2018

# Small College Title IX Coordinators' Response to Male Complainants

David Scott Chambers
*Walden University*

# <u>Walden University</u>

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

David Scott Chambers

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. Tina Jaeckle, Committee Chairperson,
Social Work Faculty

Dr. Barbara Benoliel, Committee Member,
Social Work Faculty

Dr. Andrew Carpenter, University Reviewer,
Social Work Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2018

Abstract

Small College Title IX Coordinators' Response to Male Complainants

by

David Scott Chambers

MA, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 2002

BS, Millsaps College, 2000

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Human and Social Services

Walden University

August 2018

Abstract

Male survivors of sexual assault face increased mental health concerns due to commonly held beliefs and lack of quality services. College and university administrators, under guidance provided by the Office for Civil Rights and the Department of Education, must respond to all incidents of sexual misconduct, no matter the gender identity of the complainant or respondent. The purpose of this multiple case study was to investigate how the Title IX Coordinators at small colleges understand and implement governmental guidelines to decrease the secondary victimization experienced by male survivors by analyzing current policies and programs. Critical theory provided the conceptual framework for the study. The participants were 4 Title IX Coordinators employed by small colleges. Two participants were selected from a list of schools under investigation by the Office for Civil Rights and two from a random selection of all small colleges in the United States. Data collection occurred through semistructured interviews with Title IX Coordinators and a review of services provided to survivors of sexual assault. Analysis of the data included cross-case synthesis to identify emergent themes. Participants focused on the equality of services provided to all survivors; however, more focus should be placed on equity in services to overcome the oppression facing male survivors. Training involving the collegiate and surrounding communities may achieve the social change needed to support male survivors of sexual assault. Title IX Coordinators may act as catalysts of social change that begins on campus and expands to the surrounding community.

Small College Title IX Coordinators' Response to Male Complainants

by

David Scott Chambers

MA, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, 2002

BS, Millsaps College, 2000

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Human and Social Services

Walden University

August 2018

## Dedication

I dedicate this work to the silent survivors of sexual assault.

Acknowledgments

The doctoral process, and especially writing this dissertation, was one of the most challenging experiences of my life. My friends, family, and partner, Geraldo, gave me the emotional support and loving guidance to help me through the process. The support of my friend Sabrina was invaluable, from the beginning of my master's degree through the completion of my dissertation. My committee members, Dr. Jaeckle and Dr. Benoliel, provided the guidance and expertise to help challenge me beyond what I thought I was capable. Their guidance provided me the support needed to complete this achievement.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Survivors significantly underreport incidents of sexual assault to law enforcement agencies and other support services, yet researchers have found that as much as a third of the population experiences sexual assault in a lifetime (Busch-Armendariz, Olaya-Rodriguez, Kammer-Kerwick, Wachter, & Sulley, 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien, Keith, & Shoemaker, 2015; Turchik, 2012). Bolger (2016) found that for students, the experience of sexual assault was linked to a decrease in grade point average and other negative effects on the college experience. Male survivors of sexual assault experience additional mental and physical health concerns, including posttraumatic stress disorder (Bell, Turchik, & Karpenko, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015); however, researchers have reported a lack of services provided by colleges and universities to meet the specific needs of male survivors (Allen, Ridgeway, & Swan, 2015; Pinter, 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Campbell (2005) found that the lack of needed services for survivors of sexual assault leads to increased secondary victimization. Additionally, professionals' negative responses based on social norms and acceptance of rape myths may increase the secondary victimization experienced by survivors (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Hung, 2013). Department of Education (DOE) guidelines require college and university administrators to create policies and educational programs to prevent and respond to incidents of sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972 (Title IX) and the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) provide guidance related to prevention of and response to sexual misconduct within educational

institutions (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). Small- and medium-sized institutions of higher education struggle with implementing the requirements of Title IX and the OCR (Paul, 2016).

The current study explored the understanding and implementation of policies and the provision of services by administrators at small colleges in relation to male survivors of sexual misconduct. I used critical theory to examine the social norms present on college campuses that perpetuate the oppression of male victims and lead to survivors experiencing secondary victimization. The study provides information to college administrators on how to implement comprehensive services for male survivors to close gaps in services that can lead to secondary victimization.

Researchers have found that male survivors report incidents of sexual assault less often than female survivors due to barriers of social norms and belief in male rape myths (Allen et al., 2015; Artime, McCallum, & Peterson, 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). The current study has potential to create social change on two levels. Government officials have highlighted significant concerns related to sexual misconduct on college campuses and have addressed how institutions' staff must respond to decrease the effects of such misconduct on students and the community (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). My primary social-change goal in conducting this study was to support institutions in providing appropriate responses to male survivors of sexual misconduct attending small colleges, thereby helping the administration to limit secondary victimization and to improve the long-term effects of sexual misconduct (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja,

2005; Hung, 2013). This study also brings attention to the concerns facing male survivors and provides a better understanding of the societal barriers that male victims of sexual misconduct on college campuses experience.

Chapter 1 provides background information for the study. I identify the purpose and research question for the study and provide details of critical theory (Carr, 2000; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015), which was the conceptual framework for the study. Additionally, I provide study-related terms and state the significance of the research. Finally, I state the study's assumptions, limitations, and delimitations.

## Background

Sexual assault is a traumatic event that leaves victims with ongoing and long-term mental and physical health concerns (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Aronowitz, 2014; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Novkov, 2016). Although there is no common definition of sexual assault, common elements that are present across definitions include a sexual act, the concept of consent, and the gender of the individuals involved (Aronowitz, Lambert, & Davidoff, 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cook, Morisky, Williams, Ford, & Gee, 2016; DeMatteo, Galloway, Arnold, & Patel, 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016a). Similar to the lack of a precise definition of sexual assault, researchers vary on the prevalence of sexual assault incidents (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012; Cook et al.,

2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Flack et al., 2016; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Hackman, 2015; Kimble, Flack, & Burbridge, 2013; C. Murphy, 2015 Jun 18). Busch-Armendariz et al. (2015) found that 33.2% of Texans experienced some form of sexual violence in their lifetime. Cantor et al. (2015) reported the results of a study including 150,072 students from 27 colleges and universities and found that 11.7% of the sample had experienced unwanted sexual encounters since entering college.

Male survivors experienced additional struggles after a sexual assault when compared to female survivors due to societal norms and traditional gender roles (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). The increased barriers facing male survivors resulted in decreased reporting by survivors and increased secondary victimization (Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014). Lhamon (2015) highlighted that Title IX applies to all students, including students who do not conform to societal notions of masculinity or femininity.

One form of secondary victimization of sexual assault survivors stems from professionals not meeting the needs of survivors or having negative interactions with survivors (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Hung, 2013). Survivors experiencing secondary victimization have reported increased mental health concerns and negative long-term effects (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Hung, 2013). Administrators of colleges and universities are not exempt from concerns about the effects of secondary victimization on student survivors (Allen et al., 2015) and should continue to ensure that they are meeting DOE and OCR guidelines for responding

appropriately to incidents of sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014).

Title IX and the OCR provide guidance to schools on appropriate ways to respond to students reporting victimization (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss, Wilgus, & Williamsen, 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; K. Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014; Wies, 2015). Small- and medium-size colleges face financial struggles when implementing the requirements of Title IX and the OCR (Paul, 2016). Programs and services to prevent and respond to incidents of sexual misconduct receive funding at small- and medium-size colleges from existing budget lines, increasing the financial struggles facing administrators (Paul, 2016).

Although sexual assault research is abundant, limited research has focused on male survivors of sexual assault (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Researchers have provided in-depth information regarding the requirements of Title IX and the OCR and possible concerns related to implementing the requirements (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015); however, I found no research focused on services specific to male survivors attending small institutions of higher education. Paul (2016) identified concerns that small- and medium-sized colleges experienced when implementing the requirements of Title IX and the OCR; however, the research did not focus on specific services provided to survivors. The current study bridges the gap in research and provides additional knowledge related to the intersection of male survivors of sexual misconduct,

Title IX and OCR guidelines, and small colleges in the United States.

Improved services for male survivors may result in less secondary victimization and improved mental health after a sexual assault. For male college student survivors, improved responses may also support academic success, given that Bolger (2016) found that survivors have academic struggles following an incident of sexual misconduct. Finally, colleges and universities can develop best practices that community sexual assault response services can expand to the larger community and the rape reform movement.

## Problem Statement

Cantor et al. (2015) found that 11.7% of college students experienced unwanted sexual contact during their collegiate career. Colleges and universities face increased scrutiny on the handling of sexual misconduct cases (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014; Triplett, 2012). Title IX and the OCR outline guidelines for institutions of higher education for appropriate and timely responses to sexual misconduct and preventative measures that schools should develop (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). Researchers have criticized the OCR staff for providing vague and difficult-to-understand guidelines that do not address concerns related to colleges and universities of different sizes (M. J. Anderson, 2016; K. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016). Additionally, without additional funding to implement the requirements, colleges and universities, especially small schools, have found the implementation of new programs difficult (D. J. Anderson

& Cheslock, 2004; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Paul, 2016; Wies, 2015). The Trustees of Indiana University (2015) identified small colleges and universities as having a full-time equivalent enrollment of 1,000 to 2,999 students.

Although researchers have provided significant findings related to Title IX and limited research related to male survivors of sexual assault, I found no research describing the implementation of Title IX requirements for male survivors attending small colleges in the United States. Title IX guidelines require colleges to respond equitably to allegations of sexual misconduct (M. J. Anderson, 2016); however, Anderton Chavez (2016) found that many institutions do not provide enough resources for survivors of sexual assault. Additionally, victims of sexual misconduct experience mental health and other concerns that affect their academic success following incidents of sexual misconduct (Bolger, 2016). Therefore, further research is warranted to describe how small college administrators, specifically the Title IX Coordinators, implement the OCR's regulations for preventing and responding to Title IX incidents involving male survivors of sexual misconduct. The research addressed the documented problem of the lack of male-survivor-specific or inclusive services within the collegiate environment that results in increased secondary victimization of survivors.

## Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore and analyze how the Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement the OCR's guidance related to policies and services. Furthermore, the study explored how the services decrease secondary victimization experienced by collegiate male survivors of sexual misconduct. I

conducted an analysis of current policies and programs, explored the resources available to the college community, and conducted semistructured interviews with the Title IX Coordinators at selected small colleges in the United States. Analyzing the data provided greater insight into how college campus social norms and coordinators' understanding of policies affect the implementation of the policies and guidance provided by the OCR staff.

## Research Question

How do Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement policies and services for male sexual misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by OCR related to Title IX regulations?

## Conceptual Framework

The current study used critical theory (Carr, 2000; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015) as the conceptual framework. A goal of critical theory is to provide scholars and researchers a method of emancipating people and groups from oppression through critical thought and rejection of the idea of absolute truths (Carr, 2000; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Stahl, Doherty, Shaw, and Janicke (2014) further explained critical theory as the disruption of the status quo for the purpose of promoting the emancipation of the oppressed. Critical theory promotes the creation of transformative action leading to social change to achieve emancipation (Clarke & Hulatt, 2014; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

Critical theory has three building blocks that provided the conceptual lens for the current study. The first is gaining greater knowledge regarding ideologies perpetuated by

the dominant population (Carr, 2000; Jacobs, 2014; Kilgore, 2001; Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Emancipation for the oppressed is the second component and refers to supporting oppressed individuals in freeing themselves to attain their full potential (Hadfield, 2012; Kilgore, 2001; Segedin, 2012; Stahl et al., 2014). The final component of critical theory is transformative action leading to social change with the goal of the elimination of oppression (Brookfield, 2001; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

Researchers have found that male survivors of sexual assault face societal barriers to help-seeking services and disclosure of incidents due to oppressive social norms and ideologies (Allen et al., 2015; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Clark, 2014; Hung, 2013; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). A critical theory conceptual lens allows for the critical review of the historical, cultural, social, and political interconnections that lead to oppression—in this case, barriers to help-seeking behavior (Carr, 2000; Deranty, 2013; Hadfield, 2012). As I assessed the current status quo for male survivors through review of provided services and interviews with Title IX Coordinators, critical theory helped to determine actions to take to prevent injustice and support the emancipation of the oppressed (Brookfield, 2001; Carr, 2000; Hadfield, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). I elaborate on the components of critical theory in Chapter 2.

## Nature of the Study

The study had a qualitative multiple case study research design. Data collection occurred through individual interviews with Title IX Coordinators and analysis of the

colleges' website descriptions of Title-IX-related policies and services and annual security reports. Researchers have described multiple case study design as a method of comparing diverse cases (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013; Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012). The effort to describe policy implementation related to male victims of sexual misconduct and the multiple case study design complement each other. Baxter and Jack (2008) stated that a descriptive case study describes a phenomenon in the context in which the phenomenon occurs. Multiple case study designs allow for multiple data collection methods, including interviews, observations, and document analysis, to increase the credibility of the study (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Houghton et al., 2013; Petty et al., 2012).

I used a criterion sampling method to select the participants for the study. A criterion sampling method allows a researcher to select a sample based on required criteria to identify participants with in-depth knowledge of the studied phenomenon (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005; Suri, 2011). To meet criteria for the current study, individuals needed to be Title IX Coordinators working for small colleges not located in the state of Texas.

The current study used a sample of four Title IX Coordinators employed by small colleges. Other qualitative studies related to sexual assault have involved eight to 22 participants (Barrett & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2013; Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Koo, Nguyen, George, & Andrasik, 2015; McMahon & Dick, 2011; Turchik et al., 2013; Wijk, 2014). Mason (2010) reviewed 179 case study PhD dissertations and identified a

range of sample sizes from one to 95. A sample size of four is within the sample ranges of the previous research.

McGuiggan and Lee (2008) explained cross-case synthesis as a method of identifying patterns across multiple cases. Using cross-case synthesis, a researcher can identify in-case and intercase similarities and differences (McGuiggan & Lee, 2008). Additionally, this method of analysis allows the researcher to compare the analysis to theoretical constructs (McGuiggan & Lee, 2008), such as critical theory.

To increase researcher credibility, I used two techniques described by Cohen and Crabtree (2006) and Baxter and Jack (2008)—member checks and triangulation. Throughout the study, participants reviewed the data collected to ensure that I was reporting their views and not expressing my bias (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Multiple case study design requires multiple data collection methods that assist in the triangulation of data (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Houghton et al., 2013; Petty et al., 2012).

Two limitations of the study were the population and the use of a national organization's membership list to recruit participants. Wies (2015) highlighted the lack of additional funding provided by the federal government after requiring new initiatives under Title IX. Small colleges may have limited funding for professional development that may have decreased the number of small-college Title IX Coordinators participating in the association. Additionally, the professional organization is only one organization providing training and collaboration opportunities for school administrators, which could have influenced the data collected.

**Definitions**

The following section defines key terms used throughout the study and identifies terms used interchangeably.

*Complainant:* OCR's preferred term for a student who allegedly experienced sexual misconduct (Lhamon, 2014). Throughout this study, *complainant, survivor,* and *victim* are interchangeable.

*Sexual assault:* "Penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b, p. 13). Throughout this study, *sexual assault* and *sexual misconduct* are interchangeable.

*Sexual misconduct:* A broad term preferred by institutions of higher education to describe sexual violence, sexual harassment, intimate partner violence, stalking, and all other nonconsensual acts used for the purpose of threatening, intimidating, or coercing others (Bagley, Natarajan, Vayzman, Wexler, & McCarthy, 2012; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014). Although *sexual misconduct* is an umbrella term, for the purpose of the study, I use the term primarily to refer to sexual assault; therefore, *sexual assault* and *sexual misconduct* are interchangeable.

*Sexual violence:* A physical, sexual act conducted against a person's will or when the person is unable to give consent; includes sexual assault, sexual battery, and sexual coercion (Ali, 2011; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015).

*Sexual harassment:* Unwanted sexual conduct and advances that are verbal, nonverbal, or physical in nature (Ali, 2011; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015).

*Small college:* A college or university with a full-time equivalent enrollment from 1,000 to 2,999 (The Trustees of Indiana University, 2015).

*Survivor:* A person who allegedly experienced sexual misconduct. This term is used to emphasize an individual's resiliency after the incident (Jordan, 2013). Throughout this study, *complainant, survivor*, and *victim* are interchangeable.

*Victim:* A person who allegedly experienced sexual misconduct. This term is used primarily in the legal system (Jordan, 2013). Throughout this study, *complainant, survivor*, and *victim* are interchangeable.

## Assumptions

The current study proceeded from three assumptions regarding male victims and researcher bias. Researchers have found that male victims of sexual assault do not report the assault as often as female survivors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Considering the underreporting by male victims, I assumed that small colleges have male students who are victims of sexual misconduct who may not report these incidents to college administrators. Therefore, college administrators may report no male victims, resulting in the belief that there is no need for gender-neutral or male-specific services on campus.

Second, researchers using qualitative interviews must acknowledge any bias that can affect the results (Berger, 2013; Cope, 2014). I conducted the study as a male who had never experienced sexual misconduct. Further, I interviewed Title IX Coordinators who may not have had experience with male victims. Therefore, other researchers' data (Allen et al., 2015; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien

et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012; Turchik et al., 2013; Voller et al., 2015) formed the basis for the assumption that male survivors require different support than female survivors of sexual misconduct. The final assumption was that the other researchers conducted their research ethically and upheld the standards of the profession.

## Scope and Delimitations

The focus of the current study was Title IX Coordinators at small colleges who interpret and implement policies related to male sexual misconduct victimization within the guidelines provided by the OCR specific to Title IX regulations. This study did not address concerns specific to nongender-binary, gay, lesbian, bisexual, or female survivors. The scope of the study included Title IX Coordinators employed by small colleges. I excluded from the study Title IX Coordinators working at schools with a full-time equivalent enrollment less than 1,000 or more than 2,999 students. Due to the limited scope of the study, the findings are not generalizable to colleges not defined as small colleges.

Critical theory was the conceptual framework for the study. The three components identified within critical theory allowed for increased knowledge of male survivors to eliminate societal restrictions placed on survivors and develop social change action. Critical theory includes subtheories such as queer theory, critical trans politics, and critical race theory. Although these theories may provide additional insight into concerns facing male survivors, they were beyond the scope of the current study. Additionally, the study did not include intersectionality and ecological system theories.

**Study Limitations**

The study had several limitations that may affect generalizability. First, the sample population included Title IX Coordinators working at small colleges. I used a criterion sampling method to identify participants (Mack et al., 2005; O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Suri, 2011). Although researchers have identified nonrandom sampling methods in qualitative methodologies as increasing the depth and richness of data, these methods may limit generalizability beyond the sample population (Mack et al., 2005; O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Suri, 2011). To increase the credibility of the study, I used in-depth interviews, as suggested by Houghton et al. (2013).

To increase the geographical span of the sample, I used video conferencing as a method of conducting the interviews. Janghorban, Latifnejad Roudsari, and Taghipour (2014) stated that video conferencing increases the geographical area that one researcher can include, but the technology limits the number of nonverbal clues that are visible to the researcher. I mitigated the limitation of nonface-to-face interviews by triangulation. Reviewing multiple sources of information, including the colleges' website and self-reported statistics, assisted in confirming the responses of the interviewees (Houghton et al., 2013).

Morse (2015) identified researcher bias as a concern in qualitative research. A researcher may anticipate responses and outcomes based on previous research and personal experiences (Morse, 2015). As a person with strong beliefs regarding differences in services provided to male survivors of sexual misconduct versus female survivors, it was important for me to maintain a neutral stance (Morse, 2015) during

interviews and data processing. Additionally, the use of member checking and triangulation assisted in preventing researcher bias (Houghton et al., 2013).

## Significance of the Study

This research fills a gap in the understanding of how small colleges implement the OCR guidelines related to Title IX regulations for male survivors of sexual misconduct. Additionally, the research may benefit the sexual-assault-response community by providing research-based knowledge related to male survivors. Although the study may have limited generalizability to other colleges and universities due to the sample population, the critical review of societal norms and the oppression facing male survivors may lead to social change action that other audiences will be able to implement. Rape crisis centers and law enforcement agencies may use information gained from this study to improve their response to male survivors. Additionally, knowledge learned regarding male survivors may lead to different perspectives when working with nongender-binary and other nonfemale survivors.

The participants within the study gained a greater understanding of the concerns facing male survivors. This increased knowledge may lead to future research or practical application at the participants' campuses. Finally, with the completed study provided to the OCR, other campuses across the country will benefit.

## Summary

Research related to sexual assault and sexual misconduct has focused primarily on female survivors, limiting the understanding of male survivors' struggles (Allen et al., 2015; Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Sorsoli, Kia-

Keating, & Grossman, 2008; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012; Turchik et al.,

2013; Voller et al., 2015). Colleges and universities must respond to allegations of sexual

misconduct by following guidelines provided by the OCR and Title IX (Ali, 2011;

Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). The purpose of this qualitative multiple

case study was to describe how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement the

guidelines to decrease the secondary victimization experienced by male survivors.

Critical theory provided the conceptual framework for the study to better understand how

societal norms create barriers for male survivors; this framework may provide guidance

for creating transformative action leading to social change (Carr, 2000; Jacobs, 2014;

Kilgore, 2001; Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). The knowledge

gained through critical review of services and policies could have benefits beyond the

small college campuses of the participants.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of current literature related to critical theory,

sexual assault, Title IX, and male survivors. The review includes a description of

different definitions of sexual assault and the documented concerns facing all survivors

after an incident. Additionally, Chapter 2 includes information regarding the history and

current state of the OCR's guidance related to Title IX. Finally, concerns related to male

survivors of sexual assault are identified based on the limited research available.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Sexual violence, including sexual assault and sexual misconduct, is a trauma that affects people of all genders, all ethnicities, and all socioeconomic statuses (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; Forde & Duvvury, 2016). A concern in researching sexual assault stems from different definitions and terminology used to describe sexual assault, leading to significant differences in the prevalence reported by researchers (Aronowitz, 2014; Artime et al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2016; Flack et al., 2016; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Although definitions of sexual assault vary, three components are common in all definitions. Researchers and lawmakers have differed on what the components include; however, each definition has included the sexual act, consent, and the gender of the victim and perpetrator (Ali, 2011; Aronowitz, 2014; Artime et al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bell et al., 2014; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016a; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). The reported prevalence of sexual assault ranges from 0.83% to 50%, depending on the definition used and the study population (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Flack et al., 2016; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Hackman, 2015; Kimble et al., 2013; S. B. Murphy, Banyard, Maynard, & Dufresne, 2011).

Survivors of sexual assault face a plethora of short- and long-term struggles

following the incident. Researchers have found that sexual assault survivors may experience increased depression, sexual dysfunction, alcohol and drug abuse, and suicidal thoughts and attempts (Aronowitz, 2014; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Holland, Rabelo, & Cortina, 2016; Kushmider, Beebe, & Black, 2015; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015; Walsh & Bruce, 2014). Additionally, college students who survive sexual assault may have lower grades and increased difficulty socializing in the intimate space of the college campus environment (Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Pinter, 2015).

