexual assaults. These participants felt they learned what they needed in the police academy and didn't need to spend any more time on the subject matter.

Personal bias/will not make a difference. This response from participants stated they didn't feel training would help officers when responding to sexual assaults. These participants felt that officers will still have bias influence how they interact with survivors, and no amount of training would change that.

Not part of career development. One of the participants informed me that since their end goal is not to become a detective, they didn't see the need to use their training time on sexual assault response. They felt their time was better to spend on learning more about drugs and alcohol investigations.

Competency

One of the main questions of this study was what strategies are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma? The two main themes of knowledge and skills arose as making up competency when reviewing strategies utilized by departments to ensure the officers are ensuring survivors are comfortable to discuss the events.

Knowledge. Participants shared what information would be necessary to respond to sexual assaults on college campus. Importance areas of knowledge include an understanding of the events, investigation skills, and communication skills. Training officers need to be able to instruct their officers to have an understanding of the different events that take place during a sexual assault as well as a knowledge of how those events cause trauma for the survivors and where no one's trauma looks or acts the same. Twenty-five percent of officers interviewed took away the knowledge to utilize advocates with survivors to make them feel more comfortable during an investigation. Whereas 20% of the participants used the experience, they learned about trauma to allow the survivor to wait a whole 24 hours before conducting an interview. One of the participants stated there needs to be specific focused training for campus law enforcement officers to gain a trauma based understanding of sexual assault; that way they can put aside their myths and beliefs of what a sexual assault survivor is and what they look like. Others in the study described learning needs to be more than what to say to a survivor, but how they can support the survivor and allow them to open up at their own pace. One participant added the effective training on their campus would include training for the

officer to have the knowledge of services that are available on campus for survivors. They added we know we have advocates on campus but we as the front line officers should be aware of the different campus services provided to survivors. Participant 6 added when I worked for another department we provided cards with phone numbers we could provide but currently we do not provide that at this department.

Skills. Sexual assaults on college or university campuses are often handled differently from those committed on non campus areas, primarily because of federal law and how students can report a case of sexual assault. Since this is different, that causes the need for officers to be better trained. Twenty percent of the participants utilized a skill of delayed interviews in a comfortable room at the station instead of interviewing the survivors in the field or a standard interview room.

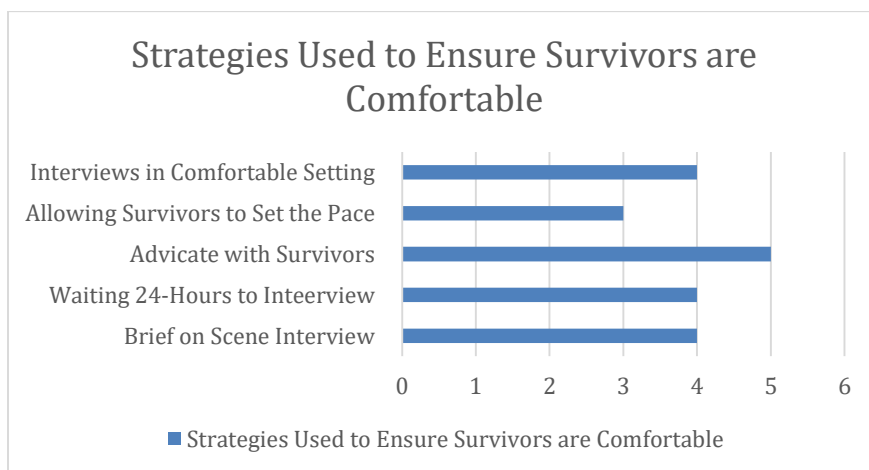


Figure 8 *Strategies used to ensure survivors are comfortable.*

One participant stated they have to respond to incidents of sexual assaults that were reported to any responsible person affiliated with the university, not just the cases called into the police department. She added this is where our training needs some

improvement. Some officers do not take these cases as serious as those reported directly to the police. Participant 9 stated they been asked by the university to investigate a case of sexual assault where the survivor says anonymously, meaning survivor or the perpetrator is not identified. The participant stated they had received rape kits from the university hospital through anonymous reports, and she said they hold onto the kits in case the victim later decides that she/he wants to come forward and report the sexual assault to campus law enforcement. Participant 9 stated this is important to know because these incidents cause an officer to use a different set of skills when responding to these types of incidents. Officers who do not work on college campuses do not have to utilize these skills and their important skills that need to be thought through personal development for college cops. As shown in Figure 8, overall, 80% percent of participants surveyed in this study mentioned that they utilized some part of the sexual assault training they received when responding to calls on their campus.