Societal norms perpetuate the struggles that sexual assault survivors report experiencing (Bell et al., 2014; Iacovelli & Johnson, 2012; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015). Rape myths and traditional gender roles create a culture that supports rape, known as the *rape culture* (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Bertram & Crowley, 2012; Hildebrand & Najdowski, 2015). Male survivors face additional concerns related to disclosing the incident and help-seeking behaviors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Societal ideas of masculinity and male rape myths may lead to male survivors questioning their gender identity, sexuality, and overall sense of self (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Cook et al., 2016; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Javaid, 2015; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). The effects of social norms extend to all community members, including sexual assault

response professionals, which may lead to survivors, especially male survivors,

experiencing secondary victimization (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 1999;

Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung,

2013; Mendonça, Gouveia-Pereira, & Miranda, 2016; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina

& Ho, 2014; Strömwall, Alfredsson, & Landström, 2013; Tamarit, Villacampa, & Filella,

2010).

Colleges and universities must respond to incidents of sexual misconduct

according to guidelines provided by the OCR and Title IX (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson,

2016; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015;

Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; K. Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014; Wies,

2015). Through a series of guidance documents, the OCR provides colleges and

universities with blueprints on how to appropriately prevent and respond to incidents of

sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Lhamon,

2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; The White House, 2014). Appointment of a Title IX

Coordinator, training, and educational publications are some of the requirements the

OCR has outlined for colleges and universities to implement (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et

al., 2013; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). Lawyers and college

administrators have criticized the OCR's guidance for being vague and contradictory, as

well as for giving college administrators oversight of complicated legal matters (M. J.

Anderson, 2016; S. R. Edwards & Vogel, 2015; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K.

Smith, 2016). Additionally, colleges and universities have struggled with implementing

the requirements due to lack of financial support related to Title IX (Paul, 2016).

The current study addressed a gap in literature related to how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges support male survivors of sexual assault according to the guidance provided by the OCR and Title IX. Secondary victimization, increased mental health concerns, and lack of services are a few of the barriers that researchers have identified male survivors as experiencing (Allen et al., 2015; Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Sorsoli et al., 2008; Turchik, 2012; Turchik et al., 2013; Voller et al., 2015). The purpose of the current study was to describe how Title IX Coordinators could increase the resiliency of male survivors through a critical review of policies and services.

The following literature review has four primary objectives. First, I seek to provide an understanding of critical theory, the conceptual framework for the study. Second, I aim to present an understanding of the multiple definitions of sexual assault, the effects that assault has on survivors, and how society responds to incidents of sexual assault. Third, I intend to provide an overview of laws governing institutions of higher education in their responses to sexual assault, with a primary focus on Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. The final objective of the literature review is to provide an understanding of sexual assault on male victims and the additional concerns that male survivors experience during the aftermath of assault.

**Literature Search Strategy**

Two online libraries provided the majority of the peer-reviewed articles used in the literature review: Walden University Library and the University of Texas at Austin Library. The two libraries provided access to online databases used for the literature

review, including Academic Search Complete, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, ProQuest,

Education Resources Information Center, and SAGE. Google Scholar provided access to

free online articles from sources such as the National Institutes of Health's National

Library of Medicine and academic institution-based journals and documents. The primary

search terms used to identify documents were *critical theory, sexual assault OR rape,*

*Title IX OR Title 9 OR Title Nine, small private* (colleges), *CampusSave OR Campus*

*Save,* and *Clery*. Additional terms narrowed the search results and included *campus,*

*college OR university, male, support, disclosure, Office for Civil Rights OR OCR,*

*bystander intervention, coordinator,* and *White House*. I gave primary focus to articles

published since 2012 and in the English language.

## Conceptual Framework—Critical Theory

The term *critical theory* is an umbrella term for several different theoretical

perspectives with similar fundamental components (Stahl et al., 2014). Martin and

Kitchel (2015) described the basic principle of critical theory as questioning social

groups' prominent ideologies and empowering individuals oppressed by dominant views.

Other researchers have added to the description of critical theory by stating that the

theory is useful in critiquing established methods of thinking in the context of societal,

cultural, and political environments to create transformative action (Clarke & Hulatt,

2014; Deranty, 2014; Jacobs, 2014; Winans-Solis, 2014).

Critical theory has a long history that has allowed different perspectives to

develop (Carr, 2000; Letizia, 2013; Rasmussen, 1999; Wellmer, 2014). Marine and

Nicolazzo (2014) identified some of the critical theory perspectives as critical race

theory, Latino critical theory, critical White studies, and critical trans politics. Although the different perspectives highlight different oppressed populations, I identified three fundamental components based on literature and critical theory research. Critical theory provides knowledge, seeks emancipation for the oppressed, and encourages social change. I elaborate on the three areas after providing a brief history of critical theory. After explaining the three fundamental components, I identify recent studies that used critical theory and explain how critical theory benefited the current study.

**Historical Background of Critical Theory**

In 1923, the Institute for Social Research, also known as the Frankfurt School, opened in Frankfurt, Germany (Carr, 2000; Letizia, 2013; Wellmer, 2014). Carl Grünberg was the first director of the Frankfurt School, followed in 1931 by Max Horkheimer (Letizia, 2013; Rasmussen, 1999). As the director, Horkheimer began to define critical theory in the context of an essay he wrote in 1937 (Rasmussen, 1999). For Horkheimer, critical theory was in opposition to traditional theory (Carr, 2000; Rasmussen, 1999). Where traditional theory created generalizations from scientific experiences, critical theory became more epistemological, seeking a theory of knowledge (Carr, 2000; Rasmussen, 1999). Jürgen Habermas took over the Frankfurt School in 1964 (Carr, 2000; Letizia, 2013).

Critical theory has two meanings. First, *Critical Theory* (capitalized) refers to the collective body of work produced by the theorists at the Frankfurt School, who included Herbert Marcuse, Theodor Adorno, Max Horkheimer, Jürgen Habermas, and Stephen Brookfield (Carr, 2000; Jacobs, 2014; Rasmussen, 1999; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele,

2015). Horkheimer described *critical theory* (not capitalized) as a theory with a "fundamental aim to … emancipate human beings from exploitation and oppression by … transform[ing] the social order which oppress[ed] them into a society without injustice" (Clarke & Hulatt, 2014, p. 1047).

**Gaining Knowledge**

A basic premise of critical theory is that most humans experience a distorted reality based on social, cultural, and political norms (Carr, 2000; Kilgore, 2001; Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). To move beyond the distorted reality, people must understand the interconnections of knowledge with the dominant entities within the environment (Hadfield, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Kilgore (2001) stated that individuals' or groups' knowledge develops from socially constructed beliefs held by the majority. Historical, social, cultural, and political processes affect the assumptions that people hold, and these assumptions benefit dominant cultures and oppress others (Hadfield, 2012; Kilgore, 2001; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Critical theorists use a dialectical process to understand reality and how to move beyond taken-for-granted assumptions (Carr, 2000; Letizia, 2013).

Three parts work together in the dialectical process to become a new reality of understanding and to upset the status quo of society (Carr, 2000; Letizia, 2013). *Thesis* is the starting point and where all future understanding begins (Carr, 2000). *Antithesis* is the opposite of thesis (Carr, 2000). Thesis and antithesis develop simultaneously and depend on one another for mutual existence (Carr, 2000). *Synthesis* develops due to the existence of thesis and antithesis and holds the opposites together (Carr, 2000). By examining the

three different aspects, the observer can visualize the whole of knowledge and the conflicts inherent to knowledge (Carr, 2000). Letizia (2013) stated that examination of the three parts working together allows people to uncover the oppression present. The dialectical process allows the observer to see the past and future possibilities together and how they affect one another (Carr, 2000).

Friesen, as explained by V. C. X. Wang and Torrisi-Steele (2015), provided guidelines to critical thought, offering a different perspective on the dialectical process. First, Friesen suggested identifying claims and ideas expressed as absolute truths (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Second, Friesen recommended analyzing these ideas or claims to identify how others on the outside may view the knowledge (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). The third step of critical thought involves realizing different points of view on the knowledge and how the dominant force in the environment manipulates the knowledge (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Finally, with this new understanding, one may use the identified conflict in understanding to create less oppressive future actions (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

Gaining knowledge is the first component of critical theory that I identified. As explained above, critical theory includes critiquing knowledge to understand why the reality presented is the preferred reality and who or what is promoting that reality (Carr, 2000; Hadfield, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). The second component of critical theory, emancipation for the oppressed, builds on the new understanding of the truth.

**Emancipation for the Oppressed**

Increased knowledge allows people to identify the ideological views that society

uses to perpetuate hegemonic principles (Kilgore, 2001; Martin & Kitchel, 2015; Stahl et

al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). According to critical theorists,

ideologies are values, beliefs, myths, explanations, and justifications that the majority of

society believes are empirically accurate and morally desirable (Brookfield, 2001; Jacobs,

2014; Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Although the majority of

society believes in these ideologies, the belief system allows for the continuation of an

unjust society (Brookfield, 2001; Jacobs, 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

Hegemony is the perpetuation of ideologies by the dominant entity (Kilgore, 2001;

Martin & Kitchel, 2015; Stahl et al., 2014). Kilgore (2001) described hegemonic logic as

"the success of the dominant classes in presenting their definition of reality in such a way

that it is accepted by other classes as common sense even though it serves the interest of

the dominant classes alone" (p. 55).

The more that a society believes in ideologies and follows hegemonic logic, the

greater the separation between the dominant class and other groups (Brookfield, 2001).

Instead of *ideology*, Woelders and Abma (2015) used the term *norms* to describe the

informal rules that govern society, creating a barrier between those following the norms

and those that do not. The fundamental goal of critical theory, as described by

Horkheimer, is to emancipate people from the situations that have enslaved them (Carr,

2000; Jacobs, 2014; Segedin, 2012).

Stahl et al. (2014) described *emancipation* as an individual's and group's ability

to achieve greater potential. Emancipation moves beyond simply freeing oneself from oppression to encompass allowing oneself to flourish in an environment free from restrictions of the dominant ideologies (Jacobs, 2014). Brookfield (2001) stated that emancipation comes from ideology critique. *Ideology critique* is the rational analysis of the ideologies imposed on society (Brookfield, 2001; Jacobs, 2014). Critiquing the knowledge provided by society, the oppressed can begin to emancipate themselves from the dominant cultures. Transformative action must occur to achieve emancipation (H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

**Social Change**

The third component of critical theory is social change. Jacobs (2014) highlighted that critical theory is action oriented. Through understanding the critical critique process, individuals and groups create transformative action to emancipate the oppressed (Brookfield, 2001; Jacobs, 2014; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). V. C. X. Wang and Torrisi-Steele (2015) explained that through exploring different perspectives, people gain greater insight into the concerns facing the oppressed. The insight gives way to opportunities for positive social change (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Once action begins, the status quo is altered, and the process begins again (Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015).

Critical theory must have three concurrent criteria: explanatory, practical, and normative (Bohman, 1999; Carr, 2000). Identifying what is wrong with society is the explanatory aspect (Bohman, 1999; Carr, 2000). The practical criteria refer to identifying the individuals and groups that can make the change (Bohman, 1999; Carr, 2000).

Providing a platform to critique norms and ideologies combined with practical goals for

the future meet the normative criteria (Bohman, 1999; Carr, 2000). Individuals and

groups using the criteria of critical theory create transformative action to emancipate

others not reaching their full potential.
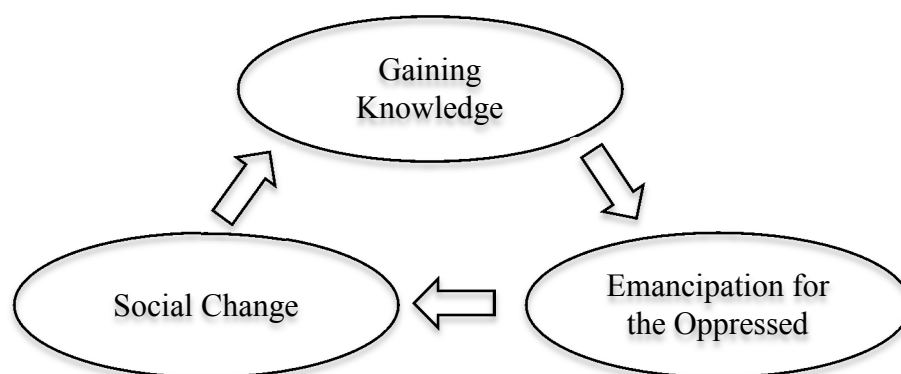


*Figure 1.* Relationship of the three components of critical theory.

**Recent Studies Using Critical Theory**

From the beginning of the Frankfurt School, the goal of critical theory was to be

multidisciplinary, involving multiple fields of study (Rasmussen, 1999). In recent years,

researchers have used the critical theory lens to examine education, disabilities services,

information technology ethics, and postdisaster response (Martin & Kitchel, 2015; Stahl

et al., 2014; Tuason, Güss, & Carroll, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015;

Winans-Solis, 2014; Woelders & Abma, 2015). Within education, the critical theory lens

has been used to examine how culturally nondominant students experience oppression

within the school system limiting their full potential (Winans-Solis, 2014). V. C. X.

Wang and Torrisi-Steele (2015) used critical theory to empower educators to reexamine

education ideology to create a more supportive and successful online educational

environment. Martin and Kitchel (2015) examined group dynamics of students using critical theory to increase students' participation in student organizations. These three studies demonstrated the use of critical theory in an educational environment to create change for educators and students. Tuason et al. (2012) viewed displaced Hurricane Katrina survivors with the intent of empowering future disaster survivors based on their experiences. The above examples of recent uses of critical theory highlight the versatility of the theory and its benefit in educational settings and for decreasing oppression following a crisis.

**Critical Theory and the Current Study**

A critical theory conceptual lens benefited the current study in multiple ways. As described above, the three components of critical theory, gaining knowledge, the emancipation of the oppressed, and social change, matches with the purpose of the study. Increasing knowledge regarding male survivors of sexual assault and examining the ideological views and norms that researchers found leads to secondary victimization and poorer mental and physical outcomes for the survivors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Hung, 2013) may allow small colleges to provide improved services. The critical theory lens will allow for a critique of the concerns regarding male survivors and development of transformative action needed to help the survivors achieve their greatest potential. If the study reveals no current concerns within small colleges related to services provided for male survivors, critical theory provides the critical thought process for continuous reevaluation to prevent future imbalances.

**Sexual Assault in the United States**

Sexual violence is a form of trauma that researchers believe is the most frequent

form of trauma worldwide (Forde & Duvvury, 2016). Although researchers, academics,

and lawmakers have a similar understanding of what constitutes sexual assault, the

inconsistency in definitions of sexual assault create difficulty in fully understanding the

scope and impact of the crime (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et

al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bagley et al., 2012; Bell et al., 2014; Bierie & Davis-

Siegel, 2015; Bolger, 2016; Busch-Armendariz, Sulley, & Hill, 2016; Cook et al., 2016;

DeMatteo et al., 2015; Novkov, 2016). The following will provide a review of the

literature related to the different definitions of sexual assault, the prevalence of the

victimization, society's influence on sexual assault victimization, the effects of the

assault on the survivor, and how a victim may respond to an assault.

**Definitions of Sexual Assault**

Sexual assault definitions vary depending on the profession using the definition,

such as the criminal justice system, higher education, or researcher. The criminal justice

system's that includes lawmakers and law enforcement officials at the local, state, and

federal levels, definition of sexual assault differs between regions (DeMatteo et al.,

2015). In 1930, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI; 2016b, n.d.) began to collect

data from law enforcement agencies across the country with the goal of providing reliable

information related to crime statistics. The FBI collects data through the Uniform Crime

Reporting (UCR) program (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016b, n.d.). Although the

FBI used a common definition for statistical purposes, the UCR definitions do not affect

the local laws (DeMatteo et al., 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016b, n.d.).

Researchers' definition of sexual assault can vary from researcher to researcher and study to study (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016; Cook et al., 2016). The purpose of the study determines the researcher's definition of sexual assault. Similar to state lawmakers, colleges and universities can establish their definition of sexual assault and misconduct (Ali, 2011; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). The DOE and the OCR provide guidance to all institutions of education, but schools have the freedom to implement the guidance for the individual campus environment (Ali, 2011; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). Although each entity, education, researchers, and lawmakers, use different definitions, three components are common to the definition of sexual assault: the sexual conduct, consent, and the gender of the survivor and perpetrator.

**The sexual act.** Many definitions of sexual assault describe at least one aspect of the sexual act as penetration (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Bell et al., 2014; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b). The DOE and others do not include the term penetration but use the terms physical sexual act, conduct of a sexual nature, or sexual contact (Ali, 2011; Artime et al., 2014; Bagley et al., 2012; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). Bell et al. (2014) described sexual contact as ranging from sexual touching to penetration.

Two subcomponents of the sexual act portion of the definition include the penetrated body part and what is used to penetrate the body part. A previous version of

the FBI's UCR's definition focused on the penetration of the vagina and the current definition includes vaginal, anal, or oral penetration within their definitions (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b). Other sexual assault definitions used one or a combination of vaginal, anal, and oral penetration (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bell et al., 2014; Cook et al., 2016). The broader the terms for the penetrated body part used in the definitions increased the gender-neutrality of the definition (M. J. Anderson, 2016). Although previous definitions limited the objects used to penetrate the body part, such as only the male sex organ, the majority of current definitions use broad terms, such as any object or sex organ (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b).

**Consent.** For this section, consent is a broad term to describe how the perpetrator performed the sexual act against the survivor. Force, the threat of force, and coercion are three common terms found in the definitions of sexual assault (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Ayenibiowo, 2013; Bagley et al., 2012; Cook et al., 2016). M. J. Anderson (2016) stated nonstranger rape without physical force is the most common form of sexual assault. Due to the increasing lack of force used on victims, some definitions of sexual assault include broader terms for consent (Ali, 2011; Bell et al., 2014; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016).

Nonconsensual and without consent are terminology used to broaden the definitions of sexual assault (Ali, 2011; Bell et al., 2014; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). Once researchers and policymakers included the term

consent in the definition, questions developed related to what consent entailed. Busch-Armendariz et al. (2016) defined consent as the voluntary and mutual agreement without the influence of intoxicants or threats of force. DeMatteo et al. (2015) found state laws included different limiters for consent. Although the DOE includes the survivor having the mental capacity to consent (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015), only 12 states included the same in their legal definition of sexual assault (DeMatteo et al., 2015). Twenty-four states defined incapacitated within their laws, but only seven states included voluntary intoxication as a method of being incapacitated (DeMatteo et al., 2015).

**Gender of the perpetrator and survivor.** DeMatteo et al. (2015) found three states' laws required the survivor of sexual assault to be female and two states required the perpetrator to be male. Although some researcher may not explicitly state the survivor must be female, defining sexual assault as the penetration of the vagina implies the gender of the victim (Ayenibiowo, 2013; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015). Similarly, some researchers and lawmakers wrote definitions that exclude gender-specific language or highlighted the act can be against any gender or sex (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016).

**The importance of using inclusive definitions of sexual assault.** In 2013, the FBI announced the UCR definition of sexual assault would change for the first time in over 80 years (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b). The previous definition used by the UCR stated, "The carnal

knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b, p. 13). Additionally, the UCR defined carnal knowledge as the penetration of the vagina by a penis (Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015). The new UCR definition of sexual assault states, "Penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim" (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014b, p. 13).

Bierie and Davis-Siegel (2015) reviewed the FBI UCR data reported between 1993 and 2010. The FBI used the old UCR definition of sexual assault, and law enforcement agencies reported 269,656 sexual assaults between 1993 and 2010 (Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015). Researchers applied the new FBI UCR definition to the data and determined the old definition exclude 185,578 sexual assaults that the new definition would include (Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015). Within the 185,578 sexual assaults, 26% involved at least one male victim, 10% had multiple victims, and 50% involved no physical injuries (Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015).

Researchers agreed that the lack of a single definition of sexual assault limited and influenced the research conducted on the topic (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bierie & Davis-Siegel, 2015; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015). Additionally, the lack of a common definition affects the reporting of statistics and creates difficulty in understanding the prevalence of sexual assaults. The following section will provide statistical data related to sexual assault victimization.

**Prevalence of Sexual Assault**

Similar to the vast number of definitions for sexual assault, researchers vary on

the prevalence of sexual assault (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Flack et al., 2016; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Hackman, 2015; Kimble et al., 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). Busch-Armendariz et al. (2016) stated one reason for the discrepancy is the definition used in individual studies. A second influence is the population of the study. As shown in Table 1, the population the researchers used can significantly alter the prevalence documented.

Kimble et al. (2013) identified the lowest percentage of female victimization in a study focusing on the occurrences of sexual assault with female victims studying abroad versus not studying abroad. In a study of Texans over the age of 18, Busch-Armendariz et al. (2015) found 43.80% of females and 22.50% of males reported unwanted sexual contact in their lifetime. Bell et al. (2014) surveyed military personnel and identified 6.10% of females and 1.20% of males experienced military sexual trauma. Although the percentages of males experiencing sexual trauma appeared lower than females, Bell et al. explained the number of individuals is similar due to the high number of males in the military compared to females.

Researchers agreed that females between the ages of 18 and 24 are at the highest risk of victimization (Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). One study compared females enrolled in postsecondary education versus nonstudent females and found nonstudent females 18 to 24 were 1.2 times more likely to be sexually assaulted compared to female students (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Other researchers highlighted the high percentages of college students

that become victims while attending school (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bagley et al., 2012;

Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Hackman, 2015).

Table 1

*Sexual Assault Prevalence by Sample Population*

| Source | Gender of victims | | | Population |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Female | Male | Both | |
| Artime et al. (2014) | | 4%-5% | | College students |
| Bell et al. (2014) | 6.10% | 1.20% | | Military personnel |
| Cook et al. (2016) | | 6.00% | | Over 18 |
| DeMatteo et al. (2015) | | | 20.00% | College students |
| Flack et al. (2016) | | | 44.00% | College students |
| Forde and Duvvury (2016) | | 20.00% | | Ireland males |
| Giovannelli and Jackson (2013) | | | 5%-46% | College students |
| Hackman (2015) | 20%-50% | 31.00% | | College students |
| Kimble et al. (2013) | 4.12% | | | Female college students studying abroad |
| Kimble et al. (2013) | 0.83% | | | Female college students |
| S. B. Murphy et al. (2011) | 17.60% | | | Females |
| Busch-Armendariz et al. (2015) | 43.80% | 22.50% | 33.20% | Texas residents |
| Cantor et al. (2015) | 22.90% | 15.60% | 19.30% | College students |
| Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) | 18.30% | 1.40% | | United States |
| Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) | 19.00% | | | Undergraduate women |

*Note*. The prevalence of sexual assault in the United States from recent studies.

Although many studies of sexual assault focused on female victims, some

researchers included nonfemale survivors within the published statistics. Cantor et al.

(2015) surveyed students from 27 institutions of higher education and found

undergraduate transgender, gender queer, questioning, and nondisclosed respondents had

similar victimizations rates to female undergraduates (24.1% and 23.1%, respectively).

Additionally, graduate nongender-binary individuals reported almost two times the

victimization when compared to female graduate students (15.5% and 8.8%,

respectively; Cantor et al., 2015). Male victimization, similar to female victimization,

spans a wide range from 1.20% to 31.00% (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Cook et al., 2016; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Hackman, 2015). Sinozich and Langton (2014) found male students enrolled in postsecondary education are more likely to be victimized when compared to nonstudent males (17% and 4%, respectively).

Most researchers acknowledge that the low reporting rates of sexual assault influenced the reported prevalence of sexual assault victimization (Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2016; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012; Cook et al., 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Victims do not disclose assaults due to multiple reasons, including the fear people will not believe them, fear of retaliation, mental and physical health concerns, and not knowing what they experienced was a crime (Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; CDC, 2012). In addition to personal concerns, societal norms affect a person's ability and willingness to disclose sexual assault (Bell et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015).