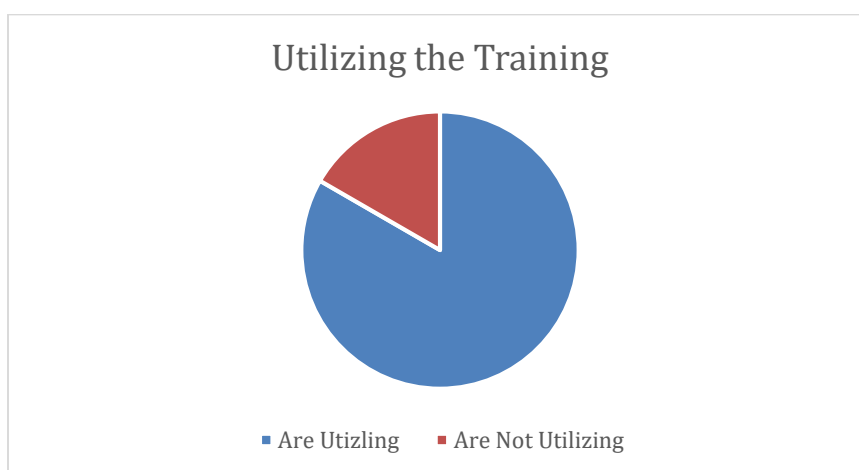


Figure 9 *Utilizing the training.*

Another skill that training officers feel needs to be covered in responding to sexual assaults on a college campus is the art of asking questions. A participant stated you would not think you need to tell cops they need to learn to ask questions, but in some cases, you do. This participant noted that some responding officers had used wrong wording of questions which has caused the survivor to either be retraumatized or they end up not wanting to work with law enforcement. He added that their in-house training focuses on trauma-based interview questions, meaning we are taught to ask detailed questions and explain why we ask these questions, which in turn allows us to build a rapport with the survivor.

Furthermore, Participant 8 added our training teaches our officers to alert the survivors this interview could take time and allow them to take as many breaks as needed. They start the interview by engrossing on relevant topics, collecting background information, and asking about issues they care about. The skills we are teaching has our officers utilizing open-ended questions with an empathetic tone, and should never be in an accusatory style, the participant said. Victim disclosure comes over time because victims are still processing, and learning these skills will allow for an effective response to a sexual assault on our campus. Which, in turn, will allow the survivor to feel at ease and willing to tell their story, which will enable us to catch the criminal.

Advocating for the survivor is a skill that campus law enforcement officers stated is a little different than a cop working for a city department. Participant 17 said that we have an ethical duty to ensure our students are safe on campus and receive the support they need. If we do not advocate for them to seek help or accommodations this will not

happen. Just like if we do not advocate for training from our department we will not be able to assist our community.

Summary

Through the study the two main research questions were answered. Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim, which can be answered when we review the knowledge and skills that arose as making up the competency of a campus law enforcement officer. The experience involved understanding of the events, investigation skills, and communication skills as how it relates to responding to a sexual assault investigation. Skills included better trauma-based interviewing of survivors. In the following chapter, a discussion of the interpretations and potential implications of these results for campus law enforcement training as it relates to responding to sexual assaults is provided.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Using the theory of andragogy, I explored campus law enforcement's sexual assault response training in this study. This approach allowed for the participants' perspectives, conceptualizations, and experiences to be discovered and pulled from the larger social learning theory aptitude when training campus law enforcement officers. To maintain the trustworthiness of the study, I followed Lincoln and Guba's (2016) recommendations for quality in qualitative research and Creswell's (2017) suggestions concerning the narrative analysis methodology.

The understanding of competence that arose from the study included a set of knowledge and skills. The concept of knowledge involved areas of knowledge of the events, investigation skills, and communication skills while skills included response, the art of asking questions, trauma-based interview skills, utilizing open-ended questions with an empathetic tone, and advocating for the survivor. Many of the participants of this study felt that additional knowledge and skills were needed beyond the basic training that is required of all campus law enforcement officers to become competent in responding to sexual assaults on a college campus.

Interpretation of the Findings

In numerous ways, the findings of this study confirm and extend the knowledge in the literature described in Chapter 2. In this section, I describe how the findings fit in with the larger body of knowledge and existing theories.

Campus Law Enforcement Officers

The findings of this study confirmed what the literature presents as the challenges facing campus law enforcement officers. Campus police have a different competence to work with college students than do their city counterparts. Some of the variances between campus law enforcement and city police are that campus police focus on the safeguarding of the students, staff, and buildings. Campus police departments must also comply with Title IX and the Clery Act. Campus officers' law enforcement investigations often look different than the traditional police officers' investigation process, specifically, in the diverse training that a campus officer must undertake to respond effectively to a sexual assault on a college campus.

Officer Training

The findings also confirmed the many ways the training officers receive may fall short in preparing the officers to respond to sexual assaults on college campuses. During interviews, participants showed a mix of results when asked about the need for effective response training. Some of the participants felt the need for the training, stating they want to be able to improve their responses. Other officers felt that the training is only needed for investigators or those who will focus on sexual assaults but that not every officer needs the training. Personal experiences also affect how officers felt regarding the need for training.

The findings added to the understating of how important trauma-based interviewing is as a tool for responding officers to use. This type of training helps to minimize any would-be trauma to the victim, capitalize on information obtained from

victims and witnesses, extract contamination of the victim's memory of the apparent event(s), and uphold the integrity of the investigative process.

The results also showed how personal bias affects the officer when responding to sexual assault calls. Officers in the study admitted to prejudging events prior to interviewing the survivors and that they do not question if a vehicle is stolen from a college student, but some still do question if a sexual assault really happened. The findings confirm the need for trauma-based training for campus law enforcement officers responding to sexual assaults on college campuses.

Primary Research Questions

The first research question was: Are campus law enforcement officers receiving adequate training to assist a sexual assault victim? Law enforcement training provides a wide array of basic and advanced training to ensure both new and current officers are able to respond to calls for services both safely and effectively. The findings for this research question revealed that 75% of the participants felt their sexual assault response training was favorable in ensuring they can be the best officer for that student at that time in her/his life. The findings from this research question are consistent with Campbell and Patterson (2011) who suggested that training first responding police officers in the elements of sexual assault offenses will allow the officers to better identify the situations and meet the criteria of responding to a sexual assault even when they lack the details of fear or force.

Furthermore, officers who participated in this study also shared that after trauma-based training was introduced, they noticed their impact on survivors changed and they

felt better equipped to respond to these types of cases. These findings are consistent with those of both Darden (2014) and Henschke (2013).

The second research question was: What strategies are being used by training officers to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma? The findings in the study showed that training officers believed that when providing their officers trauma-based interviewing skills they were more able to ensure survivors of sexual assault were comfortable enough to discuss the events of the trauma. Since trauma often causes a loss of control and power for the survivor, a participant pointed out that interviews with the survivor should focus on empowering the interviewee. This can be accomplished an officer by taking their time and not rushing the survivor through the process, allowing the survivor to take breaks, and asking open-ended questions to make the survivor more comfortable during the process.

Another way to make the survivor feel comfortable during the process that was talked about by several different participants was that of asking the survivor to tell the investigator more details. It is believed that asking the survivor to focus on aspects that are vital to the investigation can build a bigger picture and allow them to talk about whatever they want to because it is hard for a trauma survivor to stay focused.

Interpretations of the Findings Related to the Subquestions

There were two subquestions related to the first primary research question of this study. The first subquestion was: What are the major strengths of a department's sexual assault training? Eighty-five percent of the participants indicated that the trauma-informed interviewing sessions they attended in the past were significant strengths of

their department's sexual assault training. The trauma-informed survivor interviewing allows for a nonthreatening approach to a survivor that will enable them to have some control of the situation still. One of the participants stated, "trauma-informed techniques aren't about getting the narrative sequence of events; it's just about what victims remember." After attending trauma informed training one participant reported that "they have seen a noteworthy increase in both the number of trauma-related cases being investigated and the number of cases that have been referred for prosecution."