**Effects of Sexual Assault Victimization**

The effects of a sexual assault can last well beyond the assault and can affect all aspects of the survivor's life (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Bertram & Crowley, 2012; Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Holland et al., 2016; Kushmider et al., 2015; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; O'Brien, Keith, & Shoemaker, 2015; Pinter, 2015; C. P. Smith & Freyd, 2013; Turchik, 2012; Walsh & Bruce, 2014). Bertram and Crowley

(2012) summarized the negative effects of a sexual assault as an attack against the soul and spirit of the survivor. Although sexual violence impacts many aspects of the survivor's life, the following will summarize the impact related to mental health, physical and sexual health, and academic concerns for sexual assault survivors who are college students.

**Effects on Survivor's Mental Health**

Following a sexual assault, the survivor may experience mental health related symptoms that vary depending on the nature of the assault, the gender of the survivor and perpetrator, and what type of support the survivor received (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; E. C. Dunn, Gilman, Willett, Slopen, & Molnar, 2012; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Holland et al., 2016; Kushmider et al., 2015; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015; Walsh & Bruce, 2014). Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms are common after a sexual assault (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Bell et al., 2014; Bolger, 2016; Holland et al., 2016; Kushmider et al., 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Walsh & Bruce, 2014). Kushmider et al. (2015) found that survivors experienced PTSD symptoms six times more frequently than nonsurvivors. Hyper-arousal, social withdrawal, avoidance, flashbacks, and nightmares are some of the PTSD symptoms researchers found survivors experienced (Bolger, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; O'Brien et al., 2015; Walsh & Bruce, 2014).

In addition to PTSD, depression and anxiety are common mental health concerns the survivors faced after an assault (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et

al., 2014; Bolger, 2016; E. C. Dunn et al., 2012; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Kushmider et al., 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012). The survivors were three times more likely to experience depression, and female survivors experienced early onset of major depression after being sexually assaulted (E. C. Dunn et al., 2012; Kushmider et al., 2015). Suicide ideations, contemplation, and attempts also increased for the survivors of sexual assault (Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Kushmider et al., 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015). In general, the majority of the survivors experienced an increase in psychological and mental health distress following a sexual assault (Artime et al., 2014; Kushmider et al., 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012).

Male victims of sexual assault experienced additional mental health concerns that may not affect female survivors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). Possibly due to male survivors not seeking mental health services as frequently as female survivors (Forde & Duvvury, 2016), male survivors experienced greater depressive symptoms and increased alcohol consumption after an assault (Bell et al., 2014; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). When males sought mental health support, researchers found an increase in male survivors' mental health diagnoses and psychiatric hospitalizations compared to female survivors (O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). Researchers found male victims of sexual assault questioned their masculinity, sexual orientation, and sense of self, leading to sexual dysfunction and increased risky sexual behavior (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012).

**Effects on Survivor's Physical and Sexual Health**

Excluding the injuries experienced during the assault, researchers found the survivors of sexual assault experienced chronic medical concerns at a higher rate than the nonsurvivors (Aronowitz et al., 2012; Bell et al., 2014; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; O'Brien et al., 2015; Pinter, 2015; Turchik, 2012). Bell et al. (2014) discovered the survivors experienced chronic liver and chronic pulmonary disease at an increased rate compared to the nonsurvivors. The survivors reported increased substance, alcohol, and tobacco use after an assault (Bell et al., 2014; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Kushmider et al., 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012). Bell et al. found female survivors experienced obesity, weight loss, and hyperthyroidism, and O'Brien et al. (2015) reported that female survivors of military sexual trauma experienced chronic pain and decreased quality of life. Sexual concerns and sexual dysfunction are effects researchers found male survivors experienced (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013; Turchik, 2012).

**Effects on Survivor's Academics**

The environment of a college or university campus created additional concerns for the survivors (Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Pinter, 2015). Flack et al. (2016) found 44% of college students reported nonconsensual sexual contact during their academic career. Although Sinozich and Langton (2014) found females not attending college experienced sexual assault victimization at a higher rate than females attending college, the rates of sexual assaults on-campus are concerning (Artime et al., 2014; Cantor et al., 2015; Flack et al., 2016; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). The survivors of

college sexual assault experience the mental, physical, and sexual health concerns described above in addition to other concerns specific to college students.

In an attempt to avoid the perpetrator of the sexual assault, student survivors skipped classes, withdraw to their residence hall room or apartment, and limit interactions with acquaintances (Bolger, 2016). The hostile environment created by the perpetrator significantly affects the grades of the survivors. Bolger (2016) found that 15% of first-year college student female survivors ended the semester with a grade point average (GPA) below 2.5, compared to 6% of the nonsurvivors. Additionally, female survivors of college sexual assault experienced a drop in their GPA the semester of the attack and the following semester (Bolger, 2016).

Decreased grades translate into long-term consequences experienced by the survivor (Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015). Student survivors who experience a drop in their GPA can lose scholarships, be placed on academic probation, or suspended due to poor grades (Bolger, 2016). Additionally, the academic struggles can affect plans for graduate school or employment (Bolger, 2016). In 2015, a sexual assault cost a survivor an estimated $143,678 due to the loss of future employment options, scholarships, and medical and mental health expenses (Bolger, 2016).

### Society's Influence on Sexual Assault Victimization

The survivors are not the only population affected by sexual assault. Bolger (2016) estimated the societal cost of a sexual assault in 2015 was $265,400. Additionally, the way society responded to victims of sexual assault will affect the recovery process for the survivor (Bell et al., 2014; Iacovelli & Johnson, 2012; Sabina & Ho, 2014;

Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015).

Researchers reported societal norms create a rape culture that perpetuates the acceptance

of rape myths (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Artime et al., 2014; Bertram &

Crowley, 2012; Burt, 1980; M. H. Carroll, Rosenstein, Foubert, Clark, & Korenman,

2016; Cassel, 2012; Clark, 2014; Ferrão & Gonçalves, 2015; Giovannelli & Jackson,

2013; Hildebrand & Najdowski, 2015; Kushmider et al., 2015).

**Societal Norms and Rape Culture**

The United States has a history of being a male-dominated country that creates

societal norms based on male entitlement (Aronowitz, 2014). Male dominated societal

norms created an environment with a history of overlooking sexual harassment and

assault of females, which perpetuated the oppression of women (Aronowitz, 2014;

Bertram & Crowley, 2012). In the 1970s, researchers created the term rape culture to

describe the societal norms and myths that allow men to perpetuate sexual violence

against women (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Hildebrand & Najdowski,

2015). Researchers believe sexual victimization will continue until society addresses the

rape culture, including the rape myths sustaining the culture.

**Rape Myths**

Tomas Mann stated myths are "stories about the way things never were, but

always are" (Borg, 2003, p. 52). Rape myths are stories regarding sexual assault,

survivors, and perpetrators that are prejudicial, stereotypical, and false yet society

members believe and act as if the myths are true (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al.,

2012; Burt, 1980; Clark, 2014; Kushmider et al., 2015). The clothing worn caused the

rape, men cannot be raped, victims lie about being raped, and being raped by a person of the same gender means the victim is homosexual are examples of rape myths.

Rape myths are deeply held beliefs and attitudes individuals in society maintain as true for different reasons (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Burt, 1980; Kushmider et al., 2015). Some researchers found the acceptance of rape myths is due to a just world belief, meaning people reconstruct injustices to appear just, decreasing their distress in an unjust situation (Dover, Matthews, Krauss, & Levin, 2012; Hammond, Berry, & Rodriguez, 2011; Hayes, Lorenz, & Bell, 2013; Mendonça et al., 2016; Pedersen & Strömwall, 2013; Strömwall et al., 2013). Other researchers found that society continues the acceptance of rape myths to justify male aggression against females (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Burt, 1980).

An individual's acceptance of rape myths helped predict their reaction to incidents of sexual assault (Artime et al., 2014; Burt, 1980; M. H. Carroll et al., 2016; Clark, 2014; Ferrão & Gonçalves, 2015; Kushmider et al., 2015). In general, men were more accepting of rape myths than females and blamed the victim of sexual assault for the attack (M. H. Carroll et al., 2016; Ferrão & Gonçalves, 2015). Survivors believing rape myths minimized their experience, believed what occurred was not rape, and prevented them from seeking support after the incident (Artime et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Kushmider et al., 2015).

The acceptance of rape myths affects the society as well. Burt (1980) stated rape myth acceptance limited legal definitions of rapes, which DeMatteo et al. (2015) found in their review of sexual assault laws within the United States. With the interwoven

relationship between rape myths and social norms, individuals incorporated the myths into their belief system at an early age increasing the difficulty in creating a culture of change that perpetuates the attitudes towards the acceptance of sexual violence to future generations (Aronowitz, 2014; Aronowitz et al., 2012; Burt, 1980; M. H. Carroll et al., 2016; Cassel, 2012; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013).

## Responding to Sexual Assault

Survivors of sexual assault faced options related to how they respond to the incident. Sorsoli et al. (2008) described disclosure as the conveyance or attempted conveyance of the abuse to another person. Disclosing information about the assault assisted the survivor in seeking help from formal and informal systems (Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014). Secondary victimization refers to the negative response from others, usually professionals, when the survivor sought assistance (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung, 2013). The actions taken by the survivor and the reactions from people they confided in have a significant impact on the overall well-being of the survivor (Bell et al., 2014; Iacovelli & Johnson, 2012; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015).

### Disclosure Process and Help-Seeking Behavior

For a survivor, the disclosure process can begin immediately or take years, if ever, before they told anyone about the experience (Bell et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006; Sorsoli et al., 2008; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014; Vohlídalová, 2015). Peers and family members are commonly the people

the survivors disclosed to first (Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Sable et al., 2006). Characteristics of the assault, the gender of the survivor or perpetrator, the relationship between the people, the amount of force used or injuries sustained, and the survivors' culture affected the disclosure process (Bell et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014).

Male and Asian American survivors were less likely to disclose the sexual assault (Bell et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Sorsoli et al., 2008). The fear of being identified as gay or less masculine are barriers male survivors faced when deciding to tell anyone about the experience (Bell et al., 2014; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sorsoli et al., 2008). Koo et al. (2015) found that Asian American college female survivors of acquaintance rape had the lowest reporting rate and that nondisclosure would be normal for this population due to cultural beliefs. Starzynski and Ullman (2014) found stereotypical victims (stranger rape with force) disclosed more frequently. Bell et al. (2014) found that women were more likely to disclose to female friends, and males were least likely to seek formal support.

Many survivors faced concerns of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and not being believed when determining if they should disclose (Bell et al., 2014; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sable et al., 2006; Sorsoli et al., 2008). Researchers found the same concerns the survivors currently confront are similar to the concerns from 30 years ago at the beginning of the rape reform movement (Sable et al., 2006).

The survivors received positive and negative reactions when they disclosed the sexual assault, and the more they disclosed, the more negative responses they received

(Bell et al., 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014). Individuals' reactions influenced the survivor's willingness to seek help through other informal (peers and family) or formal (mental health professionals, medical assistance, or criminal justice systems) support systems (Koo et al., 2015; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sorsoli et al., 2008; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014). Negative reactions included victim-blaming behavior, victim shaming, and embarrassment for failing to maintain confidentiality (Bell et al., 2014; Sabina & Ho, 2014). Starzynski and Ullman (2014) highlighted the importance of female survivors being in control of the disclosure process, including who they tell and when, and the control helps the survivor in further help-seeking behaviors.

**Benefits of the disclosure process.** Researchers found the physical and mental health of the survivors improved when the survivor disclosed to informal and formal support systems (Iacovelli & Johnson, 2012; Koo et al., 2015; Krivoshey, Adkins, Hayes, Nemeth, & Klein, 2013; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sorsoli et al., 2008; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014). Although researchers found disclosure at any time was beneficial, some researchers stated early disclosure of the event improved the recovery process by connecting the survivor to support services sooner (Krivoshey et al., 2013; Sorsoli et al., 2008; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014). Disclosure to informal support may lead to help-seeking behavior from formal support systems (Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013). The reaction from peers and family members the survivor told, their responses, and their knowledge of resources available influenced the survivor's future help-seeking behaviors (Bell et al., 2014; Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015; Starzynski & Ullman, 2014).

**Limitations of the disclosure process.** Although the disclosure process had benefits for the survivor, the process also had negative results. Researchers found negative reactions from informal and formal support systems can impede the recovery process of the survivor (Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Iacovelli & Johnson, 2012; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sigurvinsdottir & Ullman, 2015). Sigurvinsdottir and Ullman (2015) found negative reactions during the disclosure process negatively impacted the physical and mental health of the survivor, and positive reactions had minimal effects on the survivor. Iacovelli and Johnson (2012) also found that negative reactions increased the stress of the survivor.

The gender of the survivor and person they disclosed to had an impact on the survivor (Bell et al., 2014). Female survivors preferred to seek help from female professionals (66% versus 33% had no gender preference), and 50% of male survivors preferred female professionals, 25% preferred male providers, and 25% have no gender preference (Bell et al., 2014). Although researchers found female survivors are more likely to disclose to female peers (Bell et al., 2014; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sable et al., 2006), no research provided insight on the gender or type of support male survivors initially disclosed the assault to, except that male survivors were less likely to disclose (Bell et al., 2014; Sable et al., 2006). Overall, informal support systems are the preferred groups the survivors begin the disclosure process with and very few of the survivors report the incident to law enforcement (Bell et al., 2014; Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Koo et al., 2015; Krivoshey et al., 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Sable et al., 2006).

**Secondary Victimization**

Campbell and Raja (2005) described secondary victimization as attitudes, practices, and behaviors of professionals resulting in additional victimization and trauma to the survivor. These beliefs stem from the acceptance of rape myths by service providers, such as doctors, nurses, counselors, and law enforcement professionals (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung, 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Tamarit et al., 2010). Campbell et al. (2001) found communities lacking victim services as another source of secondary victimization. Similar to negative reactions when a survivor disclosed to informal support systems, secondary victimization had negative effects on the survivors' mental and physical health and their long-term recovery (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Hung, 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Tamarit et al., 2010).

**Sources of secondary victimization**. Researchers found medical and mental health professionals and criminal justice professionals as the two main sources of secondary victimization (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Tamarit et al., 2010). The survivors experienced secondary victimization in four main areas: not receiving needed victim services, questioning the survivor about their behavior prior to and during the assault, the lack of a coordinated response, and the overall difficulty navigating the system (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung, 2013; Mendonça et al., 2016; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Strömwall et al., 2013; Tamarit

et al., 2010; Vohlídalová, 2015). Not receiving the desired help after a sexual assault stems from two sources. First is from informal support systems not being aware of services for the survivors (Sabina & Ho, 2014). The second source derived from providers not understanding what services a survivor wanted or needed (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001). Providing insufficient services to the survivors increased the survivor's self-blame, doubt, posttraumatic symptoms, and makes the survivor not want to continue receiving support (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Hung, 2013; Sabina & Ho, 2014).

Questions about the survivor's behavior before and during the sexual assault were the second source of secondary victimization identified by researchers (Campbell & Raja, 2005; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). Victim blaming actions by professionals, such as asking probing questions and the use of perceived insensitive language, increased the secondary victimization experienced by the survivors and increased self-blaming attitudes held by the survivor (Campbell & Raja, 2005; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). The lack of coordination between support systems was the third source of secondary victimization and is closely related to the inappropriate questioning behavior.

The survivors had to retell their story of the assault to each of the professional support systems they interacted with causing revictimization each time (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Mendonça et al., 2016; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). Additionally, each formal support system had individual goals, such as doctors treating injuries, counselors helping with mental health concerns, and law enforcement wanting to solve the crime; however, researchers did not find positive coordination between the systems to help the survivor

receive information on their options or to help interact with the services (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Mendonça et al., 2016; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). The lack of coordination may lead to the fourth source of secondary victimization, the difficulty of navigating the different systems.

   **Negative effects of secondary victimization.** Researchers found several negative effects of secondary victimization on the survivor (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung, 2013; Mendonça et al., 2016; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Strömwall et al., 2013; Tamarit et al., 2010). Emotional fatigue, shame, resentment, anger, blame, doubt, and revictimization are a few of the emotional responses to secondary victimization (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Hung, 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Tamarit et al., 2010). Additionally, the survivors felt resentment to seeking help and unsupported by the professionals provided to help to the survivors (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Hung, 2013; Sabina & Ho, 2014). The results of secondary victimization may lead to increased posttraumatic symptoms and overall poorer health of the survivors (Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Hung, 2013). Although all the survivors could experience secondary victimization, Campbell et al. (2001) found ethnic minority women and nonstranger rape survivors were at an increased risk of experiencing difficulties related to secondary victimization. The federal government provided support to all schools receiving federal funding through legislation and guidance documents to improve their response to sexual assault survivors within

institutions of higher education and to prevent secondary victimization (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014).

**Title IX and Other Laws Governing Response to Sexual Assault in Education**

Institutions of higher education have a legal obligation to provide a safe and secure environment for the students, faculty, and staff (C. M. Carroll et al., 2013). Increased incidents of sexual misconduct on college campuses are creating a significant concern for schools (Triplett, 2012). Several laws and a White House Task Force provided guidance for institutions on how to properly respond to acts of sexual misconduct (Bolger, 2016; Koss et al., 2014). Due to these laws, colleges and universities must respond to over 42 types of sexual behavior involving students, faculty, staff, and visitors (Koss et al., 2014). The different laws and the task force provided guidance to colleges and universities regarding how to prevent and respond to incidents of sexual misconduct (Bolger, 2016; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Novkov, 2016; Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014; Wies, 2015). Although the laws and guidelines are for all schools receiving federal funding, including public and private schools, school districts, and institutions of higher education (Department of Education, 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; The White House, 2014), the following will focus primarily on how the laws and guidance relates to colleges and universities.

**Laws Governing Colleges' and Universities' Response to Sexual Misconduct**

The federal government enacted several laws to govern how colleges and universities should respond to incidents of sexual misconduct, including sexual assault (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014; Wies, 2015). In

1990, Congress approved the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policies and Campus Crime Statistics Act (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). Commonly known as the Clery Act, the law requires schools to disclose crime statistics occurring on-campus and provide related crime information in an Annual Security Report (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). For uniformity, the Annual Security Report uses definitions of crimes provided by the FBI UCR (L. L. Dunn, 2014). The ultimate goal of the Clery Act is to inform stakeholders regarding criminal activity that occurred on-campus (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). As an amendment to the Clery Act, Congress passed the Campus Sexual Assault Victims' Bill of Rights of 1992 (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016). In addition to crime statistics, institutions of higher education must disclose and provide information about preventative and awareness programs (L. L. Dunn, 2014).

Although not specific to educational institutions, the Violence Against Women Act of 1994 (VAWA) addressed the physical and sexual safety of women (Wies, 2015). President Obama approved the 2013 VAWA Reauthorization, which included Section 304, commonly named the Campus SaVE Act (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). The Campus SaVE Act specifically addressed educational institutions and elaborated on the requirements of the Clery Act (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). Colleges and universities must report sexual assault, stalking, dating violence, and domestic violence in the Annual Security Report due to the Campus SaVE Act (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016; Wies, 2015). In addition to the added reportable crimes, colleges and universities must create and disclose policies and educational programs

outlining what constitutes sexual misconduct, what are victims' rights, and the disciplinary process related to incidents of sexual misconduct (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Wies, 2015). The Campus SaVE Act used the terms sexual misconduct instead of sexual assault or sexual violence and nonconsensual sexual conduct instead of rape (Wies, 2015).

In addition to federal regulations, President Obama and Vice President Biden created the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault in 2014 (Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014). The task force determined three priorities of colleges and universities (Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014). First, schools need to determine the extent of sexual misconduct occurring on-campus through Campus Climate Surveys (Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014). Second, universities must take steps to prevent sexual misconduct, specifically by engaging men in the prevention efforts (Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014). Finally, all individuals responding to complaints of sexual misconduct should receive training on how to respond to the survivors in a trauma-informed manner (Pinter, 2015; The White House, 2014). Although the above laws and guidance began in 1990, the original law regarding sexual misconduct on college campuses began in 1972.

**Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972**

> No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefit of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance. (Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX), 20 U.S.C. § 1681 (1972))

> President Johnson enacted the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to prevent discrimination

on the basis of sex in employment (K. Smith, 2016). In 1972, President Nixon extended

the civil rights protection President Johnson provided employees to the education sector

by signing Title IX (Novkov, 2016; K. Smith, 2016). The first legal case that used Title

IX to include sexual harassment as a form of sexual discrimination in higher education

was Alexander v. Yale University in 1977 (Bolger, 2016). Although Alexander v. Yale

University was the first case to identify sexual harassment as a form of sexual

discrimination, it was not until 1999 that the United States Supreme Court stated sexual

harassment was a form of sexual discrimination if it prevented the victim from full

educational opportunities (K. Smith, 2016).

In 1980, the federal government gave the DOE and the OCR administrative

oversight of Title IX (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K.

Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014; Triplett, 2012). The OCR enforces compliance

with Title IX through the withholding of federal funds and issuance of fines (Ali, 2011;

Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; K. Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014). In 2014,

the OCR published the names of 55 colleges and universities under investigation due to

the method the school mishandled Title IX incidents (Novkov, 2016). The office received

102 complaints against colleges and universities in 2014, a number that has been

increasing in recent years (M. J. Anderson, 2016).

Guidance letters and documents issued by the DOE and the OCR outline the

expectations and requirements for colleges and universities under Title IX (Ali, 2011; M.

J. Anderson, 2016; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S.

Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; K. Smith, 2016; The White

House, 2014; Wies, 2015). In 1997, the OCR issued a guidance document regarding disciplinary procedures and prevention programs for Title IX related incidents (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016). Four years later, the OCR informed school administrators that they are liable under Title IX if the administrators failed to take immediate and appropriate corrective actions of cases involving sexual misconduct (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016).

Notre Dame College and Eastern Michigan University created resolution agreements with the OCR in 2010 following the OCR's investigations related to the schools' mishandling of sexual harassment cases (Block, 2012). A few months later, the OCR sent all schools the April 2011 Dear Colleague Letter (DCL; Ali, 2011; Novkov, 2016). Although the 2011 DCL is not a legal document, it informed school administrators of the OCR's interest and intent to enforce Title IX as it relates to sexual harassment and sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016).

**2011 Dear Colleague Letter.** The DCL provided guidance to schools related to expectations the OCR would require to prevent and respond to Title IX related incidents (Ali, 2011; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Novkov, 2016). Although many believed the language of the DCL and other guidance documents were vague and contradictory (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016), C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) identified four main categories within the DCL. The analysis included the 1997 and 2001 guidance letters and the DCL, which echoed many of the same points as the previous documents (C. M. Carroll et al., 2013). Additional guidance provided by the OCR

(Lhamon, 2014, 2015) and The White House (2014) expanded the requirements of the DCL.

Noneducational proactive efforts were the first category identified by C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) in the DCL. The OCR require schools to create, publish, and disseminate information related to Title IX incidents (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). School administrators must create policies and grievance procedures for Title IX incidents and inform the campus community of the procedures (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Additionally, school administrators must disseminate definitions of sexual misconduct and provide preventative measures and educational material available to the campus community (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Finally, school administrators must identify at least one staff member as the Title IX Coordinator and that person is responsible for the school's compliance with the Title IX requirements (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Bagley et al. (2012) found that providing procedures and policies regarding sexual misconduct was critical to providing an open environment that values free-exchange of ideas and creating a community free of sexual discrimination.