These findings are also consistent with Klinger et al.'s (2015) social theory as it is applied to police work. Klinger et al. showed how the social theory could be used to explain to the public how the police go about their work and help to guide the actions of police departments and the officers on the street. By utilizing trauma-informed interviewing techniques, campus law enforcement officers are obtaining the best information from a survivor and minimizing retraumatization during this process. By being less traumatized during the process, a survivor is more likely to work with the officer and let others know that the process was handled properly (McMahon et al., 2015). Using trauma-based interviewing techniques shows the public how invested the officer is in this case.

The second subquestion was: What are the major weaknesses of their department's sexual assault training? Two key words appeared most often when reviewing and analyzing the data in response to this subquestion: time and money. A majority of officers found it difficult to attend training outside of work due to needing to use vacation time to participate in a conference or the lack of training in the area. Many

departments have a small budget, so it is not practical to send different officers to different high-cost training sessions instead of handling the training in-house. Participants stated there is in-house training, but they would have liked to attend other training on the topic.

Interpretations of Other Findings

In this study, I was also interested in determining whether officers are receiving practical sexual assault response training and how that training influenced the campus law enforcement culture and perceptions toward sexual assault in general.

Use of a narrative analysis design served as a guide that allowed me to focus on the lives of the participants of this study through a narrative structure that allowed for stories to make up a series of discrete chronological segments that help to describe events related to sexual assaults and how the officers felt but not focus on their emotions (see Kleres, 2011). My use of open-ended interview questions allowed the participants to adequately convey their experiences and viewpoints on the topic (see Creswell, 2017).

The views of participants toward sexual assault who took part in trauma-based interviewing were similar to each other in that they went into every case with an open mind and discussed how they believed survivors. One participant stated after he had attended trauma-based training that he realized that some of his previous encounters with survivors could be looked at as victim blaming. The participant said,

if a student told me her bicycle was stolen from campus, I would not be all judgmental and tell her was asking for it to be stolen. Whereas, on sexual assault cases, I asked how she was dressed and if she had been sexually active.

The officer added that the old way is not the way they would want their daughter treated.

Analyzing the data from the participant interviews showed that officers who attend trauma-based training towards sexual assaults have more of an open mind when they respond to these types of cases. The training allows them to eliminate personal bias toward rape cases as well. On the other hand, the data collected during this study also shows that officers who have yet to attend any trauma-based training still show some personal bias toward sexual assault survivors.

Table 4

Personal Bias

Participant	Attended trauma-based training	Personal bias	Statement
Participant 1	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 2	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 3	No	Yes	Questioned how she was dressed
Participant 4	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 5	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 6	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 7	No	Yes	cried rape to get back at ex
Participant 8	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 9	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 10	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 11	No	Yes	When it takes them so long to report rapes it is hard to tell if they are telling the truth
Participant 12	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 13	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 14	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 15	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 16	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 17	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 187	Yes	None	N/A
Participant 19	No	Yes	The last case I responded to she told me she was drinking so I don't know how she knew she was raped
Participant 20	Yes	None	N/A

Limitations

A primary limitation of the study was that the participants all worked at the same university police department. I contacted other universities but decided against allowing their officers to take part in this study. This study also suffers from low external validity, which is often inherent in qualitative research. Barratt, Ferris, and Lenton (2014) defined external validity as the weight of applying the deductions of a scientific study outside the context of that study; meaning, that it is the extent to which the results of a study can be widespread to and across other situations.

While saturation was attained in terms of identifying themes relating to this study, data were collected from a nonprobability sample of only 20 campus law enforcement officers. Because of this sample, the findings are not generalizable to campus law enforcement officers outside the experiences of the sample. It is also probable that only officers that had positive or negative views or concerns about sexual assault response training volunteered to participate, which could have skewed the results. However, the campus law enforcement officers who took part in the study were qualified to discuss issues relating to campus law enforcement sexual assault response training due to their first-hand knowledge of the topic from working as law enforcement officers on a college campus. Therefore, each participant's experience delivered a richer understanding of this topic.