Victim support services were the second DCL category identified by C. M. Carroll et al. (2013). The OCR require prompt remedies to minimize the negative

academic effects of sexual harassment (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; Bolger, 2016; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Other documents and the DCL suggested victim services, mental and physical health support, academic accommodations, housing reassignments, and escorts to classes as some remedies (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; Bolger, 2016; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). In the 2014 Question and Answers document, the OCR informed schools that the survivor should not incur additional cost for the remedies, such as being required to pay for counseling services (Bolger, 2016; Lhamon, 2014). The White House (2014) Task Force added confidential reporting options for survivors as a service colleges and universities should provide.

C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) found educational measures and services as the third category of the 2011 DCL. Within this category, C. M. Carroll identified three focal areas: training for the community, training for specific populations, and general educational materials and programs. Each new student, faculty, and staff member must receive information regarding what sexual misconduct is and how to report incidents (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Second, certain student populations, such as student-athletes and resident assistants, need additional training on preventing sexual misconduct and how to identify incidents of sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014).

In addition to dissemination of educational material outlined in the proactive efforts, colleges and universities must provide educational programs to students, faculty, and staff members (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Bystander intervention programs and programs engaging men to help prevent sexual misconduct are two educational programs highlighted by The White House (2014) Task Force. Anderton Chavez (2016) found that private colleges used educational workshops for Title IX related topics more than public universities and that four-year colleges provide more programs than community colleges. Overall, schools adhering to the OCR's policy guidelines have more educational programs than schools not following the OCR's guidelines (Anderton Chavez, 2016).

The final main category of the DCL identified by C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) was the incident investigation and judicial proceedings. In addition to providing prompt remedies, the OCR require schools to take immediate and effective steps to end sexual misconduct on-campus (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Block, 2012; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Rammell, 2014). Administrators conducting the investigation and judicial proceedings must receive training in trauma-informed techniques that help protect the victims and prevent secondary victimization (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Triplett, 2012). Additionally, the OCR require administrators to use the preponderance of the evidence standard for Title IX related investigations (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Triplett, 2012).

Colleges and universities cannot delay their investigation due to pending or concurrent criminal investigations conducted by law enforcement agencies (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Triplett, 2012). Additionally, investigations should continue even if the victim preferred to remain confidential (Ali, 2011). The OCR's requirements to end sexual misconduct on-campus required schools to investigate all reports of incidents, no matter the external circumstances, to ensure the school is providing a safe environment for all community members (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Triplett, 2012). Additionally, school administrators should routinely review cases to identify systematic concerns of sexual misconduct and take corrective measures to end systemic problems or concerns (L. L. Dunn, 2014; Rammell, 2014).

**Overview of Title IX requirements.** Although C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) provided an analysis of the DCL and other guidance documentation, the OCR provide broad guidelines colleges and universities must follow to limit liability under Title IX. First, schools must respond to incidents of sexual misconduct when they know or should have known the incident occurred (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015). Second, school administrators must provide training regarding policies, procedures, definitions, and methods of reporting incidents of sexual misconduct to all members of the campus community (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015). Colleges

and universities must also publish and disseminate the above information (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015). Finally, the OCR requires schools to extend Title IX protections to all students, faculty, and staff members, no matter their gender identity, sexual orientation, immigration status, or disability of the victim(s) or perpetrator(s) involved (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Bolger, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015).

**Limitations of Title IX and concerns of implementation.** The OCR provided several documents to assist school administrators in understanding their requirements under Title IX; however, many scholars criticized the office for their use of vague and inconsistent language and guidance that seemed contradictory to other laws and documents (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016). Terms like victim and perpetrator are inconsistent with colleges' and universities' terminology of complainant and respondent (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016). Additionally, researchers argue that requiring both the victim and perpetrators to receive outcomes of judicial hearings is contradictory to the privacy requirements of the Federal Educational Rights and Privacy Act (K. Smith, 2016).

K. Smith (2016) found the inconsistencies between colleges' and universities' implementation of the OCR's guidelines was due to the vagueness of the guidelines. C. M. Carroll et al. (2013) discovered the OCR's guidelines do not consider the size of the

school and that larger universities faced greater struggles implementing the requirements

due to their large size and decentralized organizational structure. Paul (2016) noted the

lack of financial support provided with the increased requirements of the DCL affect

small- and medium-sized schools that already face funding struggles.

In addition to vague language and lack of financial support, lawyers expressed

concerns with the requirements of Title IX (M. J. Anderson, 2016; S. Edwards, 2015).

First, Triplett (2012) explained the implementation of the OCR's guidelines created legal

concerns for the school. Although the United States Supreme Court ruled that students

did not have a constitutionally protected due process in the educational setting, schools

experienced litigation from Title IX related hearings, specifically the lower standard of

proof and the lack of legal representation (M. J. Anderson, 2016; S. Edwards, 2015;

Triplett, 2012). Jed Rubenfeld, a Yale Law School professor, argued that college

administrators do not have the qualifications to conduct judicial investigations and

hearings of complicated incidents, such as sexual misconduct cases (S. R. Edwards &

Vogel, 2015). M. J. Anderson (2016) summarized the issue by stating lawyers have

concerns about school administrators governing sex.

### Male Survivors of Sexual Assault

Clark (2014) stated male victims of sexual assault find themselves behind a

curtain of silence. One reason for the silence is the underreporting by male survivors of

sexual assault due to cultural norms and endorsement of male rape myths (Artime et al.,

2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). In addition to

underreporting by male survivors, the topic is understudied by researchers resulting in not

completely understanding the significance of the issue (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Male victimization occurs for similar reasons that female victimization occurs – patriarchal structures of oppression (Turchik & Edwards, 2012); however, societal norms and male rape myths increased the stigma associated with male victimization (Clark, 2014).

**Prevalence of Sexual Assault of Males**

Although underreported and understudied, researchers identified wide ranges of the prevalence of sexual assaults of males (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012). O'Brien et al. (2015) estimated male victims accounted for 0.02% to 6.00% of military sexual trauma during the previous year. Turchik (2012) estimated 3% to 8% of American and British men experienced adult sexual assault. Additionally, 18.5% to 31% of college males experienced sexual victimization during the year before Turchik conducted the study. Forde and Duvvury (2016) noted approximately 20% of males living in Ireland reported incidents of sexual assault. Maxwell and Scott (2014) estimated that males are 1.5 times less likely than females to report being sexually assaulted by a male perpetrator. Sexual assaults perpetrated on males by females have an even lower reporting rate (Maxwell & Scott, 2014). Cook et al. (2016) found the perpetrators of male victimization are approximately equal across biological sex categories with 51% of the perpetrators identified as male and 43% female. When examining male sexual victimization that occurred in prison, the biological sex of the majority of the perpetrators was female (Cook et al., 2016). In addition to not reporting, Artime et al. (2014) found

that 76% of male victims of sexual assault do not acknowledge they are victims.

**Barriers to Disclosing and Help-Seeking Behaviors for Male Victims**

As previously discussed, the survivors of sexual assault, especially male victims, do not report the incident due to a range of reasons, including the barriers the survivors face when disclosing (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Both male and female victims of sexual assault experience similar concerns after the assault, such as increased negative mental health diagnosis; however, male survivors encounter additional barriers to service (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Cook et al., 2016; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Javaid, 2015; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). Researchers identified some of the additional barriers male victims endured as increased victim blaming, having their sexual and gender identities questioned, and fear of humiliation or shame (Bell et al., 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Male victims are less likely to report the incident to informal and formal support systems because the disclosure process reported by male victims is more traumatic than the assault (Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014). The barriers preventing disclosure and help-seeking behavior by male survivors developed from the endorsement of male rape myths and social constructs, such as acceptance of traditional gender roles of masculinity (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Cook et al., 2016; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Javaid, 2015; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012; Voller et al., 2015).

**Social constructs.** Male victims of sexual assault face a veil of silence regarding the victimization due to cultural beliefs (Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Researchers found cultural beliefs held by members of the society helped to create laws, policies, and social norms that impact male survivors (Javaid, 2015; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Forde and Duvvury (2016) stated societal gender roles significantly impact how male survivors process the trauma associated with sexual assault.

Gender is a social construct of masculinity and femininity culturally defining how the different biological sexes, specifically male and female, should act (Bell et al., 2014; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Javaid, 2015). Javaid (2015) defined the hegemonic views of masculinity as the dichotomy of society's views of the ideal dominant masculine male and the submissive masculine male not meeting society's ideal image. These ideas created the traditional views of masculinity and femininity that impacted the community's response to male victimization (Javaid, 2015; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012).

**Traditional gender roles.** Individual cultures created the society's views of traditional gender roles and can vary community to community (Currier & Manuel, 2014). Researchers found the different societal gender roles affect how male victims of sexual assault process the incident (Artime et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Male victims of sexual assault question their behavior and the incident in terms of society's views of masculinity (Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). One researcher

found male victims of sexual assault who strongly endorsed traditional gender roles experienced increased denial and shame and participated in less help-seeking behaviors (Turchik, 2012). The feminist rape reform movement of the 1960s excluded males within the framework of sexual assault victims creating increased difficulty for male victims to label the event a sexual assault (Currier & Manuel, 2014). Social norms of gender influence the daily lives of all people.

Clark (2014) proposed sexual assault incidents, especially sexual assaults of male victims, are a crime against a person's identity. A male victim who identified as gay and perceived his sexuality was the target of the sexual assault may deny or suppress this part of his identity (Clark, 2014). Ng (2014) found that gay male inmates that experienced sexual assault while in prison faced a *what did you expect* attitude from administrators.

Male victims of sexual assault experienced a violation of their sexual identity (Clark, 2014). Researchers identified fear of being labeled as gay and questioning their sexual orientation are common concerns male victims of sexual assault experienced (Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Turchik, 2012; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Additionally, an incident of sexual assault was a violation against a male's identity as a masculine male (Clark, 2014). Forde and Duvvury (2016) found that societal views of masculinity included strength and control that males internalize. The internalized views affect a male victim's actions after a sexual assault, including help-seeking behavior and disclosing the incident (Forde & Duvvury, 2016). Bell et al. (2014) added that sexual assaults against males may lead to males questioning their gender identity within societal norms. One researcher summarized the attack on male victims' identity by

stating:

> [W]hen men report sexual victimization, they are publicly admitting that they
> were not interested in sex, were unable to control situations, and were not able to
> take care of matters themselves – all statements that run counter to hegemonic
> constructs of masculinity. (Weiss, 2010, p. 293)

In short, gender is how men and women evaluate their worth and sexual assaults attack that identity (Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014).

**Male rape myths.** Male rape myths are a subset of rape myths previously discussed but are specific to male victims of sexual assault. Examples of male rape myths include: males cannot be raped, real men can defend themselves against an attack, only gay men can be victimized, men are not affected by rape, women cannot rape men, inmates are the only males that are raped, gay men deserve to be raped because of their immoral and deviant lifestyle, and the physical response of a male indicates he enjoyed the attack (O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). These myths exist due to social norms and general expectations of ideal masculinity and femininity (Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Society views masculinity as dominant, powerful, and sexually aggressive and femininity as passive, submissive, and sexually reluctant (Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012).

Turchik and Edwards (2012) found that 4% to 49% of male college students and 2% to 27% of female college students endorsed or accepted rape myths. Male rape myth acceptance extended beyond peers and family members of male victims, to include

mental health, medical, and law enforcement professionals (Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Researchers found that the acceptance of male rape myths created devastating consequences for male victims of sexual assault (Turchik & Edwards, 2012). O'Brien et al. (2015) focused on male victims of military sexual trauma and found direct links between male rape myths and the behaviors and emotions the myths created for the survivor. The myth that men cannot be raped related to nondisclosure and lack of help-seeking behavior (O'Brien et al., 2015). Sexual dysfunction and questioning their sexual orientation arose from the myth that only gay men can be victims (O'Brien et al., 2015). The belief that men are not affected by rape or that male rape is not as serious as female rape may lead to increased mental health concerns for male survivors (O'Brien et al., 2015).

Stereotype reconciliation occurred when a society or profession ignored research because it is contrary to societal norms and focused on widely held stereotypes to base future action (Buchanan, 2012). The lack of evidence-based practices and nongender-neutral language in the rape reform movement are examples of stereotype reconciliation related to male victimization (Buchanan, 2012). Sexual assault policies, laws, and support systems use nongender-neutral language (Clark, 2014; Ng, 2014; The White House, 2014). The FBI UCR changed their 1929 definition of sexual assault in 2012 to include nongender-specific language, although some state laws identified victims as females and perpetrators as male (DeMatteo et al., 2015; Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014a; Ng, 2014). Vice President Biden used gender-specific language in the *Not Alone* document stating:

> Freedom from sexual assault is a basic human right… a nation's decency is in large part measured by how it responds to violence against women… our daughters, our sisters, our wives, our mothers, our grandmothers have every single right to expect to be free from violence and sexual abuse. (The White House, 2014, p. ii)

The Violence Against Women Act is another example of gender-specific terminology in laws that perpetuate male rape myths and traditional gender roles. Male rape myths, terminology, and social norms affect male survivors in multiple ways (Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015).

**Effects of Sexual Assault on Male Victims**

Male victims of sexual assault face similar concerns as their female counterparts, in addition to the previously described barriers (Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). Researchers identified social constructs and traditional gender roles as concerns that prevent males from disclosing information about sexual assaults and seeking assistance from support systems (Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014). Possibly due to the lack of help-seeking behaviors, researchers found male survivors of sexual assault experienced greater negative mental health concerns when compared to female survivors (Bell et al., 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). O'Brien et al. (2015) identified 65% of male survivors experienced PTSD symptoms compared to 46% of female survivors. Male survivors encountered a higher number of psychological hospitalizations and psychological symptoms (O'Brien et

al., 2015; Turchik, 2012; Voller et al., 2015). Additionally, male victims experienced greater substance abuse concerns than female victims (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012). Male survivors also reported increased sexual dysfunction and increased risky behavior when compared to female survivors (O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik, 2012). Without identifying support systems, male survivors continue to struggle and find difficulty coping with the trauma of sexual assault (Forde & Duvvury, 2016).

**Improving Response for Male Victims of Sexual Assault**

Although research and services related to male victimization are lacking, researchers identified two areas to improve the response experienced by male survivors (Buchanan, 2012; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). The first area of improvement identified is legislative and policy reform (Ng, 2014; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Ng (2014) stated that policy and law reform would have the greatest positive impact to assist male survivors. An increased focus on gender-neutral language is one step to improve laws and policies (Clark, 2014; Ng, 2014). The OCR highlighted that Title IX included all school community members, including those that do not identify with traditional masculine and feminine stereotypes (Lhamon, 2014, 2015).

The second area of improvement was training for professionals and gender-specific services for male victims (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). To limit secondary victimization male survivors experienced, all professionals who respond to victims should receive training regarding male rape myths and the impact of societal norms on male victims (Forde & Duvvury,

2016; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). Additionally, services designed for male victims will improve the help-seeking behaviors of male survivors (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Buchanan (2012) highlighted the importance of using evidence-based practices when creating services for rape survivors, especially male victims.

Great Britain began reforming policies, laws, and services to include male survivors (Ng, 2014). The changes created a societal commitment to be more open and accepting of male survivors to improve their recovery (Ng, 2014). Other countries, including the United States, can follow the lead of Great Britain to identify rape reform that responds to all victims (Ng, 2014).

**Summary**

Sexual assault is a widespread problem leading to multiple concerns for the survivor (Aronowitz, 2014; Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Bertram & Crowley, 2012; Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Giovannelli & Jackson, 2013). Male survivors face additional struggles due to societal norms related to traditional gender roles and cultural views of masculinity (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Colleges and universities received guidance from the OCR on how to respond to incidents of sexual misconduct (Ali, 2011; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; Novkov, 2016; The White House, 2014). Institutions of higher education must provide services related to Title IX concerns to all genders; however, small colleges face financial difficulty when implementing the OCR's requirements (C.

M. Carroll et al., 2013; Paul, 2016; K. Smith, 2016).

Although researchers identified secondary victimization and societal views of masculinity as concerns for male survivors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015), no researcher as examined how small colleges address these concerns in light of the OCR's guidance. Additionally, researchers examined concerns related to the OCR's guidelines (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016), but no researcher focused on the OCR guidelines specific to male survivors of sexual misconduct. The current study addressed these gaps by describing how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges addressed concerns related to male survivors to increase their resiliency and decrease secondary victimization.

The current study used qualitative multiple case study to describe the phenomena of secondary victimization related to male survivors of sexual misconduct attending small colleges. I interviewed Title IX Coordinators at small colleges to gather data to describe the phenomena and apply critical theory to develop transformative action leading to social change. Chapter 3 will provide additional information related to the methodology of the current study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The current study's purpose was to describe how small colleges implement the guidance provided by the OCR related to Title IX for male survivors of sexual misconduct. Sexual misconduct, including sexual assault, is a concern all communities experience; however, the unique environment of a college campus intensifies the negative effects of assault (Bolger, 2016; DeMatteo et al., 2015; Flack et al., 2016; Pinter, 2015). Additionally, The White House (2014) highlighted the concerns facing the higher education environment and encouraged universities to improve their environments regarding Title-IX-related incidents.

Universities have received guidance on best practices related to preventing and responding to incidents of sexual misconduct from the OCR (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). Lhamon (2015) specifically stated that Title IX refers to all genders, including those individuals not identifying with traditional gender roles. Although the OCR had provided guidance and researchers had assisted in clarifying administrators' responsibilities (Ali, 2011; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014), Novkov (2016) stated that the OCR investigations of universities related to mishandling incidents of sexual misconduct cases had increased in recent years. Paul (2016) highlighted the financial concerns that small- and medium-sized colleges faced when implementing the OCR regulations. Additionally, some researchers have discussed the vagueness of the OCR documents as leading to misunderstanding of the requirements (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016).

Not providing proper support and services to the survivors of sexual assault increases long-term concerns for the survivors and increases secondary victimization (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Hung, 2013). Male survivors are at increased risk of secondary victimization due to traditional gender roles and societal norms (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Clark, 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). By presenting a multiple case study of Title IX Coordinators at small colleges, the current study describes the services and policies available to male survivors of sexual misconduct. Cross analysis and comparison of the descriptions provided by participants provide an in-depth understanding of possible secondary victimization leading to decreased survivor resiliency.

Chapter 3 provides detailed information related to the research design and methodology of the study. Additionally, I describe how I addressed and increased the trustworthiness of the current study. Finally, I address ethical concerns related to the current study and how I ensured the ethical treatment of the participants.

## Research Design and Rationale

The ways in which college administrators implement the Title IX and the OCR guidelines unique to male survivors of sexual misconduct constituted the central phenomena of interest for the current study. Title IX is the federal regulation addressing gender-based discrimination within institutes of education (Ali, 2011; M. J. Anderson, 2016; Block, 2012; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; L. L. Dunn, 2014; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; K. Smith, 2016; The White House, 2014). The OCR is the government office enforcing Title IX regulations (M. J. Anderson, 2016; Block, 2012;

Bolger, 2016; Novkov, 2016; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016; Triplett, 2012; Wies, 2015). The research question for the current study, which guided the study and data collection methods, was the following: How do Title IX Coordinators at small colleges address concerns of male sexual misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by the OCR related to Title IX regulations?

The purpose of the study, describing the implementation of policies, followed in the tradition of qualitative multiple case study research. O'Reilly and Parker (2013) stated that qualitative research provides researchers the opportunity to understand several opinions and representations related to the phenomenon studied. Case study methodology allows researchers to study phenomena in their natural environment (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Houghton et al., 2013). Additionally, case study research provides a method of understanding phenomena as they relate to the environment (Houghton et al., 2013). For the current study, case study methodology allowed for an understanding of policy implementation when considering the collegiate environment. Using multiple case study methodology allows researchers to describe a phenomenon within one case and compare the phenomenon across cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Houghton et al., 2013). Finally, multiple case study increases the validity and generalizability of results (McGuiggan & Lee, 2008), increasing the transferability of the current study's findings to other colleges and sexual assault response organizations.

**Role of Researcher**

My role in the current study was the sole researcher. I conducted the interviews, collected supporting documents, and conducted the analysis of the data. The cases used in

the current study were college administrators at small colleges, specifically Title IX

Coordinators. Although I currently work in the higher education profession and have

been employed by several colleges and universities across the United States, I did not use

participants I had professional or personal relationships with or who were employed by

colleges that previously employed me. Additionally, when I sought to recruit participants

from an organization's membership, I used an organization that I was not currently

involved with and had not been a member of in the past.

   An area of power imbalance was my current professional position as a university

police officer and a licensed Texas Peace Officer. Although my training as a police

officer benefited me as an interviewer, my connection with law enforcement may have

concerned participants and limited their openness during the interviews. O'Reilly and

Parker (2013) stated that transparency is a sign of quality qualitative research. For the

current study, transparency began during the participant selection process. I informed all

participants that, as a police officer, I am also a mandatory reporter of situations

presenting danger to vulnerable populations such as children, the disabled, and the

elderly, and I may have to report felony-equivalent crimes. The informed consent

document included the mandatory reporting disclosures.

   To assist in mitigating reporting concerns, I selected colleges outside the State of

Texas, decreasing my reporting obligations. Additionally, I focused questions toward the

OCR regulations that are not legal statutes. Although the OCR regulations are not laws,

failure to follow the regulations has a significant impact on institutions of higher

education (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015; The White House, 2014). To mitigate

concerns related to reporting, I ensured confidentiality for the Title IX Coordinators and the college they represented.

Morse (2015) identified researcher bias as common in qualitative research. The first bias is what Morse termed the *pink elephant* and McGuiggan and Lee (2008) described as a *lack of precision*. Researchers who have extensive knowledge in their area of study—as I did in this study, given my previous professional responsibilities and detailed research—will anticipate responses from participants (Cope, 2014; McGuiggan & Lee, 2008; Morse, 2015; Petty et al., 2012). To prevent my bias from affecting the results, I maintained a neutral stance by keeping detailed notes related to my beliefs and thoughts during the project (Cope, 2014; Morse, 2015; Petty et al., 2012). Journaling and note taking allowed me to bracket my personal bias and knowledge (Cope, 2014; Morse, 2015). Additionally, researchers have suggested providing detailed information that connects conclusions to the data collected.

**Methodology**

**Participant Selection**

The goal of participant selection in qualitative research methods is to identify cases that will provide rich descriptions of the phenomenon studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Suri, 2011). For the current study, the units of analysis were the college response programs and services available for the survivors of sexual misconduct. To gather rich data regarding the unit of analysis, the units of observation were Title IX Coordinators at institutions of higher education. I used variations of purposeful—maximum variation, purposeful—extreme case sampling, and random sampling to identify the participants for

the study.

Purposeful sampling allows for the selection of cases that provide data-rich participants to better understand a phenomenon of interest (Mack et al., 2005; Suri, 2011). Two types of purposeful sampling are maximum variation sampling and extreme case sampling. Maximum variation sampling increases diversity within the sample cases by selecting from a wide range of participants (Suri, 2011). The use of technology and video conferencing allowed for broader geographical selection of cases (Janghorban et al., 2014). Extreme case sampling allowed for data gathering from successes and failures (Suri, 2011) in programs and services for the survivors of sexual misconduct. Finally, random sampling decreases researcher bias by removing selection bias from the researcher (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016).

To identify data-rich cases, I applied two criteria for participation in the study. First, the participants needed to have the role of Title IX Coordinator at a small college. The Trustees of Indiana University (2015) identified small colleges as institutions with a full-time equivalent enrollment ranging from 1,000 to 2,999 students. Second, the colleges represented by the participants needed to be located outside the State of Texas and could not be one of my previous employers. The criteria for the extreme cases encompassed colleges with multiple programs for male survivors or multiple incidents involving male survivors of sexual misconduct. For the opposite extreme cases, I identified colleges that were recently investigated by the OCR for the mishandling of sexual misconduct incidents.

**Participant Recruitment Process**

Suri (2011) suggested finding a key informant to assist in identifying participants who will provide rich data. I initially recruited participants through a national organization's membership. According to the organization's website, the organization attracts administrators for the purpose of training and collaboration. The organization's membership email distribution list provided access to a broad range of Title IX Coordinators employed by small colleges. Additionally, I identified potential participants whose schools had been investigated by the OCR by reviewing *The Chronicle of Higher Education's* (2016) Title IX: Tracking Sexual Assault Investigations website. After initial email contact, I followed up with potential participants via telephone to ensure that they met the study criteria. I also researched the individual colleges' website to ensure that the colleges met The Trustees of Indiana University (2015) definition for a small school.

**Sample Size and Saturation**

The goal of the above process was to achieve a sample population of at least 30 cases, from which, using random selection, I identified a sample of four. Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, and Rontenot (2013) stated that researchers should derive sample size based on previous research in the field. A review of qualitative studies focused on sexual assault identified sample sizes ranging from two to 68 (Barrett & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2013; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Currier & Manuel, 2014; Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Hipp et al., 2015; Koo et al., 2015; Kushmider et al., 2015; McMahon & Dick, 2011; Turchik et al., 2013; Wijk, 2014). Additionally, Mason (2010) reviewed 179 qualitative case study PhD dissertations and determined that sample

sizes ranged from one to 95. A sample size of four was within the sample sizes identified above.

Data saturation is the gold standard of sample diversity within qualitative research (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Suri, 2011). Researchers have defined data saturation as the point when data collection techniques no longer produce new insight, themes, or perspectives (Fusch & Ness, 2015; O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Suri, 2011). Additionally, Suri (2011) stated that data saturation occurs when a researcher receives sufficient data to answer the study's research question. Although data saturation was a goal, I recognized that it may not be possible to collect data to the point of not identifying new themes due to the multiple external factors that can affect college policy development and due to the debate over the guidelines provided by the OCR (M. J. Anderson, 2016; L. S. Johnson, 2015; Rammell, 2014; K. Smith, 2016). Additionally, Mason (2010) found that some researchers have difficulty identifying when they reach saturation during the data collection process.

For the current study, a sample size of four was sufficient for reaching data saturation, as defined by Suri (2011). Researchers have stated that differences within a participant pool require a larger sample size to achieve data saturation (Elo et al., 2014; Mason, 2010). Although the current study's participants were from different geographical locations and different colleges, the similarities among participants, such as all participants being Title IX Coordinators at small schools, allowed for data saturation with a smaller sample size. Additionally, because I used multiple participant selection methods, including purposeful, random, and maximum variation, fewer participants with

rich case information allowed for data saturation (Mack et al., 2005; O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Suri, 2011). Finally, Mason (2010) suggested that the use of multiple data collection methods, as in this study, permits researchers to use a smaller sample size while still achieving data saturation. Therefore, a sample size of four provided an adequate sample size to reach data saturation for the current study.

**Instrumentation**

After I had prescreened the participants, my next contact with them was a phone conversation lasting approximately 30 minutes. The phone interview had three objectives. First, I explained the study in more detail and answered any questions from the participants. I explained any potential conflicts of interest, including my role as a Texas Peace Officer, and the technological requirements for the web-based interview. Second, I explained the informed consent form, which the participants received via email before the phone interview. The participants returned the signed informed consent form to me, and the form was reviewed again at the beginning of the primary data collection interview. Finally, I collected demographic information based on an instrument I created (Appendix A), and I provided a unique identifier for each participant.

The primary data collection method involved a web-based video interview using an interview protocol I developed (Appendix B). Data collection during the interview included handwritten notes and a digital recording of the video interview. The web-based interviews lasted approximately one hour. I created the interview protocol based on the literature review on sexual assaults, male victimization, Title IX (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; C. M. Carroll et al., 2013; Javaid, 2015; Koss et al., 2014; Landström, Ask,

& Sommar, 2015; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Paul, 2016; K. Smith, 2016; Turchik & Edwards, 2012), and the critical theory conceptual framework (Hadfield, 2012; Jacobs, 2014; Kilgore, 2001; Martin & Kitchel, 2015; Mendieta, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015; Wellmer, 2014; Winans-Solis, 2014). The focus of the interview protocol was to better understand the environment and norms that Title IX Coordinators experience at their campuses and to describe oppression that male survivors may face through provided services and policies. After the interview, the transcribed interview notes were available for the participants to review as part of the member checking validation process.

In addition to the primary interview, I conducted a review of the institution's website for each participant using the website data collection protocol I created (Appendix C). The website review served two objectives. First, it provided a basic understanding of the institution's Title IX process and services available for a survivor that would better prepare me for the primary interview. Second, reviewing the website after the interview provided validation or identified discrepancies in the information given by the participant. Additionally, I reviewed *The Chronicle of Higher Education's* (2016) investigation tracking tool to identify past or current OCR investigations at the college (Appendix D).

Researchers have suggested that multiple data collection methods are useful in increasing a researcher's credibility (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Houghton et al., 2013; Petty et al., 2012). Due to the information collected through the literature review process, data collected via websites, and the OCR investigations, it was

important to document researcher bias throughout the data collection and analysis

process. Morse (2015) suggested maintaining a neutral stance to decrease research bias.

Additionally, to increase transparency and ensure a neutral stance, researchers have

recommended reflective journaling to outline thought and decision-making processes to

ensure that they align with the data collected and the conceptual framework (Baxter &

Jack, 2008; Cope, 2014; Petty et al., 2012).

**Rationale for interview protocol.** The researcher developed interview protocol

had three objectives. First, I built a relationship with the participant, so they were

comfortable sharing information related to Title IX and the campus' procedures. Doody

and Noonan (2013) suggested the importance of building relationships between the

research and the participant to gain useful information. Communicating with the

participants at least two times before the primary interview assisted in the construction of

those relationships.

Because previous research has not focused on Title IX implementation at small

colleges specific to male complaints, I developed the primary data collection protocol

based on the literature review and conceptual framework. The first component of critical

theory is to gain knowledge (Hadfield, 2012; Kilgore, 2001; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-

Steele, 2015). To gain an understanding of the cultural, social, and political norms facing

the Title IX Coordinator and the campus, the interview protocol focused on questions

related to the campus environment and internal or external stakeholders that affect the

environment. Second, the questions allowed the Title IX Coordinator to share their

understanding of what services and procedures are available to male survivors that help

in identifying the possible oppressive norms at the college. The questions met the second objective of the protocol by addressing the research question regarding the conceptual framework. Appendix B outlines detailed information related to context validity based on previous literature.

The final objective of the interview protocol was to provide exit information to the participants. I provided information regarding current researchers addressing male survivors' concerns and contact information to the OCR Technical Assistance for the participant's geographical area. Additionally, I included information regarding the review of the transcripts and possible future contact if there was a need for more details.

**Data Analysis Plan**

**Transcription.** I collected data from three sources – the participant, the colleges' website, and the OCR investigation notes provided by *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (2016). Two transcription services transcribed the audio interviews from the participants into a word processing format. The transcription service companies signed statements of confidentiality prior to receiving the interview audio files.

To manage the data, I used the qualitative data management software Dedoose. I uploaded the interview text, as well as the video file, and all other collected data into the software program. After uploading the data, I verified the data was accurate by reviewing the transcriptions and requesting the participant to check the transcripts. I noted any discrepancies in my journal and discussed with the participant to determine the best interpretation.

**Coding procedures.** Researchers suggested reading the transcripts and listening to the interviews multiple times to become familiar with the data (J. A. Smith & Osborn, 2008). As I reviewed the transcripts, I noted in the margins of the printed transcript interesting topics and ideas presented by the participants, a style of coding Saldaña (2016) called manual or open coding. J. A. Smith and Osborn (2008) stated these notes are similar to free text analysis. When completed, I reviewed the *a priori* codes already established in the codebook and updated the codebook as needed with the manual coding notes. I began the coding process as I completed individual interviews and continuously reviewed the process to increase credibility and accountability (Gibbs & Taylor, 2010; Saldaña, 2016; J. A. Smith & Osborn, 2008). Additionally, I kept analytic memos, as suggested by Saldaña, to document the process of identifying codes.

Saldaña (2016) identified a two cycle coding process, which I employed in this study. The first cycle consisted of three types of coding methods: values, versus, and *in vivo* coding methods. Values coding identifies the values, attitudes, and beliefs of the participant (Saldaña, 2016) and the college staff, as it is understood by the participant. Versus coding identifies dichotomous terms and ideas expressed by the participant (Saldaña, 2016). Both of these methods will complement the research question and conceptual framework of this study. Finally, *in vivo* coding uses the participants' own words to assist in identifying themes and ideas (Saldaña, 2016). I used *in vivo* coding during the previous two methods and not as an individual third coding method. Second cycle coding provides a method of reorganizing the data and developing categories and

themes (Saldaña, 2016). The pattern coding method assisted in grouping similar codes and themes into a smaller number of categories and concepts (Saldaña, 2016).

Two types of analysis occurred simultaneously. Within-case analysis reviewed the data from one case campus, as previously described. The second type of analysis is cross-case analysis. Researchers stated cross-case analysis allows the researcher to identify similarities and differences between the different cases (McGuiggan & Lee, 2008; J. A. Smith & Osborn, 2008).

### Issues of Trustworthiness

Researchers described trustworthiness within qualitative research as ensuring rigor during the study that the audience evaluates based on the credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability of the final report (Anney, 2014; Cope, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Houghton et al. (2013) described credibility as the believability of the study, and Anney (2014) stated it was the degree of confidence that the findings are truthful. I used two methods to increase the credibility of the findings. First, I found multiple data sources, such as the participant, the colleges' website, and the OCR investigation overviews, to triangulate the data. Researchers stated triangulation ensures complete and accurate data (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Second, I allowed the participants to review the data after it was transcribed and after the initial analysis. Although Houghton et al. (2013) stated member checking should only be done after transcription to prevent participant concerns due to the analysis, I believe member checking after the analysis ensured appropriate researcher understanding and was helpful for the critical critique identified within the conceptual framework.

Transferability, or external validity, is the generalizability of the analysis (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Although qualitative studies do not achieve the same generalizability as quantitative studies, the report should provide enough detail to allow the reader to determine what is transferable (Houghton et al., 2013). I included thick descriptions of the raw data, including quotations and explanations regarding the analysis, to increase the transferability (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Additionally, the use of web-based interviews allowed for a broader geographical area of participants to identify similarities and differences across the country. This step increased the transferability of the findings.

Anney (2014) described dependability of qualitative studies as the stability of findings over time. Conformability relates to the objectivity of the findings and the degree other researchers can corroborate or confirm the findings (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). Although the two components of trustworthiness are different, researchers achieve both in the same manner (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). I used an audit trail and reflexive journaling to ensure both dependability and conformability. Both allowed me to document my decision-making processes throughout the study and provided explanations for the decisions made. Additionally, the journaling helped me to maintain a neutral stance and limit researcher bias. The data management software also maintained an audit trail to assist in documenting my steps and decisions.

Because I was the only person coding and analyze the data, I used code-recode strategies to increase the intra-code reliability. Anney (2014) described code-recode strategies as recoding data previously reviewed to ensure the duplication of codes. I noted

and reviewed any discrepancies to determine the influence on the study's reliability.

## Ethical Considerations

To ensure the ethical treatment of the participants, I completed the National Institutes of Health, Office of Extramural Research *Protecting Human Research Participants* (Certification Number 1491728) online course and received approval from the Walden University Institutional Review Board. Title IX Coordinators are not a vulnerable or protected class, and I collected only professional information. I informed the participants regarding the level of confidentiality, steps to ensure confidentiality, and the data retention procedures. The participants did not receive compensation, and the sample population did not include my current or past employers or any college in the State of Texas.

### Data Protecting and Retention

I digitally store the data collected during the interview process, including informed consent forms, observation notes, data collection protocols, journals, and other notes. Federer (2014) suggested storing three copies of digital data in two different formats in two different locations. I used a USB storage device, a CD, and data *cloud* storage to protect the data. During the study and while preparing the final report, I password protected the data collected while maintaining multiple digital copies. Personal identifying information, including the unique identifier key, was not in a digital format and was kept in a secured file cabinet at my residence.

After the submission and approval of the final study report, I will anonymize the stored data, as Lewis (2003) suggested. I will destroy all identifying material and review

the documents to ensure no identifiable data is available. Because audio and visual data cannot be anonymized (Lewis, 2003), only transcripts of the interviews will be retained.

Federer (2014) suggested researchers retain data for three to seven years. I will destroy the data five years after the final approval of the study report. The informed consent forms included a review of data protection and data retention methods.

**Protection of Participants**

Lewis (2003) stated the nature of qualitative research leads to unanticipated ethical concerns researchers must plan for and address the concerns. To anticipate and prevent ethical concerns, Lewis (2003) suggested several techniques, which I implemented. The informed consent form explained the purpose of the study, the confidential nature of the study, conflicts of interest I had, and the voluntary nature of the study. Lewis (2003) highlighted the importance reevaluation of informed consent before, during, and at the conclusion of the interviews.

Detailed explanations of confidentiality assisted in limiting possible ethical concerns (Lewis, 2003). I used unique identifiers and pseudonyms for the participant and their employer. Additionally, I limited detailed descriptions in the final report if it could lead to the identification of the participant or their institution (Lewis, 2003). I explained my mandatory reporting requirements during the informed consent process to limit concern of possible reporting due to disclosures by the participant (Lewis, 2003).

**Risk to Participants**

There was minimal to no risk to the participants in the study. The research question and data collection protocol focused on information related to services,

programs, and statistics that are public information and regularly reported to federal agencies. In addition to the above information, I asked questions to elicit the opinions of the Title IX Coordinator. Ensuring confidentiality helped to mitigate the risk associated with the participants providing honest yet negative responses towards the institution. Throughout the data collection process, I reiterated the voluntary nature of the study and that participants could withdraw from the study and have all previously collected data excluded and destroyed.

Although I did not anticipate adverse events occurring, if one had arisen, I would have contacted the Walden University Institutional Review Board. Additionally, I identified the university's Employee Assistance Program and local rape crisis support center that could provide immediate and local support. Finally, at the conclusion of the interview, I debriefed the interview process with the participant to identify possible concerns. The benefit of the study to male survivors of sexual assault and universities providing services to the survivors of sexual assault outweighed the limited risk associated with the participants.

## Summary

Chapter 3 provided information regarding the methodology and research design. A multiple case study of small college policies and services is appropriate to describe the implementation of the OCR regulations for incidents of male survivors of sexual assault. The study assisted in filling the gap in knowledge related to the intersectionality of small colleges, the OCR regulations, and male survivors. In-depth interviews, reviews of the colleges' website, and the OCR investigations provided multiple data collection points

and increased the credibility and trustworthiness of the study (Anney, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Additionally, the use of multiple participant selection methods and internet-based interviews increases the diversity of the participants allowing for the collection of rich descriptions of the phenomena (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Mack et al., 2005; Suri, 2011). I designed the data collection protocols based on the literature review and components of the critical theory conceptual framework.

To increase the trustworthiness of the study and decrease the researcher bias, I maintained journals and detailed notes regarding my decision-making processes and to ensure a neutral stance during the study (Anney, 2014; Cope, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Morse, 2015). Several steps, including Institutional Review Board approval and the use of informed consent forms, assisted in ensuring the ethical treatment of and limited the risk to all participants and their institutions. Chapter 4 will outline the findings from the multiple data collection methods.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter 4 details the results of data collection from four case institutions. The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore and analyze how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement the OCR's guidance related to policies and services to decrease secondary victimization experienced by male survivors of sexual misconduct. To achieve this purpose, I asked the research question: How do Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement policies and services for male sexual misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by the OCR related to Title IX regulations?

The following chapter outlines how I collected the data for the study and any discrepancies from the process described in Chapter 3. I provide an overview of the participants and case institutions. Next, I detail the data collection process and information about the four interviews. I describe the data analysis process and how I maintained trustworthiness of the study. Finally, I provide the results of the data collection process that I divided into five themes: procedures, services, equity, stakeholder influence, and participant background.

**Setting**

According to the participant recruitment process outlined in Chapter 3, I anticipated that participant selection would occur through the membership of a national organization and institutions previously or currently under investigation by the OCR. Due to inadequate responses when using the above methods, I expanded the participant pool to include all small colleges in the United States, excluding the state of Texas and my

previous work institutions. Using the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education (The Trustees of Indiana University, 2017), I created a list of 844 small colleges meeting the research criteria. Next, I randomized the list and sent a recruitment email to the first 90 colleges listed. Approximately 10 individuals responded to the recruitment email, and I selected the participants in order of response. The randomization of the list of colleges and the selection of the participants in order of response provided randomization of the participants, decreasing the influence of research bias (Etikan et al., 2016).

Second, I conducted all interviews via telephone and did not use video conferencing software. Each participant selected telephone interviews over video conferencing interviews for unknown reasons. Although the interviews did not use video conferencing software, I achieved the goal of diversifying the geographical area, including cases from four different states.

The above two changes to the selection process and interview method did not influence the data collection for the study. Including colleges not under investigation by the OCR and that may not participate in the national organization could broaden the results due to the increase in variation of cases. Second, the change in interview method from video conference to telephone-based interviews should not have affected the data collected. The following section provides detailed information about each participant.

## Case and Participant Demographics

I selected four cases and participants meeting the criteria of the study. The four colleges selected had FTE between 1,000 and 2,800, with an average FTE of 1,950

students. Two cases identified as private institutions and two identified as public schools. One case was a 2-year community college, and the remaining three were 4-year institutions. In terms of the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) regions, three of the colleges were in the Midwest region of the United States, and one was in the West region of the United States. According to City-Data (Advameg Inc., 2018), three of the cases were in *bigger cities* with a residential population over 6,000, and one was in a *smaller city* of 1,000 to 6,000 residents.

The four participants representing the cases were full-time employees of their respected college or university. Three of the participants identified themselves as the Title IX Coordinator, and one identified as the Deputy Title IX Coordinator. One participant was in a temporary position with the goal of reorganizing the division and updating the university's policies. Two of the participants identified as female, and two identified as male. The participants had educational backgrounds in higher education administration and psychology, and career backgrounds in student affairs and academic affairs.

According to the participants, each college experienced sexual-misconduct-related investigations during the 2017 calendar year. During the Fall 2017 semester, one participant stated that students reported four incidents of sexual misconduct. Two participants stated that students reported 10 incidents of sexual misconduct during the calendar year 2017. One participant stated that students reported about 60 incidents of sexual misconduct during the calendar year 2017. Three of the participants reported males reporting being victims of sexual misconduct, and one reported having three

nongender-binary students reporting incidents of sexual misconduct. Table 2 shows a summary of the cases and participants.

Table 2

*Case and Participant Demographic Information*

|  | College A | College B | College C | College D |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Size | 2,800 | 1,700 | 2,300 | 1,000 |
| State | Midwest | West | Midwest | Midwest |
| City size | Bigger city | Bigger city | Bigger city | Smaller city |
| Public or private | Private | Public | Private, religious | Public |
| OCR investigation | Yes | Yes | No | Yes |
| Total incidents | 60 | 10 | 4 (Fall 2017) | 10 |
| Female incidents | 49 | 9 | 4 | 9 |
| Male incidents | 8 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Nongender-binary incidents | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Participant pseudonym | Angela | Bill | Chris | Diana |
| Educational background | Higher ed admin | Educational psychology | Higher ed admin | Psychology |
| Career background | Student affairs | Academic affairs | Student affairs | Student affairs |

**Data Collection**

Before data collection, each participant consented, via electronic response, to the informed consent document provided. All participants who received the informed consent document received a list of at least three local agencies that could offer support before, during, or after the interview. Once I received the informed consent document, I scheduled the data collection interview with the participants.

I used three different protocols to collect data from cases in the study. The four participants participated in a 60- to 90-minute phone call to complete the interview protocol. The participants were in their office on their campus. I audio recorded three of the interviews, and I took notes during the interviews. Two transcription services

transcribed the recordings verbatim after signing nondisclosure agreements. Technological difficulties prevented Angela's phone interview from recording; however, I used the notes taken to summarize the interview. I followed up with the participants to clarify information collected during the interviews and to member check the transcripts and notes.

The second data collection method was a review of the colleges' website, specifically those pages pertaining to Title IX, the nondiscrimination policy, and the services provided to the survivors of sexual misconduct. I used the website protocol to guide the review of the website and to document information in a standard format. The review of the college's website included reviewing the websites of local and state resources identified within the college's website and policies.

Three of the colleges, Colleges A, B, and D, were currently or had been under investigation by the OCR. For these three colleges, I reviewed the OCR investigation notes publicly available in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (2016) and documented the investigations using the Title IX investigation protocol. Due to the different stages of the investigations, the publicly available data varied considerably between investigations.

**Variations and Unusual Circumstances in Data Collection**

**Variations in data collection.** During the data collection period, two variations occurred from the data collection plan in Chapter 3. First, all of the participants preferred interviewing via telephone instead of video conferencing technology. Similar to video conference technology, telephone interviewing provided a broader geographical area when compared to in-person interviews when on a limited financial budget.

Second, I selected one participant using a random selection method from a complete list of small colleges in the United States, rather than from the professional organization or the list of colleges under investigation by the OCR. This variation occurred due to lack of response from the previously outlined methods. I sent two recruitment emails to the professional organization's membership email list with an unknown number of members working at small schools and two recruitment emails to 62 Title IX Coordinators at small colleges under investigation by the OCR. Six individuals responded to the recruitment emails; however, one participant withdrew after the initial phone criteria interview due to concern regarding the sensitive nature of the study, and two participants stopped communicating with me before the initial phone interviews for unknown reasons.

Ninety Title IX Coordinators working at small schools received recruitment emails for the current study. I selected the 90 potential participants by compiling a list of 844 colleges and universities identified as small colleges by the Carnegie Classification for Institutions of Higher Education (The Trustees of Indiana University, 2017). I randomized the list, and I selected the first 90 schools listed as potential case candidates. Contact information for the Title IX Coordinators was publicly available via the individual college and university websites. I sent the recruitment email to 90 Title IX Coordinators, and I followed up with the Title IX Coordinators in order of responses received. The third Title IX Coordinator who responded met the criteria for the study and was willing to participate in the data collection process.

**Unusual circumstances in data collection.** Two unusual circumstances occurred during the data collection process. The phone interview with Angela did not record due to technology failure. During the interview, I took high-quality notes on Angela's responses. Second, I transcribed the notes immediately after the interview to ensure that I captured the essence of the interview with the participant. Finally, I shared my transcription with Angela to member check the transcription, ensuring that I included everything she wanted to be included and that the information I documented portrayed her intent. Angela provided minor edits to the transcript that I agreed with and incorporated in the interview transcription.