Recommendations

The recommendations for future research come directly from the strengths and limitations of the study. Future researchers should target the perspectives of campus law

enforcement officers working at various universities instead of just one. This will allow for a more complete and diverse picture of how practical sexual assault response training is conducted at different universities. A second recommendation for future research would be to conduct a qualitative inquiry into trauma-informed sexual assault investigation. This would allow future investigators to identify the strengths, limitations, and effectiveness of this type of training as it relates to officers responding to sexual assaults on a college campus. Lastly, I recommend a study be conducted in which sexual assault survivors are interviewed to determine how the trauma-informed investigation training has improved survivor interactions with police.

Implications

Impacts for Positive Social Change

With this research study, notable implications for positive social change presented itself within the study. Notably, the effectiveness of sexual assault response training and how this improves the responding officers interacting with survivors. The findings confirmed that campus law enforcement officers acknowledge the existence of proper trauma-based training and how it improves investigations with survivors.

The findings also showed that attending trauma-based sexual assault response training was able to hold at bay their bias toward sexual assault cases. These officers now understand how the brain works after trauma and allows them to know survivors are not lying to them during questioning when they do not remember or give broken statements, but need time to remember. As a survivor is more relaxed in communicating with the police, more answers will come, and more cases will be prosecuted. If more campus law

enforcement agencies moved toward this effective training method, this would cause a substantial social change on college campuses across the United States.

With officers attending trauma-based training and utilizing these skills when responding to sexual assault cases, those survivors would be more trusting and comfortable with campus police. This would cause an increase in students reporting sexual assaults and receiving the accommodations and assistance they truly need.

Theoretical Implications

The conceptualization described by Darden (2014) theory of andragogy to where learning is a development central to our human behavior and Klinger et al., (2015) social theory as it is applied to police work appeared to encompass the theory attained in this study. However, this study's findings illustrated exactly what knowledge is needed to ensure campus law enforcement officers receive effective sexual assault response training. The set of competencies puts the theories to work in practice and makes it relevant for officers and training officers.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore how campus law enforcement officers perceived their department's response training as it related to sexual assaults on campus. The discoveries add to the current body of literature regarding campus sexual assaults, police officer trainings, and officer bias toward sexual assaults by illustrating what competency looks like when responding to sexual assaults in the practice and how officers have developed the skills and knowledge to be effective in working on a college campus. This information can guide the training and education of future campus police

officers so that sexual assault survivors have access to effective services and accommodations in their time of need. Further research can expand on this study to include perspectives of sexual assault survivors and target the perspectives of campus law enforcement officers working at various universities instead of just one.

Officers who have gone through effective training commented about how different and better their investigations have turned out. Also, they stated that by completing the training, they noticed that survivors were more willing to go through the process, which leads to more sexual assault cases being prosecuted. One thing that showed up in the study that was not planned for was those officers who completed trauma-based response training showed less personal bias toward rape cases and survivors in general. For this reason, campus police administrators must focus on promoting and implementing effective trauma-based sexual assault response training programs. Based on this study, emphasis should be focused on enhancing the officers understanding of trauma and how to respond effectively when interviewing survivors of sexual assaults

References

- al Shaibah, A. (2015). Sexual assault prevention and response report and recommendations. Retrieved from <https://www.queens.ca/studentaffaris>.
- Barratt, M. J., Ferris, J. A., & Lenton, S. (2014). Hidden populations, online purposive sampling, and external validity. *Field Methods*, 27(1), 3-21.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822x14526838>
- Biden, J. (2017). The White House Taskforce to Protect Students from Sexual Assault. Retrieved from <https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/whitehouse.gov/Files/images/documents/1.4.17VAW%20Event.Guide%20for%20College%20Presidents>
- Birzer, M. L., & Roberson, C. (2013). *Policing today and tomorrow* (2nd ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Brewer, N., Thomas, K.A., & Higdon, J. (2018). Intimate partner violence, health, Sexuality, and academic performance among a national sample of undergraduates. *Journal of American College Health*, 66(7), 683-692.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2018.1454929>
- Briones-Robinson, R., Powers, R. A., & Socia, K. M. (2016). Sexual orientation bias crimes. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 43(12), 1688-1809.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854816660583>
- Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2018). Campus law enforcement agencies.
- Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and support for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(2), 217-230. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.38.2.217>