The transcription service that I used for my first interview, which I conducted with Bill, did not provide a high-quality transcription of the audio file. I corrected this by reviewing the audio file while reading the transcription and made appropriate corrections. A different company that provided high-quality verbatim transcriptions transcribed the remaining interviews.

**Effects of the variations and unusual circumstances in data collection.** The four incidents above did not significantly affect the data collection process. Phone interviews were similar to video conferencing technology in allowing for participants in different geographical areas. The participant selected using a different method allowed for broader variation in participants by not being a member of the professional organization and by not being at a college under investigation by the OCR. Member checking ensured that the transcription of the interview with Angela portrayed the information she wanted to share. Finally, I corrected the poor-quality transcription by

verifying the transcription against the audio file and changing companies for future transcriptions.

## Data Analysis

I followed the data analysis plan outlined in Chapter 3 for the different protocols used during the data collection process. The analysis began as I received each transcription of the interviews. I uploaded the protocols into Dedoose data management software, as well as the a priori codes. After becoming familiar with the data and ensuring the accuracy of the transcription, I began manual coding using the comment feature in Microsoft Word. The codes developed during the manual coding highlighted broad ideas and keywords or phrases. Next, I entered the manual codes into Dedoose software and the separate codebook. A priori coding occurred next. In addition to manual and a priori coding, I added descriptor codes to highlight demographic information about the cases and participants easily. After reviewing all transcripts, I organized the codes using common terms, words, and ideas across the cases. I developed new categories based on the grouped codes.

The next phase of the data analysis followed Saldaña's (2016) two-cycle analysis. During the first-cycle analysis, I coded using the values, versus, and in vivo methods. For values method coding, I grouped the codes by values, attitudes, and beliefs of the participants. I reviewed the values and versus codes with the previously developed categories. In a manner similar to the previous method, I grouped the codes according to common words, terms, and ideas, developing new categories.

During the second-cycle coding, I used the newly developed categories to recode the transcripts. After coding using the new categories, I conducted cross-case analysis and developed themes based on recurring ideas between cases. For example, Diana spoke about equity in the institution's policy, and Bill discussed treating people equally. The theme of equity developed using Diana's terminology.

Five themes developed during the coding process. *Procedures* was a broad theme encompassing all references to policies and procedures related to the survivors reporting sexual misconduct incidents, including the investigation and adjudication process and process of policy review. Excerpts related to on- and off-campus services provided to complainants, including on-campus counseling services and off-campus crisis centers, comprised the theme *services*. *Equity* developed through participant comments about real or perceived equity or equality in the policies and services provided to complainants of sexual misconduct.

*Stakeholder influence* included participants' comments regarding input or influence from stakeholders, such as students, faculty, staff, and community members, including the influence on policy from the political views of the surrounding community and campus environment. The final theme, *participant background*, focused on the participants' personal and political views, in addition to their educational and professional careers, and how those values and beliefs influenced their interpretation and implementation of the policies and procedures. Table 3 describes the themes identified during the coding process.

Table 3

*Themes Identified*

| Themes | Description |
| --- | --- |
| Procedures | Procedures related to the Title IX investigation and adjudication process, including policy review. |
| Services | Services, on- and off-campus, provided to the survivors through the Title IX Coordinator, college website, or college nondiscrimination policy |
| Equity | Real or perceived equity of the Title IX process |
| Stakeholder influence | Influence from community, faculty, staff, and students in the development or review of policies. |
| Participant background | Influence from the educational and professional backgrounds of the individual Title IX Coordinator. |

**Evidence of Trustworthiness**

I explained how I would address issues of trustworthiness in Chapter 3. Triangulation and member checking were the two methods I used to ensure credibility. Multiple data sources, such as the OCR investigation notes, college and university websites and policies, and interviews with the participants, assisted in the triangulation of data and in supporting comments made during the interviews. In Chapter 3, I stated that I planned for member checking to occur two times—once before the analysis, and once after. After reviewing the analysis, I decided not to share the analysis in raw form due to possible misunderstanding of the coding process and misunderstanding of the codes that may lead to a poor experience for participants.

As described in Chapter 3, I achieved transferability by providing rich descriptions, including quotes from the participants, of the data in the results section. Second, I selected cases with different characteristics to assist in expanding the generalizability of the analysis. In Chapter 3, I stated that I sought a broader geographical

area; however, three of the cases were located in the Midwest. The characteristics of the cases and participants included a wide variety. Two cases were public schools, and two were private. One case was a 2-year community college, and the other three were 4-year colleges that included some graduate programs. One college was a religiously based college, one had a former religious affiliation, and two had no church connection. The participants had different educational and career backgrounds, including academic and student affairs.

I achieved dependability and conformability by using an audit trail and reflexive journaling, as described in Chapter 3. Although my journaling was not extensive, I took notes in different methods to track and explain the decision-making process as I moved through the analysis. The notes and the codebook are examples of the audit trail of decisions making steps I took. Journaling, although limited, assist me in managing the influence of researcher bias effects on the analysis process.

**Results**

The data collection process for this study addressed the research question: How do Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement policies and services for male sexual misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by OCR related to Title IX regulations? Through the analysis of the data, including interviews with participants, the colleges or universities' websites and nondiscrimination policy, and the publicly available OCR investigation notes, I identified five themes within cases and across cases. The following will provide descriptions of the themes using the data collected.

**Procedures**

Each participant outlined the procedures their faculty and staff follow when someone reports an incident of sexual misconduct. The Title IX Offices' websites and nondiscrimination policy of each case supported the procedures outlined by the participants. Through the interviews, two separate ideas developed related to the *Procedure* theme – the reporting process and the review process.

**Reporting process.** The participants described the reporting process when a person discloses being the victim of sexual misconduct. Bill summarized this process by stating, "Basically, tell anyone…any of the staff or faculty." Angela provided College A's process that allows the victim to report to anyone in person, via email, or through a third party advocate. Next, the faculty or staff member hearing the disclosure needs to complete a report to submit the incident. College C's process allows any person who is a mandatory reporter to contact Chris by phone or email. Beginning the academic year 2018-2019, Chris stated the staff would implement a process to allow for anonymous and online reporting methods. Diana stated faculty or staff should "just write down everything you know."

Following the complainant reporting to someone, the individual will then meet with one of the Title IX Coordinators or investigators. Angela described this meeting as a safety assessment and informational meeting. Diana stated, "I make an appointment with them [the complainant]," and then allow the complainant to "talk their way through it [the incident] and guide me through what happened." Bill described the meeting with him or the campus security investigator as a method of determining if the incident rises to the

level of a policy violation or Title-IX-related incident. Bill continued by stating, "If it's determined that it's not Title IX…we try to resolve it in a different way." Similarly, Chris stated after the initial meeting, "We kind of take the next steps forward or don't take the next steps forward depending on how that conversation goes."

In addition to receiving information from the complainant, the Title IX Coordinators provide information to the survivors. Diana stated, "I try to lay out their options without…bullshitting them." Angela stated that the policy for College A is not to pressure the complainant in any direction and provide the options available to them. After the initial meeting, the Title IX Coordinators individualize the next steps for each incident, based on the needs of the complainant and the incident.

**Review process.** Each participant stated the procedures described above are not the process the colleges have always followed; however, the influence and regularity of the review process differ from each campus. Bill stated, "Some version of that process, I think, was – has been in place for, uh, since the, uh, the Dear Colleague Letters of 2011." Additionally, the staff updated the policy for College B two years ago after the staff received external training regarding Title IX regulations. Bill continued by stating the policy is "an evolving process" with an effort to discover "how could we do better."

The review process for College C is similar to the other cases, but it has unique characteristics that allowed Chris to implement significant change related to all policies, including the nondiscrimination policy. Chris was supervising the restructuring of the student affairs division within College C. When asked about the nondiscrimination policy and Title IX reporting policy, Chris stated, "I've worked with that [policy] for a number

of years and it's certainly the most concerning policy that we have on the book and I wanted to get in there and get it taken care of as quickly as possible." For the review of the policy, Chris used a professional organization's checklist as guidance. "It [the checklist] lays out everything that needs to be done but it also – it also laid out a number of areas that we were deficient in," Chris stated. In addition to creating a policy that addressed their deficiencies, Chris' goal was to make the policy user-friendlier, including the location of the policy. Chris stated, "We combined everything, made it a lot more user-friendly so it would be a lot easier to understand as to what the obligations were of the university and members of the community."

Where training influenced Bill and College B's policies development, Angela described 2012 as a perfect storm of student dissatisfaction and influence from the Dear Colleagues Letters. Angela explained that the students at College A are very progressive and push the staff in the direction of social change and ensuring the policies meet the student's needs. Due to this progressive culture, Angela stated all policies, including the Title IX policy, are reviewed on a regular basis. Angela described a significant difference that College A has that most small colleges do not have the luxury to experience – money. College A does not experience financial difficulties and, as Angela described, allows them to implement policies and procedures that many other small schools cannot due to financial restrictions.

Diana stated when she began as the Deputy Title IX Coordinator, "[The] first thing that I was taxed with was rewriting the Title IX policy." The policy was lacking in substance and Diana worked to update the policy to be more inclusive. Additionally, the

state legislation governing College D made legislative changes that significantly impacted the Title IX policy. Unlike College A, College B did not have the extensive resources and had to use the large state schools' Title IX policy until they were able to update their policy. Although the cases have different review processes that are influenced by different stakeholders, the policies have been reviewed at least once since 2011 and the implementation of the DCL.

**Services**

Per Title IX guidelines, the nondiscrimination policy for each college must contain resources for the victim to receive services. The four cases in this study provided on- and off-campus resources within their policy and, three of them provided links to the services on their website. Three of the cases provided one on-campus resource within their policy and College A provided four on-campus services. Two of the cases, College C and D, provided three off-campus resources and College A and B provided 13 and 12 resources, respectively.

Of the on-campus resources, three of the cases provided on-campus counseling via a counseling center. Diana stated College D provided "a campus counselor that's on-site and is free." Bill described College B's counseling center as having a "fairly lean staff in that area [sexual misconduct support]." College A and D's counseling center website provided information about services specific to sexual assault or domestic violence. College B's counseling center website did not provide a specific section related to sexual misconduct. College A provided additional resources to include the health

center, confidential advocates, and religious support services. The on-campus services identified on the college's websites provide services to all students.

College C does not provide on-campus counseling or health services to their students; however, Chris developed a program to assist students beginning the next academic year. At the time of the interview, students at College C received counseling and health services off-campus. Chris described one concern with off-campus was transportation. "Obviously, if they [students] don't have transportation, that becomes a difficult issue." Chris developed a partnership with an off-campus hospital that will begin providing on-campus services in the fall of 2018. "So one of the things that we've done is to develop a health and wellness program that will be instituted in the next fall on the campus." The new program will allow students unlimited access to the services, including mental health support. Although College C currently does not provide on-campus mental health services, Chris stated the community includes faith-based services common to a religious institution, including guidance and support provided by religious leaders.

Off-campus resources identified ranged in variety for the different colleges. College A's off-campus resources included local and national organizations that provide services to all genders. The majority of the services identified were specific for individuals that are victims of sexual misconduct. College B's website divided off-campus resources by counties served by the college. Of the 12 resources identified, four were specific to victims of sexual misconduct and the remaining were hospitals and police departments. The services provided were available to all genders. College C's off-

campus resources included two crisis centers and one local hotline available 24-hours a day. One of the centers identified that also operated the hotline, has the term *women* in the title, such as the Women's Crisis Center. However, the website description for the organization specifically stated their services are available for males and females. College D's off-campus resources included three crisis centers providing services for victims of sexual misconduct. One of the centers, similar to College C's resources, had the term *women* in the title. Unlike College C's resources, the center with *women* in the name provided services only to women and children and not male or nongender-binary individuals.

Bill stated the counseling center would "make referrals if people need, uh, long-term mental health assessments." Additionally, Bill stated, "We have relationships with community service agencies" to ensure the students receive the support needed during the recovery process. Although College D's website only provided three off-campus resources, Diana stated she had developed partnerships, such as the city housing agency, immigration services, and legal services, so that she can provide "soft transfers" for students. Diana takes the extra step of calling ahead for the student to provide a person of contact at the outside agency. When discussing one male complainant Diana worked with, she stated she did not know if the student used any of the off-campus resources because he did not request a soft transfer and, many of the services, are confidential.

## Equity

Diana stated, "We really pride ourselves on being equitable…for both parties." The participants shared sentiments of equitable treatment of all people involved in the

Title IX sexual misconduct incidents. Bill echoed the idea of equal treatment of all parties

by stating the policy "need[s] to be sure all parties are treated fairly and equally in the

process." Chris described College C's policy by stating, "We want everybody to be

treated fairly and we want everybody to be treated equally." Angela stated that although

the Title IX office staff and investigators treat all individuals, males, females, and

nongender-binary individuals, the same, the students assume that the staff will not believe

nonfemale complainants and respondents. Students' opinions of the office change after

visiting the office and working with the staff, Angela continued.

Title IX regulations required colleges and universities to provide a

nondiscrimination policy and published procedures for reporting incidents of sexual

misconduct (Ali, 2011; Lhamon, 2014, 2015). The participants' comments about equity

and equality continued beyond the treatment of students, faculty, and staff and included

the policies implemented by the college administration. Bill stated, "I think our process

and the policy and so on, you know, we have tried to be very even-handed." Additionally,

Bill stated, "I would hope there's nothing in our policy or process that would prevent or

that I think would treat women differently from men with regards to reporting." Angela

took the idea of equality in policies a step further by stating she believes the policies

should support all individuals, complainant and respondent, no matter the gender identity

of the people involved. The nondiscrimination policies provided by each college supports

the comments made by the participants. All the policies reviewed did not include gender-

specific terms or included two gender terms, such as College B policy's use of "she/he."

Chris' utilization of the professional organization's checklist provided language removes

gender from the policy. During the review of the policy, Chris stated, "we changed the language to kind of sit with the [organization's] guidelines now about respondent and reporter. So that even takes the gender out of that."

The idea of equity crossed from the policy discussion to services provided to the survivors of sexual misconduct. Three of the cases experienced at least one male complainant during the past calendar year. The participants at these colleges stated the males received access to the same services that female respondents received. When I asked Diana how the stakeholders within the institution would react to male-specific services, she responded, "'Why do males have specific policies and females don't?' So that would be the first question that would come up. I – I guarantee it." Diana continued by saying, "Because they're [stakeholders] quick – you know, the first question that would come up is, is it equitable?" Chris shared similar concerns by stating, "I'm not sure what the benefit would be to have a policy specifically for male on male." When asked how stakeholders would respond to the idea of male victim-specific services, Chris stated:

> And I think the only reaction would probably get is to say, "Well, why are you doing that?" Since most of the sexual assaults are with women, why don't you have a policy specifically designed for women? And I'm not sure how I would answer that question.

**Stakeholder Influence**

**Internal stakeholders.** Internal and external stakeholders play an important role in policy development and implementation for the four participants. For Angela, the

students, faculty, and staff at College A play a significant input into the development of

policy. Angela stated that students influence the staff to be part of social change. With the

new guidelines provided by DOE related to Title IX, Angela stated they did not need to

change the policies to meet the new guidelines due to students' influence on the college

policies to go beyond the requirements. Angela stated it was primarily the dissatisfaction

of students that lead to the policy review in 2012 and less about the DCL of 2011.

Stakeholder influences affected policy and training implementation for the other

three colleges. Diana highlighted the influences by stating, "There's always pushback."

For College D, the pushback came from faculty members that do not believe a college

should investigate sexual misconduct. Diana stated, "I can't say that I disagree with them

all the time either." Bill added, "There's also disagreement about how to, uh, best address

sexual, uh, misconduct on-campus." For some members of the collegiate community, law

enforcement agencies are the best to investigate the matter, while others do not believe

they should have to participate if they do not want to participate in the process. For

example, Bill stated, "Faculty…don't want to be mandatory reporters."

Unlike Colleges B and D, Chris described the faculty and staff at College C as

"attentive" when he spoke about the Title-IX-related policy and procedures. During a

meeting with faculty, Chris stated, "They were very attentive, very engaged and I think

that it's the first time that anybody's reached out to them to really explain the policy."

Chris believed some of the pushback others experience from faculty is from a lack of

explanation and support. He stated:

I think faculty members oftentimes take on the role of being the counselor and not really knowing what to do with that. So the idea that there are people that they can call on-campus to help them and that they [can] hand these issues off to was met with a lot of enthusiasm, quite frankly.

Bill elaborated on the influence of internal stakeholders when it came to the style they instructed students, faculty, and staff about prevention methods. "But there are certain folks within the college that feel…that when you say that [risk aversion prevention methods] to women you are blaming them for the assault." Bill stated that due to the pushback, College B provides training in both risk aversion prevention and bystander intervention methods.

College C is a religiously affiliated college that has six members of the religious order, known as the "sisters," on the board of directors for the institution. Chris stated the sisters have a significant influence on policy development and implementation. Although Chris did not disclose any pushback from the sisters related to the nondiscrimination and Title-IX-related policies, he did explain the sisters' influences on other programs, such as services for the gay community. Chris stated that part of the educational services provided to students includes "educat[ing] on what [the] church policy is and church philosophy." Additionally, the religious nature of the community may influence the staff members available to support the survivors. Although only about 30% of the community are members of the faith-based community associated with the college, Chris described the need to find a member of the college community that would be able to support male survivors appropriately. Chris stated, "I need to make sure that the people that are

assigned to be the investigators are appropriate for those positions because they're going to be having some difficult discussions with the individual involved."

**External stakeholders.** The community surrounding the college campus also influences the actions of the college administrators. To better understand the potential community influence on the campus, I will provide a brief description of each community the college resides in the words of the participants. Angela described the community using terms others outside the community described the town – either a community with access to the arts or where the "weirdo liberals" live. Bill stated the community surrounding College B has a large Church of Latter Day Saints population and others believe "the less said about sex, the better." Chris described the state as a "red state" and "relatively conservative;" however, the city has "relatively progressive views," but "is not particularly diversified." When describing the people that work outside of the building she works, Diana stated, "One million bazillion percent – if there's anybody outside of this building, they're conservative." Diana grew up in the town the college is located and can vividly remember seeing the first African American person in the town. Due to a recent boom in a natural resource in the town, Diana also described the town as still "catching our breath" after all the changes.

Although there is substantial influence from the outside community for some of the participants, the participants believe the administration within the colleges would prevent the town from negatively influencing policy. Diana described this by saying, "I don't think that our office would allow the community to have – to have such an impact on our policy and our practices because it would be highly unfair to our students."

Although the town College B is located in does not believe the college should discuss sex, Bill stated they provide training multiple times a year in bystander intervention and risk aversion prevention methods. Other influences from the community are beyond the control of the college administration. Bill described the influence of the county attorney when students select to move forward in the criminal justice arena. "Well, first of all, our county attorney, I mean, you would never bring a criminal case in probably 99.9% of all the reports that we get because it's all acquaintance [meaning the victim and perpetrator are known to each other]."

**Participant Background**

During the interviews with the participants, it became apparent their educational and career backgrounds and personal viewpoints influenced the method in which they carried out their duties as Title IX Coordinators. Angela, Chris, and Diana had career backgrounds in student affairs administration in higher education. Bill's career background focused on the academic side of higher education, including being a professor. Diana and Bill's educational background are in psychology and Angela and Chris' education was in the realm of student affairs administration.

Bill focused on the regulatory aspect of the Title IX guidelines. "My personal approach…it's the regulatory requirement, we have to show that we're dealing with this issue and so what is the best way to do that to be fair to everyone." Additionally, Bill stated, "I don't think other people who are Title IX, uh, workers, uh, actually have that viewpoint." Bill believed other Title IX Coordinators may have a bias due to their victim-centered approach, "Everyone who reports is the victim before there's any investigation."

For Bill, he realized many people that were reporting sexual misconduct incidents, the incidents did not violate policy and should, therefore, not be treated as a Title-IX-related incident.

Angela's personal viewpoint is to broaden the way Title IX Coordinators and others respond to incidents of sexual misconduct by supporting all genders and all people involved with the incident, including the victim and accused perpetrators. The College A community may influence Angela's personal view on Title-IX-related response. Angela stated the institution is a progressive college and the students' encourage the staff and faculty to be part of social change within the community.

Although Diana described the community as being conservative, Diana described herself as being open-minded and able to work with any student and any situation. "I pride myself on, like, really not giving a shit what walks through my door." She continued by stating, "I don't care what unique constituents think about what I do. This is what I've been tasked with doing. I think that I'm a good person for the job." Diana's progressive attitude allows her to support the students and provide services that meet the individual needs of the students.

Chris did not provide information related to his personal views; however, his career experiences influenced his current method of addressing Title-IX-related incidents. After working in higher education, student affairs, and faith-based institutions for almost 40 years, the president of College C knew Chris' experience would benefit the restructuring process. Although Chris did not identify his religious faith, he embraced the values and beliefs of the religion associated with College C. Chris demonstrated this

when he stated he helped students to understand the church philosophy when concerns or issues regarding policies and services. However, Chris is willing to make changes to policies that support the students and meets the needs of the college. Chris demonstrated this by stating comments related to possible changes to policies and services after I shared different perspectives related to male survivors. First, Chris identified the need of finding gay-friendly services for the survivors who may identify as gay. Second, when I informed Chris about the literature stating male survivors need male-specific services, Chris stated:

> Well, really – I mean, my mind is racing now and I'm thinking that there's some interesting things in what you're saying that I haven't thought about, frankly. Because, again, you know, in the 30 years of work I've only dealt with two male-on-male [incidents of sexual misconduct]. So – but even in the introduction to the policy there's no mention of gender. And that's an area that easily could be added to say that sexual assault, sexual harassment can be female-to-female, male-to-male, whatever.

The uniqueness of Chris' position gives him the ability to implement changes to policies and services quickly that other Title IX Coordinators may not be able to implement.

### Summary

Chapter 4 provided information from the four cases to answer the research question: How do Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement policies and services for male sexual misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by OCR related to Title IX regulations? The homogeneous nature of the participants resulted in similar

responses for each case. Each case provided multiple reporting methods resulting in the

notification of the institution's Title IX Coordinator. Additionally, all the cases provide

on- and off-campus services to students reporting incidents of sexual misconduct. The

number of resources and services provided differ between cases; however, each

participant focuses on supporting the survivors. Five themes developed during the data

analysis process: procedures, services, equity, stakeholder influence, and participant

background. Chapter 5 will provide the interpretation of the findings outlined in Chapter

4.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of the study was to explore and analyze how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement the OCR's guidance related to policies and services. I used a qualitative multiple case study research design, in-depth interviews with participants, and review of other related data to address the research question for the study. By reviewing the data using a critical theory conceptual lens, I explored the oppression facing male victims of sexual assault and potential sources of secondary victimization.

Throughout the analysis of the data, I identified several key findings. First, the community, both within the college and surrounding the college, has an impact on the barriers that male survivors face. Second, the Title IX Coordinators provide equal treatment to all the survivors when an equitable process may be more supportive. Finally, training for professionals involved in the process would benefit all parties involved and lead to less secondary victimization.

## Interpretation of the Findings

In the following section, I examine the relationship between the data collected during the study and the information compiled during the literature review presented in Chapter 2. Each participant and data point provided information that supported or went against the information gained in the literature review. The four cases identified provided a broad range of small college experiences that may lead to the different insights gained.

### Prevalence of Sexual Assault and Sexual Misconduct

Researchers have described a broad range of responses when examining the prevalence of sexual assault and sexual misconduct, due to different definitions and

sample populations used (Busch-Armendariz et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2015; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011). Similar to the findings of other researchers, the data collected during this study supported the broad range of the reported prevalence; however, the reason for the differences was not the different definitions used, given that all of the cases used similar definitions. College A reported 60 total incidents of sexual misconduct, including male, female, and nongender-binary complainants, and the other three colleges reported four to 10 incidents.

Angela described the community as progressive and the students as keeping the faculty and staff focused on social change. Additionally, Angela highlighted that College A, unlike other small colleges, did not struggle financially and could implement services and programs without financial burden. College C, which had the lowest reported incidence of sexual misconduct, was a religiously affiliated college in a conservative community, as described by Chris.

A second influence on the difference in reported incidents of sexual assault may have been a result of how the participants counted the number of reported incidents of sexual misconduct.  Bill and Chris discussed the difference in reported incidents of sexual misconduct and the number of incidents that met the requirements of a Title-IX-related incident. The other two cases did not mention the discrepancy between the two numbers or indicate whether the college included the non-Title-IX-related incidents within reported incidents. Similar to other research, the four cases reported a broad range of sexual misconduct incidents, but other influences may have affected the differences beyond the definition and sample population used.

**Responding to Incidents of Sexual Misconduct**

Although each case provided resources to male and female survivors of sexual misconduct, each participant identified barriers that male students face when reporting incidents that were similar to those identified by researchers (Bell et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2015; Sorsoli et al., 2008). Chris identified confidentiality as a concern that male survivors of sexual misconduct may face. Although staff members follow strict confidentiality policies when handling Title-IX-related cases, Chris believed that witnesses and other people involved in an incident would compromise the survivor's privacy, leading to the survivor not wanting to report.

Perceptions of male survivors may also lead to a decrease in reporting. Allen et al. (2015) stated that students believe that colleges and universities do not provide adequate help-seeking services to male survivors. During the review of provided services, Colleges C and D provided resources with female-related names or services. Additionally, Angela stated that male survivors had initial concerns about not being believed when reporting incidents to their office. College B provided one off-campus resource for the survivors. Lack of services or gender-specific services could lead to the experience of secondary victimization for the survivor.

**Secondary victimization.** Researchers have identified two sources of secondary victimization—the acceptance of rape myths and limited needed services (Campbell, 2005; Campbell & Raja, 2005; Campbell et al., 2001; Halder & Jaishankar, 2011; Hung, 2013; S. B. Murphy et al., 2011; Sabina & Ho, 2014; Tamarit et al., 2010). Although Chris discussed new policies that he would implement after the interview, Chris

perpetuated a male rape myth, either knowingly or subconsciously, throughout the interview. When speaking about male survivors of sexual assault, Chris always referred to the incident as having a male victim and a male perpetrator. Although Chris had progressive ideas in transforming the policies for the college, the adherence to this rape myth could lead to secondary victimization of the survivors.

Campbell et al. (2001) stated that service providers need to understand what services the survivors need and must provide those services to prevent secondary victimization. All four participants denied the need for male-specific services because they did not know why students would need gender-specific services and perceived difficulty in justifying those services to the greater community. Researchers have suggested that when service providers do not understand the need for male-specific services, males continue to face mental and physical health concerns, PTSD, and academic concerns (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015). Additionally, when the Title IX Coordinators for colleges, who self-identify as advocates for the students they serve, cannot justify male-specific services, then they need additional training in specific concerns involving the needs of their students.

**Implementation of Title IX Regulations at Small Colleges**

Each case described the impact that Title IX and the multiple DCL had on the campus. All four cases stated that the release of the DCL did not change the policies or procedures of the college because the colleges met or exceeded the expectations outlined. Although each college met the requirements, each participant had personal views of the letters and the OCR influence. Bill viewed the requirements of the OCR as a checklist to

work through. The academic focus of his professional background may have given him a different perspective. Bill stated that he worked through the regulations and ensured that his campus met basic needs and did not focus on emotions that may complicate the investigations and regulations.

For Diana, the most extensive change in procedures came from the state legislature's additional requirements. Diana stated that the regulations for the state required the college to rewrite the policy. Due to the low financial support for Title IX regulation implementation, Diana stated that she had to use larger state schools' policies until she could change the policy to comply with the state's requirements. Unlike College D, Angela stated that College A had ample financial resources that allowed her to implement requirements and services easily. Paul (2016) stated that small- and medium-sized colleges face financial concerns when implementing Title IX regulations. Although there are many influences on creating a space that promotes reporting incidents of sexual misconduct, College A's financial stability may have been one influence that assisted the school's high reporting rate when compared to the other cases.

**Male Survivors Reporting Incidents of Sexual Misconduct**

Researchers previously documented the underreported nature of incidents of sexual misconduct involving male survivors (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014; Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015), and each of the participants supported the statement. Chris identified societal stigma as the reason preventing males from reporting. Angela stated that the beliefs of the community, such as male rape myths and traditional gender roles, created barriers for males reporting. Of the four cases, College A had the

most progressive community, yet Angela stated that the societal beliefs of the community prevented males from disclosing incidents of sexual misconduct. Similar to the financial abilities of the colleges, the colleges' communities influenced male students reporting incidents of sexual misconduct.

## Interpretation of the Findings From a Critical Theory Lens

Critical theory has three components: gaining knowledge, emancipation for the oppressed, and social change (Carr, 2000; H. Wang, 2013; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). The critical theory lens provided insight into the responses provided by the participants and the other data collected during the study. In this section, I interpret the data collected using the first two components of critical theory. I discuss the final component, social change, in the implications section of this chapter.

### Gaining Knowledge

Oppression of groups occurs due to a community's distorted social, cultural, and political reality (Carr, 2000; Kilgore, 2001; Stahl et al., 2014; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). The social norms of the community create assumptions that benefit the dominant society (Hadfield, 2012; V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). Chris provided an example of an assumption when he referred to sexual misconduct with a male victim as having a male perpetrator. These assumptions and other male rape myths develop from a just world belief (Dover et al., 2012; Hammond et al., 2011; Hayes et al., 2013; Mendonça et al., 2016). To gain knowledge, Friesen stated that one must first identify the absolute truths held by the society (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015), which include rape myths.

The first absolute truth identified through the analysis of data was the idea of

equity versus equality. Bahls (2015) summarized equity versus equality as fairness versus

sameness. Equality is providing the same to all people. When service providers offer the

same services to all the survivors of sexual misconduct, they are providing equal services.

Equity refers to providing fairness that may include providing more to some and less to

others. A graphical description of the two appears in Figure 2.
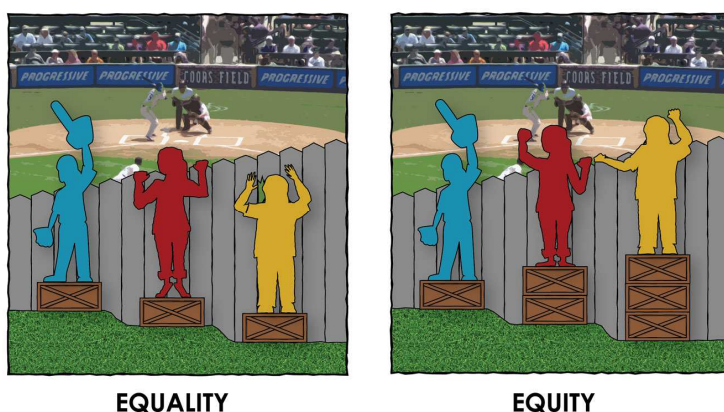


**EQUALITY**          **EQUITY**

*Figure 2*. Equality versus equity. From "The Problem With That Equity vs. Equality
Graphic You're Using, by P. (Kuttner, 2016)(http://culturalorganizing.org/the-problem-
with-that-equity-vs-equality-graphic/). Copyright 2016 by Paul Kuttner. Used with
permission.

On the *equality* side of the figure, each observer has received the same box;

however, the box does not allow all of the observers to view the baseball game. For the

*equity* side of the picture, the observers have received a different number of boxes; these

boxes allow each of them to view the baseball game. Throughout the interviews,

participants used the term *equity* in relation to the treatment of male and female

survivors; however, based on the above description, I believe they meant *equal treatment*.

Angela stated that the Title IX Office would treat male, female, and nonbinary survivors the same. Diana stated, "We treated them both equitable" when asked how they treated the male survivors who reported. Chris reported that College C's policies and procedures were "very even-handed." When I asked Bill about male-specific services, he responded with his viewpoint and the viewpoint of the community.

> I think that if the policy is appropriate and we provide the appropriate services for any individual who has been a victim of sexual assault—male or female—I'm not sure what the benefit would be to have a policy specifically for male on male. And I think the only reaction I would probably get is to say, "Well, why are you doing that? Since most of the sexual assaults are with women, why don't you have a policy specifically designed for women?" And I'm not sure how I would answer that question.

During the literature review, I highlighted numerous concerns that male survivors experience that female survivors do not experience. If male and female survivors experience incidents differently, then why are they treated the same way—equally? Policies and services need to be equitable for the survivors. Some students may receive additional support or specific services, whereas others may not receive or use those services. Although the survivors would be receiving different services, the difference would be necessary to help the survivors achieve the best recovery possible.

In the response above, Bill highlighted the second part of the equality-versus-equity picture. Bill discussed the pushback from the community that he would face if he were to implement male-specific services—an idea that was supported by other

participants. In Figure 2, without appropriate platforms, the observers cannot see the baseball game due to their surroundings, the uneven ground. Kuttner (2016) described the lower ground as historical oppression. Although Kuttner referenced culture in his article, the same idea can extend to male survivors of sexual misconduct. Societal norms and traditional gender roles lead to oppression of male survivors. The rape reform movement assisted female survivors in speaking about their experiences and receiving the assistance they needed; however, the same movement began to add barriers for male survivors, pushing them down the hill in the figure above. The community resources surrounding Colleges C and D, the women's centers, are examples of how the rape reform movement provided support for females and barriers for males.

In addition to the rape reform movement, the social norms of individual communities can influence male survivors' reporting. College A had the highest number of male and nongender-binary survivors, and Angela described the community as liberal and progressive. Diana stated that the institution's office would be able to handle any situation that came to its attention. Bill focused more on the checklist format of Title IX guidelines, which would accommodate a student of any gender reporting an incident of sexual misconduct. Both Colleges B and D reported one incident involving male survivors. Chris stated that if a male survivor reported an incident of sexual misconduct, he would hand-select the staff members investigating the incident. College C is a religiously associated campus with members of the religious organization on the board of directors of the college. Chris was not aware of any male survivors reporting incidents of sexual misconduct. It is possible that the societal norms and traditions of the communities

surrounding the colleges created barriers for help-seeking behaviors in male survivors that would increase the need for equitable resources, not equal resources.

**Emancipation for the Oppressed**

The second component of critical theory is emancipation for the oppressed. According to Friesen, this component focuses on analyzing absolute truths from different perspectives and points of view (V. C. X. Wang & Torrisi-Steele, 2015). According to some researchers, emancipation for the oppressed occurs by breaking the hegemonic beliefs held by the dominant society (Kilgore, 2001; Martin & Kitchel, 2015; Stahl et al., 2014).

After interviewing the participants and reviewing the additional data, I believe the participants had two viewpoints when considering male survivors of sexual misconduct—one reflecting the Title IX guidelines and one reflecting the campus communities. Although those viewpoints are vital because they prevent the OCR from investigating the school and keep the Title IX Coordinator employed, they are not the viewpoint of the individuals who face the barriers and oppression—male survivors. Critiquing the services provided by both the college and the surrounding communities from the perspective of male survivors would allow the Title IX Coordinators to understand the need for male-specific services better. Additionally, the coordinators would be able to justify to the campus communities why gender-specific services would benefit the students. Although changing policies and resources on campus may not change the ideologies of the surrounding communities, the culture on campus could begin to change. College A

provided an example of how a progressive college culture may influence the help-seeking behaviors of the survivors.

## Limitations of the Study

The primary limitation of the study remains the lack of generalizability of the results. Although the four cases span geography and types of small colleges, the interpretations of the data are limited to the four colleges. Additionally, researcher bias was a limitation of the study. I used reflective journaling and other methods to decrease my bias; however, researchers cannot exclude their bias from qualitative studies (Morse, 2015).

## Recommendations

Throughout the current study, I identified multiple areas of additional research with an effort to improve the response for the survivors of sexual assault. Allen et al. (2015) highlighted that students believe colleges and universities do not provide needed support to the survivors of sexual misconduct, especially male survivors. Services provided by colleges and universities are one area of future research I identified while conducting the current study.

The four case college Title IX Coordinators identified a range of services provided to students affected by incidents of sexual misconduct. Researchers previously identified the need for male-specific services to support male survivors (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik & Edwards, 2012). For college students, further research should examine if services provided on- or off-campus achieve better support. Additionally, whether or not used by the students, do increased on-campus

services improve the cultural norms on campus to increase the reporting of sexual misconduct incidents? Two of the participants provided off-campus resources with female-specific terminology in the name. Future research should examine if female-specific terminology in the name of the service hinders males utilizing the service.

Angela from College A discussed the financial stability of the university and the progressive nature of the surrounding community. When compared to the other cases, Angela reported the highest reported Title-IX-related incidents. Future research should examine the correlation between increased reporting of sexual misconduct incidents and the financial stability of the school or the liberal nature of the surrounding community.

Finally, the current study focused on male survivors of sexual misconduct. With the expanding openness and acceptance of the nongender-binary community, additional research should focus on prevention, response, and recovery for nongender-binary individuals, especially in the collegiate setting.

### Implications

As previously stated, the third component of critical theory is social change to achieve the emancipation for the oppressed. Three levels of social change need to occur – on the coordinator level, on the college level, and at the community level. Each aspect of social change is building blocks for the next level; however, college administrators do not need to implement all levels before emancipation for the oppressed begins.

Title IX Coordinators need additional training related to the unique needs of male survivors of sexual misconduct. Although the participants discussed Title-IX-related investigation training, none discussed training specific to male survivors. Researchers

identified the need for professionals to receive training regarding the additional concerns

facing male survivors (Forde & Duvvury, 2016; Ng, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015; Turchik

& Edwards, 2012). The training will assist the coordinators in providing greater support

to male survivors, allowing the recovery to begin, while also increasing their ability to

advocate for the survivors to the larger community.

Second, the Title IX Coordinators should be a dedicated person whose sole

responsibility is Title-IX-related support. The participants in this study had other

responsibilities in addition to the Title IX position. Paul (2016) highlighted the

difficulties small- and medium-sized schools have related to Title IX guideline

implementation. However, a dedicated person focusing on Title-IX-related concerns

could focus on the needs of the survivors and have the time to receive the needed training

and participate in community support, which is the third social change activity for the

Title IX Coordinator. Additionally, a dedicated Title IX Coordinator will demonstrate a

college's dedication to the survivors of sexual misconduct and increase the help-seeking

behaviors of the survivors.

Many communities or geographic areas have multidisciplinary groups that

develop strategic plans for the community related to sexual assault prevention, response,

and recovery. The Title IX Coordinator's participation in these organizations or groups

will assist the staff member in achieving the social change goals of this study.

Additionally, the groups allow for networking among other professionals working

responding to sexual assaults and could provide support for future endeavors.

Reevaluating the policies and training provided on-campus and building partnerships with other schools are two aspects of social change needed at the collegiate level. Although gender-neutral policy language is useful, Chris' idea of including specific genders that could be victims or perpetrators addresses rape myths discussed in Chapter 2. When including specific genders, it is important to include nongender-binary terminology to ensure the policy is inclusive and not exclusive.

Similar to the Title IX Coordinator, all members of the collegiate community need training related to sexual misconduct and the specific concerns facing male survivors. Training related to male rape myths and traditional gender roles are two topics important to address with the collegiate community. Researchers identified peers and family members as the first person a survivor will disclose a sexual assault (Fehler-Cabral & Campbell, 2013; Sable et al., 2006). By training the community, the Title IX Coordinator and the college are preparing students, faculty, and staff to be a supportive and knowledgeable person for the survivor that leads to better recovery for the survivor.

Paul (2016) found the lack of resources provided to implement Title IX guidelines as a limitation for small- to medium-sized colleges. Diana stated, when the state legislature made new requirements, College D used a larger state school's policy until they could revise College D's policies. Partnerships between colleges can assist in maximizing the limited resources of any one school. For example, when conducting training related to male rape myths and traditional gender roles, partnering with other colleges will allow for the combining of resources. Additionally, collaborating with other schools prevents each school from spending resources to create individual policies when

all the schools are creating similar policies. Partnerships also provide a larger voice when approaching community or state organizations to make changes to better meet the needs of male and nongender-binary survivors of sexual misconduct.

As previously stated, the social change outlined in this study builds on the previous level. The Title IX Coordinators begin the change on their campus and partner with community resources. Then, the Title IX Coordinators works on the collegiate level to build partnerships between other schools. The third level of social change is on the community level, which expands from the community surrounding the college to the state and country level. Title IX Coordinators are the catalyst for change within these communities. By building support on-campus and partnering with other colleges, the Title IX Coordinators build the power to make change within the communities. Additionally, by improving and expanding the services and policies provided on-campus, community resources can use the college setting as a benchmark to how they can improve their resources.

The social change that would begin to occur with the above recommendations would start to challenge the ideologies held by the dominant communities. Additionally, the added services and policy changes will decrease barriers for male survivors, improving the help-seeking behaviors of male survivors. Increased help-seeking behaviors decrease the harmful effects of the incident on the male survivor.

## Conclusion

Within this study, I was able to address the research question of how the Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement policies and services for male sexual

misconduct survivors within the guidelines provided by OCR related to Title IX

regulations. The services provided to male survivors are the same as the services

provided to female survivors. From the research (Artime et al., 2014; Bell et al., 2014;

Maxwell & Scott, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015), I understand this is inadequate to

overcome the oppression facing male survivors when they seek help. A critical critique of

the policies, procedures, and resources provided in the four cases revealed areas where

social change is possible.

Equality of services is not the best solution when working with oppressed groups.

Participating in additional training related to male survivors and providing male-specific

services and resources are needed to overcome the stigma they face. Involving the Title

IX Coordinator, the college, and the community can help move forward with small

changes that will create improvement. Critical theory is a circular process without a

beginning or end. As training and more services begin, another critical review of the

process is needed to identify how to emancipate others.

References

Advameg Inc. (2018). City-data.   Retrieved from http://www.city-data.com/

Ali, R. (2011). *Dear colleague letter*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights.

Allen, C. T., Ridgeway, R., & Swan, S. C. (2015). College students' beliefs regarding help seeking for male and female sexual assault survivors: Even less support for male survivors. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 24*(1), 102-115. doi:10.1080/10926771.2015.982237

Anderson, D. J., & Cheslock, J. J. (2004). Institutional strategies to achieve gender equity in intercollegiate athletics: Does Title IX harm male athletes? *The American Economic Review, 94*(2), 307-311. doi:10.1257/0002828041301515

Anderson, M. J. (2016). Campus sexual assault adjudication and resistance to reform. *Yale Law Journal, 125*(7), 1940-2005.  Retrieved from http://www.yalelawjournal.org

Anderton Chavez, I. D. (2016). *Campus interpersonal violence in the Lone Star State: Available resources for students experiencing relationship violence, sexual assault, and stalking*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text database

Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies, 5*(2), 272-281.  Retrieved from http://jeteraps.scholarlinkresearch.org

Aronowitz, T. (2014). College health's response to "Not Alone". *Journal of American College Health, 62*, 357-359. doi:10.1080/0744841.2014.935216

Aronowitz, T., Lambert, C. A., & Davidoff, S. (2012). The role of rape myth acceptance in the social norms regarding sexual behavior among college students. *Journal of Community Health Nursing, 29*(3), 173-182. doi:10.1080/07370016.2012.697852

Artime, T. M., McCallum, E. B., & Peterson, Z. D. (2014). Men's acknowledgment of their sexual victimization experiences. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 15*(3), 313-323. doi:10.1037/a0033376

Ayenibiowo, K. O. (2013). Victim and perpetrator blame in rape cases. *Journal of Educational Review, 6*(3), 307-310.  Retrieved from http://nigeria-education.org/journals/journal-educational-review

Bagley, C. E., Natarajan, P., Vayzman, L., Wexler, L., & McCarthy, S. (2012). Implementing Yale's sexual misconduct policy: The process of institutional change. *Change, 44*(2), 7-15. doi:10.1080/00091383.2012.655213

Bahls, S. C. (2015). What's most important: Equity or equality? [Press release]. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.augustana.edu/presidentsstatements/71

Barrett, E. C., & Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. (2013). The victim as a means to an end: Detective decision making in a simulated investigation of attempted rape. *Journal of Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiling, 10*(2), 200-218. doi:10.1002/jip.1385

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and

implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report, 13*(4), 544-559.

Retrieved from http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/

Bell, M. E., Turchik, J. A., & Karpenko, J. A. (2014). Impact of gender on reactions to

military sexual assault and harassment. *Health & Social Work, 39*(1), 25-33.

doi:10.1093/hsw/hlu004

Berger, R. (2013). Now I see it, now I don't: Researcher's position and reflexivity in

qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 15*(2), 219-234.

doi:10.1177/1468794112468475

Bertram, C. C., & Crowley, M. S. (2012). Teaching about sexual violence in higher

education. *Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies, 33*(1), 63-82.  Retrieved from

https://frontiers.osu.edu/

Bierie, D. M., & Davis-Siegel, J. C. (2015). Measurement matters: Comparing old and

new definitions of rape in federal statistical reporting. *Sex Abuse, 27*(5), 443-459.

doi:10.1177/1079063214521470

Block, J. A. (2012). "Prompt and equitable" explained. *College Student Affairs Journal,

30*(2), 61-71.  Retrieved from http://www.sacsa.org/page/CSAJ

Bohman, J. (1999). Critical theory and democracy. In D. M. Rasmussen (Ed.), *The

handbook of critical theory* (pp. 190-215). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Bolger, D. (2016). Gender violence costs: Schools' financial obligations under Title IX.