- Campbell, R., & Patterson, D. (2011). Services for victims of sexual violence. In *Violence against women and children, Vol. 2: Navigation solutions* (pp. 95–114).
<https://doi.org/10.1037/12308-005>
- Carter, N., Byant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J., & Neville, A. J. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 41*(5), 545-547.
<https://doi.org/10.1188/14/14.onf.545-547>
- Castleberry, A. (2014). NVivo 10 [software program]. Version 10. QSR International. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 78*(1), 25.
<https://doi.org/10.88/ajpe78125>
- Chemaly, S. (2016). How police still fail rape victims. *Rolling Stone*. Retrieved from
<https://www.rollingstone.com/culture/culture-features/how-police-still-fail-rape-victims-97782/>
- Clandinin, J. D. (2006). *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology* (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Ltd.
- Cranney, S. (2014). The relationship between sexual victimization and year in school in U.S. colleges. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 30*(17), 3133-3145.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514554425>
- Creswell, J. W. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry & research design. Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications
- Darden, D. C. (2014). Relevance of the Knowles theory in distance education. *Creative Education, 05*(10), 809-812. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2014.510094>

- Etter, G. W., & Griffen, R. (2011). In-service training of older law enforcement officers an andragogical argument. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *34*(2), 233-245. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13639511111148861>
- Evans, I. (2017). Training police to effectively investigate sexual assault cases. *BU Today*.
- Fisher, B., & Cullen, F. (2013). *Campus sexual assault: Suggested policies and procedures*. Washington DC: American University Association of Professors.
- Flick, U. (2018). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data collection* (First ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Fusch, P., Ness, I., & Lawrence, R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*.
- Giovengo, R. D. (2019). *Training law enforcement officers* (1st ed.) Boca Raton, FL: Routledge.
- Guetteram, T. C., Feters, M. D., & Creswell, J. W. (2015). Integrating quantitative and qualitative results in health science mixed methods research through joint displays. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, *13*(6), 554-561. <https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.1865>
- Hagaman, A. K., & Wutich, A. (2016). How many interviews are enough to identify metathemes in multisited and cross-cultural research? Another Perspective on

Guest, Bunce, and Jonson's (2006) Landmark Study. *Field Methods*, 29(1), 23-41.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822x16640447>

Harrington, A. (2005). *What is social theory?* Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Henschke, J. (2013). A 2013 update of research in andragogy has revealed some new dimensions and another era as we looked toward andragogy's future. Retrieved from

https://trace.tennessee.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1414&context=utk_IE-browseall

Hess-Biber, S. N. (2017). *The practice of qualitative research engaging students in research process* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Ltd.

Human Right Watch. (2013). Improving police response to sexual assault. Retrieved from https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/improvingSAIvest_0.pdf

International Association of Chiefs of Police. (2017). Police response to violence against women. Retrieved from <https://www.theiacp.org/projects/police-response-to-violence-against-women-vaw>

International Association of Chiefs of Police. (2018). Trauma informed sexual assault investigation trainings. Retrieved from <https://www.theiacp.org/projects/trauma-Informed-sexual-assault-investigation-training>.

Johnson, M. D., & Bradbury, T. N. (2015). Contributions of social learning theory to the promotion of healthy relationships: asset or liability? *Journal of Family Theory & Review*, 7(1), 13-27. <https://doi.org/10.1111.jftr.12057>

- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen, L. B. (2016). *Educational research: Quantitative qualitative, and mixed approaches* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Kalliko, H., Pietila, A. M., Johnson, M., & Kagasniemi, M. (2016). Systematic methodological review: Developing a framework for qualitative semi-structured interview guide. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 72(12), 2954-2965.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.13031>
- Kanin, E. J. (1967). An examination of sexual aggression as response to sexual frustration. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 29(3), 428.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/349577>
- Kaukinen, C. (2014). Dating violence among college students. *trauma, violence, & abuse*, 15(4), 283-296. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014521321>
- Kinney, L. M., Burns, E. J., Bradley, P., Datzler, J., & Weist, M. D. (2007). Sexual assault training of law enforcement officers. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 18(3), 81-100. https://doi.org/10.1300/j-12v18n03_04
- Kleres, J. (2011). Emotions and narrative analysis: A methodological approach. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behavior*, 41(2), 182-202. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5914.2010.00451.x>
- Klinger., D., Rosenfeld, R., Isom, D., & Decker, M. (2015). Race, rime, and the micro-ecology of deadly force. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 15(1), 193-222.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1745-9133.12174>

- Knowles, M. S. (1984). *Andragogy in action: Applying modern principles of adult learning* (The Jossey-Bass Management Series; 1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Koss, M. P., Wilgus, J. K., & Williamsen, K. M. (2014). Campus Sexual Misconduct. Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, *15*(3), 242-257.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014521500>
- Krebs, C. P., Lindquist, C. H., Berzofsky, M. Shook, B., Peterson, K., & Planty, M. (2016). Campus climate survey validations study: Final technical report. Washington, DC: Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2016). *The constructivist credo*. Abingdon, United Kingdom: Taylor & Francis.
- Lonsway, K. A., Welch, S., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (2001). Police Training in Sexual Assault Response. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *28*(6), 695-720.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/009385480102800602>
- Lune, H., & Berg, B. (2017). *Qualitative research methods for social sciences*. New York, NY: Pearson.
- Martin, S. L., Fisher, B., Warner, T. D., Krebs, C., & Lindquist, C. H. (2011). Women's sexual orientations and their experiences of sexual assault before and during university. *Women's Health Issues*, *21*(3), 199-205.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.whi.2010.12.002>

- McMahon, S., & Banyard, V. (2012). When can I help? A conceptual framework for the prevention of sexual violence through bystander intervention. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 13*(1), 3-14. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838011426015>
- McMahon, S., Palmer, J. E., Banyard, V., Murphy, M., & Giduca, C. A. (2015). Measuring bystander behavior in the context of sexual violence prevention: Lessons learned and new directions. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 32*(16), 23396-2418. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260515501979>
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, M. A., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- National Sexual Violence Resource Center. (2018). Sexual assault response team. Retrieved from <https://www.nsvrc.org/projects/>
- Newman, C. (2018). Hiring female police officers helps women report violence, sexual Assault, study finds. University of Virginia.
- Page, A.D. (2008). Judging women and defining crime: police officers attitudes towards women and rape. *Sociological Spectrum, 28*(4), 389-411. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02732170802053621>
- Patten, R., Alward, L., Thomas, M., & Wada, J. (2016). The continued marginalization of campus police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 39*(3), 566-583. <https://doi.org/10.1108/pijpsm-04-2016-0055>

- Petterson, D. (2010). The linkage between secondary victimization by law enforcement and rape case outcomes. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *26*(2), 328-374.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260510362889>
- Ramsey, C. (2013). Improving the police response to sexual assault. *Police Executive Research Forum*.
- Reingold, R. B., & Gostin, L. O. (2015). Sexual assaults among university students. *The Journal of American Medical Association*, *314*(5), 447.
<https://doi.org/10.1001/jam.2015.6330>
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C., & Ormston, R. (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Sabina, C. & Ho, L. Y. (2014). Campus and college victim responses to sexual assault and dating violence. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, *15*(3), 201-226.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838014521322>
- San Diego Police Department. (n.d.) Sexual assault response team (SART). Retrieved from www.sandiegopolicedepartment.gov
- Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Watefield, J., Bartlam, B., & Jinks, C. (2017). Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality & Quantity*, *52*(4), 1893-1907.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s1135-017-0547-8>

- Sheridan, T., & Evans, D. D. (2019). Alcohol use and sexual assault among college students. *Advanced Emergency Nursing Journal*, *4*(1), 2-9.
<https://doi.org/10.1097/tme.0000000000000233>
- Shipton, B. (2011). Expanding police educators' understanding of teaching are they as learner-centered as they think? *Journal of Learning Design*, *4*(2), 1-19.
<https://doi.org/10.5204/jld.v4i2.71>
- Shoenbill, K., Song, Y., Cobb, N.L., Drezner, M.K., & Mendonca, E.A. (2017). IRA process improvements: A machine learning analysis. *Journal of Clinical and Translational Science*, *1*(3), 176-183. <https://doi.org/10.1017//cts.2016.25>
- Starks, H., & Trinidad, S. (2007). Choose your method: A comparison of phenomenology, discourse Analysis, and grounded theory. *Qualitative Health Research*, *17*(10), 1372-1380. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732307307031>
- Stein, J. (2016). Basic law enforcement training. *Enforcement Training*, 100-150
- Sweeney, A., & Taggart, D. (2018). (Mis)understanding trauma-informed approaches in mental health. *Journal of Mental Health*, *27*(5), 383-387.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09638237.2018.1520973>
- University of Michigan. (2016). The University of Michigan's 2015 Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Misconduct. Retrieved
<https://publicaffairs.vpcomm.umich.edu/wpcontent/uplads/sites/19/2015/04/complete-survey-reults.pdf>
- U.S. Department of Justice. (2018). Sexual assault. Retrieved from
<https://www.justice.gov/ovw/sexual-assault>.

- Thorne, S. (2016). *Interpretive description: qualitative research for applied practice* (Developing Qualitative Inquiry Book 2; 2nd ed.) New York, NY: Routledge
- Trochim, W. M. K., & Donnelly, J. P. (2008). *The research methods knowledge base* (3rd ed.). Mason, OH: Atomic Dog.
- Wada, J. C., Patten, R., & Candela, K. (2010). Betwixt and between: The perceived legitimacy of campus police. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 33(1), 114-131.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/13639511011020629>
- Webb, K. (2017) Rape myths & facts. Washington University in St. Louis. Retrieved From <https://rsvpcenter.wustl.edu/learn-more/rape-muths-facts/>
- Wells, K. (2011). *Narrative Inquiry*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Winn, Z. (2018). 5 ways campus police officers and traditional police officers differ. *Campus Safety Magazine*.
- Wolitzky-Taylor, K. B., Resnick, H. S., Amstadter, A. B., McCauley, J. L., Ruggiero, K. J., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (2011). Reporting rape in national sample of college women. *Journal of American College Health*, 59(7), 582-587.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2010.515643>

Appendix: Interview Questions

- When was your last training session?
- When was your last training session regarding sexual assault response?
- How often do you have training sessions?
- How often do you have training sessions regarding sexual assault response?
- Describe to me the last training session you had regarding sexual assault response?
- What type of training opportunity is provided for you?
- Describe to me how your department utilized trauma based training?
- To what extent do you consider yourself prepared to assist a sexual assault survivor on your campus?
- Can you talk about whether or not you feel your department prepares its officers to respond to sexual assault cases?
- Can you talk about your thoughts as it relates to practical sexual assault response training?
- Do you have some thoughts on how your department as a whole responds to sexual assaults on campus?
- What are the major strengths of a department's sexual assault training? What are the significant weaknesses?
- What strategies are being used by your department to ensure survivors of sexual assault are comfortable to discuss the events of the trauma?
- Describe to me how you deal with bias when responding to a sexual assault case?
- Describe to me about how you go about receiving training?
- What are the barriers to receiving sexual assault response training?
- What are the barriers in responding to sexual assaults on your campus?
- Describe your department's method for conducting sexual assault response training?
- How do you feel about the institution's support of the department in providing sexual assault response training? Please explain your answer.
- How would you describe your familiarity with trauma-based training?
- How would you describe your familiarity with making contact with a survivor?
- In what way did your education or police academy time provide you with adequate preparedness to respond to a sexual assault call?

- Describe to me the communication that occurs between you and a survivor when you respond to a sexual assault case?
- Please indicate the number of hours of direct trauma-based training you receive in a given year?
- Explain the department's policy regarding sexual assault response?
- Explain the department's policy regarding trauma-based training?