*Yale Law Journal, 125*(7), 2106-2130.  Retrieved from

http://www.yalelawjournal.org

Borg, M. J. (2003). *The heart of Christianity: Rediscovering a life of faith* (1st ed.). New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Brookfield, S. (2001). Repositioning ideology critique in a critical theory of adult learning. *Adult Education Quarterly, 52*(1), 7-22. doi: 10.1177/07417130122087368

Buchanan, K. S. (2012). Engendering rape. *UCLA Law Review, 59*(6), 1630-1688. Retrieved from https://www.uclalawreview.org/

Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and supports for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38*(2), 217-230. doi:10.1037//0022-3514.38.2.217

Busch-Armendariz, N. B., Olaya-Rodriguez, D., Kammer-Kerwick, M., Wachter, K., & Sulley, C. (2015). Health and well-being: Texas statewide sexual assault prevalence. *Austin, TX: Institute on Domestic Violence & Sexual Assault, The University of Texas at Austin.*

Busch-Armendariz, N. B., Sulley, C., & Hill, K. (2016). The blueprint for campus police: Responsind to sexual assault. *Austin, TX: Institute on Domestic Violence & Sexual Assault, The University of Texas at Austin.*

Campbell, R. (2005). What really happened? A validation study of rape survivors' help-seeking experiences with the legal and medical systems. *Violence & Victims, 20*(1), 55-68. doi:10.1891/088667005780927647

Campbell, R., & Raja, S. (1999). Secondary victimization of rape victims: Insights from mental health professionals who treat survivors of violence. *Violence and Victims,*

*14*(3), 261-275.  Retrieved from http://www.springerpub.com/violence-and-

victims.html

Campbell, R., & Raja, S. (2005). The sexual assault and secondary victimization of

female veterans: Help-seeking experiences with military and civilian social

systems. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 29*(1), 97-106. doi:10.1111/j.1471-

6402.2005.00171.x

Campbell, R., Wasco, S. M., Ahrens, C. E., Sefl, T., & Barnes, H. E. (2001). Preventing

the "second rape" rape survivors' experiences with community service providers.

*Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 16*(12), 1239-1259.

doi:10.1177/088626001016012002

Cantor, D., Fisher, B., Chibnall, S., Townsend, R., Lee, H., Bruce, C., & Thomas, G.

(2015). *Report on the AAU Campus Climate Survey on sexual assault and sexual

misconduct*. Retrieved from http://www.aau.edu/Climate-Survey.aspx?id=16525

Carr, A. (2000). Critical theory and the management of change in organizations. *Journal

of Organizational Change Management, 13*(3), 208-220.

doi:10.1108/09534810010330869

Carroll, C. M., Dahlgren, M. G., Grab, K. L., Hasbun, M. E., Hayes, M. A., & Muntis, S.

E. (2013). Implementing the dear colleague letter: A Title IX case study for

university compliance. *Journal of the Student Personnel Association at Indiana

University*, 45-63.  Retrieved from

https://scholarworks.iu.edu/journals/index.php/jiuspa

Carroll, M. H., Rosenstein, J. E., Foubert, J. D., Clark, M. D., & Korenman, L. M. (2016). Rape myth acceptance: A comparison of military service academy and civilian fraternity and sorority students. *Military Psychology*. doi:10.1037/mil0000113

Cassel, A. (2012). Are you the problem, or the solution? Changing male attitudes and behaviors regarding sexual assault. *Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research, 17*(2), 50-58.  Retrieved from https://www.psichi.org/?page=journal_main

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2012). *Sexual violence: Facts at a glance*. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention

Clark, J. N. (2014). A crime of identity: Rape and its neglected victims. *Journal of Human Rights, 13*(2), 146-169. doi:10.1080/14754835.2014.886952

Clarke, J. A., & Hulatt, O. (2014). Critical theory as a legacy of post-Kantianism. *British Journal for the History of Philosophy, 22*(6), 1047-1068. doi:10.1080/09608788.2015.1005046

Cohen, D., & Crabtree, D. (2006). Qualitative research guidelines project.   Retrieved from http://www.qualres.org/

Cook, M. C., Morisky, D. E., Williams, J. K., Ford, C. L., & Gee, G. C. (2016). Sexual risk behaviors and substance use among men sexually victimized by women. *American Journal of Public Health, 106*(7), 1263-1269. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2016.303136

Cope, D. G. (2014). Methods and meanings: Credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 41*(1), 89-91. doi: 10.1188/14.ONF.89-91

Currier, A., & Manuel, R. A. (2014). When rape goes unnamed. *Australian Feminist Studies, 29*(81), 289-305. doi:10.1080/08164649.2014.959242

DeMatteo, D., Galloway, M., Arnold, S., & Patel, U. (2015). Sexual assault on college campuses: A 50-state survey of criminal sexual assault statutes and their relevance to campus sexual assault. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 21*(3), 227-238. doi:10.1037/law0000055

Department of Education. (2014). Know your rights: Title IX requires your school to address sexual violence. Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/know-rights-201404-title-ix.pdf

Deranty, J. (2013). Marx, Honneth and the tasks of a contemporary critical theory. *Ethical Theory & Moral Practice, 16*(4), 745-758. doi:10.1007/s10677-013-9407-6

Deranty, J. (2014). Feuerbach and the philosophy of critical theory. *British Journal for the History of Philosophy, 22*(6), 1208-1233. doi:10.1080/09608788.2014.974139

Doody, O., & Noonan, M. (2013). Preparing and conducting interviews to collect data. *Nurse Researcher, 20*(5), 28-32. doi:10.7748/nr2013.05.20.5.28.e327

Dover, T. L., Matthews, M., Krauss, D. A., & Levin, S. (2012). Just world beliefs, expert psychological testimony, and verdicts: A mediational model. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy, 12*(1), 340-363. doi:10.1111/j.1530-2415.2011.01278.x

Dunn, E. C., Gilman, S. E., Willett, J. B., Slopen, N. B., & Molnar, B. E. (2012). The impact of exposure to interpersonal violence on gender differences in adolescent-onset major depression: Results from the National Comorbidity Survey

Replication ( NCS-R). *Depression & Anxiety (1091-4269), 29*(5), 392-399. doi:10.1002/da.21916

Dunn, L. L. (2014). Addressing sexual violence in higher education: Ensuring compliance with the Clery Act, Title IX and VAWA. *The Georgetown Journal of Gender and the Law, 15*, 563-584.  Retrieved from https://www.law.georgetown.edu/gender-journal/

Edwards, S. (2015). The case in favor of OCR's tougher Title IX policies: Pushing back against the pushback. *Duke Journal of Gender Law & Policy, 23*, 121-144. Retrieved from http://djglp.law.duke.edu/

Edwards, S. R., & Vogel, D. L. (2015). Young men's likelihood ratings to be sexually aggressive as a function of norms and perceived sexual interest. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 16*(1), 88-96. doi:10.1037/a0035439

Elo, S., Kääriäinen, M., Kanste, O., Pölkki, T., Utriainen, K., & Kyngäs, H. (2014). Qualitative content analysis: A focus on trustworthiness. *SAGE Open, 4*(1). doi:10.1177/2158244014522633

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4. doi:10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2014a). Frequently asked questions about the change in the UCR definition of rape.   Retrieved from https://ucr.fbi.gov/recent-program-updates/new-rape-definition-frequently-asked-questions

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2014b). *Reporting rape in 2013: Summary Reporting System (SRS) user manual and technical specifications*. Retrieved from https://ucr.fbi.gov/recent-program-updates/reporting-rape-in-2013-revised.

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2016a). Crime in the United States by volume and rate per 100,000 inhabitants, 1996-2015.

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2016b). Word about UCR data. Retrieved from https://ucr.fbi.gov/word

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (n.d.). Uniform crime reporting. Retrieved from https://ucr.fbi.gov/

Federer, L. (2014). Preservation, retention, and storage of digital data: The proper care and feeding of research data [Powerpoint Slides]: National Institutes of Health.

Fehler-Cabral, G., & Campbell, R. (2013). Adolescent sexual assault disclosure: The impact of peers, families, and schools. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 52*(1-2), 73-83. doi:10.1007/s10464-013-9577-3

Ferrão, M. C., & Gonçalves, G. (2015). Rape crimes reviewed: The role of observer variables in female victim blaming. *Psychological Thought, 8*(1), 47-67. doi:10.5964/psyct.v8i1.131

Flack, W. F., Jr., Hansen, B. E., Hopper, A. B., Bryant, L. A., Lang, K. W., Massa, A. A., & Whalen, J. E. (2016). Some types of hookups may be riskier than others for campus sexual assault. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, 8*(4), 413-420. doi:10.1037/tra0000090

Forde, C., & Duvvury, N. (2016). Sexual violence, masculinity, and the journey of recovery. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 18*(4), 301-310. doi:10.1037/men0000054

Fusch, P. I., & Ness, L. R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 20*(9), 1408-1416. Retrieved from https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/

Gibbs, G. R., & Taylor, C. (2010). How and what to code. Retrieved from onlineqda.hud.ac.uk/Intro_QDA/how_what_to_code.php

Giovannelli, T. S., & Jackson, L. (2013). Sexual violence perceptions among christian college students. *Mental Health, Religion & Culture, 16*(3), 254-272. doi:10.1080/13674676.2012.657618

Hackman, C. L. (2015). *Investigating multiple layers of influence on sexual assault in a university setting.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text database

Hadfield, M. (2012). Becoming critical again: Reconnecting critical social theory with the practice of action research. *Educational Action Research, 20*(4), 571-585. doi:10.1080/09650792.2012.727647

Halder, D., & Jaishankar, K. (2011). Cyber gender harassment and secondary victimization: A comparative analysis of the United States, the UK, and India. *Victims & Offenders, 6*(4), 386-398. doi:10.1080/15564886.2011.607402

Hammond, E. M., Berry, M. A., & Rodriguez, D. N. (2011). The influence of rape myth acceptance, sexual attitudes, and belief in a just world on attributions of

responsibility in a date rape scenario. *Legal and Criminological Psychology, 16*(2), 242-252. doi:10.1348/135532510x499887

Hayes, R. M., Lorenz, K., & Bell, K. A. (2013). Victim blaming others: Rape myth acceptance and the just world belief. *Feminist Criminology, 8*(3), 202-220. doi:10.1177/1557085113484788

Hildebrand, M. M., & Najdowski, C. J. (2015). The potential impact of rape culture on juror decision making: Implications for wrongful acquittals in sexual assault trials. *Albany Law Review, 78*(3), 1059-1086.  Retrieved from http://www.albanylawreview.org/

Hipp, T. N., Bellis, A. L., Goodnight, B. L., Brennan, C. L., Swartout, K. M., & Cook, S. L. (2015). Justifying sexual assault: Anonymous perpetrators speak out online. *Psychology of Violence*. doi:10.1037/a0039998

Holland, K. J., Rabelo, V. C., & Cortina, L. M. (2016). Collateral damage: Military sexual trauma and help-seeking barriers. *Psychology of Violence, 6*(2), 253-261. doi:10.1037/a0039467

Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher, 20*(4), 12-17. doi:10.7748/nr2013.03.20.4.12.e326

Hung, S. (2013). Resarch on the help seeking experiences of sexual violence victims: Community responses and secondary victimization. *The Hong Kong Journal of Social Work, 47*(01n02), 53-60. doi:10.1142/s0219246213000065

Iacovelli, A. M., & Johnson, C. (2012). Disclosure through face-to-face and instant messaging modalities: Psychological and physiological effects. *Journal of Social & Clinical Psychology, 31*(3), 225-250. doi:10.1521/jscp.2012.31.3.225

Jacobs, A. H. M. (2014). Critical hermeneutics and higher education: A perspective on texts, meaning and institutional culture. *South African Journal of Philosophy, 33*(3), 297-310. doi:10.1080/02580136.2014.948327

Janghorban, R., Latifnejad Roudsari, R., & Taghipour, A. (2014). Skype interviewing: The new generation of online synchronous interview in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being, 9*(1), 24152. doi:10.3402/qhw.v9.24152

Javaid, A. (2015). The dark side of men. *Journal of Men's Studies, 23*(3), 271-292. doi:10.1177/1060826515600656

Johnson, K. (2015). The war on due process. *Academic Questions, 28*(1), 22-31. doi:10.1007/s12129-015-9475-2

Johnson, L. S. (2015). *Gender discrimination and Title IX implementation: Lessons from the Office for Civil Rights resolution letters 1997-2011.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text database

Jordan, J. (2013). From victim to survivor -- and from survivor to victim: Reconceptualising the survivor journey. *Sexual Abuse in Australia & New Zealand, 5*(2), 48-56. Retrieved from http://www.anzatsa.org/

Kilgore, D. W. (2001). Critical and postmodern perspectives on adult learning. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 2001*(89), 53-61. doi: 10.1002/ace.8

Kimble, M., Flack, W. F., Jr., & Burbridge, E. (2013). Study abroad increases risk for sexual assault in female undergraduates: A preliminary report. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, 5*(5), 426-430. doi:10.1037/a0029608

Koo, K. H., Nguyen, H. V., George, W. H., & Andrasik, M. P. (2015). The cultural context of nondisclosure of alcohol-involved acquaintance rape among Asian American college women: A qualitative study. *Journal of Sex Research, 52*(1), 55-68. doi:10.1080/00224499.2013.826168

Koss, M. P., Wilgus, J. K., & Williamsen, K. M. (2014). Campus sexual misconduct restorative justice approaches to enhance compliance with Title IX guidance. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 15*(3), 242-257. doi:10.1177/1524838014521500

Krivoshey, M. S., Adkins, R., Hayes, R., Nemeth, J. M., & Klein, E. G. (2013). Sexual assault reporting procedures at Ohio colleges. *Journal of American College Health, 61*(3), 142-147. doi:10.1080/07448481.2013.769260

Kushmider, K. D., Beebe, J. E., & Black, L. L. (2015). Rape myth acceptance: Implications for counselor education programs. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision, 7*(3), 7-30. doi:10.7729/73.1071

Kuttner, P. (2016). The problem with that equity vs. equality graphic you're using. Retrieved from http://culturalorganizing.org/the-problem-with-that-equity-vs-equality-graphic/

Landström, S., Ask, K., & Sommar, C. (2015). The emotional male victim: Effects of presentation mode on judged credibility. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 56*(1), 99-104. doi:10.1111/sjop.12176

Letizia, A. (2013). Battle for the enlightenment: Neoliberalism, critical theory and the role of circumvential education in fostering a new phase of the enlightenment. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies (JCEPS), 11*(3), 164-193. Retrieved from http://www.jceps.com/

Lewis, J. (2003). Design issues. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 46-76). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Lhamon, C. E. (2014). *Questions and answers on Title IX and sexual violence*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights.

Lhamon, C. E. (2015). *Title IX resource guide*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights.

Mack, N., Woodsong, N., MacQueen, K. M., Guest, G., & Namey, E. (2005). *Qualitative research methods: A data collector's field guide*. Research Triangle Park, NC: Family Health International & US Agency for International Development.

Marine, S. B., & Nicolazzo, Z. (2014). Names that matter: Exploring the tensions of campus LGBTQ centers and trans* inclusion. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 7*(4), 265-281.  Retrieved from http://www.apa.org/pubs/journals/dhe/

Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Rontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative research?: A review of qualitative interviews in IS research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems, 54*(1), 11-22. doi:10.1080/08874417.2013.11645667

Martin, M. J., & Kitchel, T. (2015). Critical theory view of the National FFA Convention. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 56*(2), 122-137. doi:10.5032/jae.2015.02122

Mason, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 11*(3).  Retrieved from http://www.qualitative-research.net/

Maxwell, L., & Scott, G. (2014). A review of the role of radical feminist theories in the understanding of rape myth acceptance. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 20*(1), 40-54. doi:10.1080/13552600.2013.773384

McGuiggan, R., & Lee, G. (2008). *Cross-case analysis: An alternative methodology*. Paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference, Sydney, Australia.

McMahon, S., & Dick, A. (2011). "Being in a room with like-minded men": An exploratory study of men's participation in a bystander intervention program to prevent intimate partner violence. *The Journal of Men's Studies, 19*(1), 3-18. doi:10.3149/jms.1901.3

Mendieta, E. (2012). Mapping the geographies of social inequality: Patricia Hill Collins's intersectional critical theory. *Journal of Speculative Philosophy, 26*(2), 458-465. Retrieved from http://www.psupress.org/journals/jnls_jsp.html

Mendonça, R. D., Gouveia-Pereira, M., & Miranda, M. (2016). Belief in a just world and secondary victimization: The role of adolescent deviant behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences, 97*, 82-87. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2016.03.021

Morse, J. M. (2015). Critical analysis of strategies for determining rigor in qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative Health research, 25*(9), 1212-1222. doi:10.1177/1049732315588501

Murphy, C. (2015 Jun 18). Another challenge on campus sexual assault: Getting minority students to report it. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*.

Murphy, S. B., Banyard, V. L., Maynard, S. P., & Dufresne, R. (2011). Advocates speak out on adult sexual assault: A unique crime demands a unique response. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 20*(6), 690-710. doi:10.1080/10926771.2011.595381

Ng, S. (2014). The last taboo: Male rape and the effectiveness of existing legislation in Afghanistan, Great Britain, and the United States. *Tulane Journal of International & Comparative Law, 23*(1), 227-249.  Retrieved from http://www.law.tulane.edu/tlsjournals/tjicl/index.aspx

Novkov, J. (2016). Equality, process, and campus sexual assault. *Maryland Law Review, 75*(2), 590-619.  Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.law.umaryland.edu/mlr/

O'Brien, C., Keith, J., & Shoemaker, L. (2015). Don't tell: Military culture and male rape. *Psychological Services, 12*(4), 357-365. doi:10.1037/ser0000049

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2013). 'Unsatisfactory saturation': A critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 13*(2), 190-197. doi: 10.1177/1468794112446106

O'Brien, C., Keith, J., & Shoemaker, L. (2015). Don't tell: Military culture and male rape. *Psychological Services, 12*(4), 357-365. doi:10.1037/ser0000049

Paul, C. (2016). *Navigating Title IX and gender based campus violence: An analysis of the roles and experiences of Title IX coordinators.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text database

Pedersen, S. H., & Strömwall, L. A. (2013). Victim blame, sexism and just-world beliefs: A cross-cultural comparison. *Psychiatry, Psychology & Law, 20*(6), 932-941. doi:10.1080/13218719.2013.770715

Petty, N. J., Thomson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 2: Introducing qualitative research methodologies and methods. *Manual Therapy, 17*(5), 378-384. doi:10.1016/j.math.2012.03.004

Pinter, K. (2015). *Sexual assault and academic achievement: Creating more ideal college campuses for sexual assault survivors by taking into account intersectionality and multiracial feminism.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Full Text database

Rammell, N. (2014). Title IX and the Dear Colleague Letter: A ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. *Brigham Young University Education & Law Journal*(1), 135-149.  Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.law.byu.edu/elj/

Rasmussen, D. M. (1999). Critical theory and philosophy. In D. M. Rasmussen (Ed.), *The handbook of critical theory* (pp. 11-38). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Sabina, C., & Ho, L. Y. (2014). Campus and college victim responses to sexual assault and dating violence: Disclosure, service utilization, and service provision. *Trauma Violence Abuse, 15*(3), 201-226. doi:10.1177/1524838014521322

Sable, M. R., Danis, F., Mauzy, D. L., & Gallagher, S. K. (2006). Barriers to reporting sexual assault for women and men: Perspectives of college students. *Journal of American College Health, 55*(3), 157-162. doi:10.3200/JACH.55.3.157-162

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Segedin, L. (2012). Listening to the student voice: Understanding the school-related factors that limit student success. *McGill Journal of Education, 47*(1), 93-107. doi:10.7202/1011668ar

Sigurvinsdottir, R., & Ullman, S. E. (2015). Social reactions, self-blame, and problem drinking in adult sexual assault survivors. *Psychology of Violence, 5*(2), 192-198. doi:10.1037/a0036316

Sinozich, S., & Langton, L. (2014). *Rape and sexual assault victimization among college-Age females, 1995–2013*. (NCJ248471). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of

Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics Retrieved from www.ojp.usdoj.gov.

Smith, C. P., & Freyd, J. J. (2013). Dangerous safe havens: Institutional betrayal exacerbates sexual trauma. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 26*(1), 119-124. doi:10.1002/jts.21778

Smith, J. A., & Osborn, M. (2008). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.

Smith, K. (2016). Title IX and sexual violence on college campuses: The need for uniform on-campus reporting, investigation, and disciplinary procedures. *St. Louis University Public Law Review, 35*(1), 157-178.  Retrieved from http://law.slu.edu/journals/public-law-review

Sorsoli, L., Kia-Keating, M., & Grossman, F. K. (2008). "I keep that hush-hush": Male survivors of sexual abuse and the challenges of disclosure. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 55*(3), 333-345. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.55.3.333

Stahl, B., Doherty, N., Shaw, M., & Janicke, H. (2014). Critical theory as an approach to the ethics of information security. *Science & Engineering Ethics, 20*(3), 675-699. doi:10.1007/s11948-013-9496-6

Starzynski, L. L., & Ullman, S. E. (2014). Correlates of perceived helpfulness of mental health professionals following disclosure of sexual assault. *Violence Against Women, 20*(1), 74-94. doi:10.1177/1077801213520575

Strömwall, L. A., Alfredsson, H., & Landström, S. (2013). Rape victim and perpetrator blame and the Just World hypothesis: The influence of victim gender and age. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 19*(2), 207-217. doi:10.1080/13552600.2012.683455

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qualitative Research Journal, 11*(2), 63-75. doi:10.3316/qrj1102063

Tamarit, J., Villacampa, C., & Filella, G. (2010). Secondary victimization and victim assistance. *European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law & Criminal Justice, 18*(3), 281-298. doi:10.1163/157181710X12767720266049

The Chronicle of Higher Education. (2016). Title IX: Tracking sexual assault investigations. Retrieved from http://projects.chronicle.com/titleix/

The Trustees of Indiana University. (2015). Carnegie classification of institutions of higher education. *Size & setting classification description.* Retrieved from http://carnegieclassifications.iu.edu/classification_descriptions/size_setting.php

The Trustees of Indiana University. (2017). The Carnegie classification of institutions of higher education. *782 results for size and setting = "Four-year, small, primarily nonresidential" or "Four-year, small, primarily residential" or "Four-year, small, highly residential".* Retrieved from http://carnegieclassifications.iu.edu/

The White House. (2014). *Not alone: The first report of the White House Task Force to protect students from sexual assault.* Retrieved from http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/report_0.pdf.

Triplett, M. R. (2012). Sexual assault on college campuses: Seeking the appropriate

balance between due process and victim protection. *Duke Law Journal, 62*(2),

487-527. Retrieved from https://dlj.law.duke.edu/

Tuason, M. T. G., Güss, C. D., & Carroll, L. (2012). The disaster continues: A qualitative

study on the experiences of displaced Hurricane Katrina survivors. *Professional

Psychology: Research and Practice, 43*(4), 288-297. doi:10.1037/a0028054

Turchik, J. A. (2012). Sexual victimization among male college students: Assault

severity, sexual functioning, and health risk behaviors. *Psychology of Men &

Masculinity, 13*(3), 243-255. doi:10.1037/a0024605

Turchik, J. A., & Edwards, K. M. (2012). Myths about male rape: A literature review.

*Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 13*(2), 211-226. doi:10.1037/a0023207

Turchik, J. A., McLean, C., Rafie, S., Hoyt, T., Rosen, C. S., & Kimerling, R. (2013).

Perceived barriers to care and provider gender preferences among veteran men

who have experienced military sexual trauma: A qualitative analysis.

*Psychological Services, 10*(2), 213-222. doi:10.1037/a0029959

U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). *Census Bureau regions and divisions with state FIPS codes*.

Retrieved from https://www2.census.gov/geo/docs/maps-data/maps/reg_div.txt.

Vohlídalová, M. (2015). Coping strategies for sexual harassment in higher education:

"An official action may harm you in the end more than if someone slaps your

butt". *Sociologia, 47*(3), 297-316. Retrieved from

https://www.scimagojr.com/journalsearch.php?q=18032&tip=sid&clean=0

Voller, E., Polusny, M. A., Noorbaloochi, S., Street, A., Grill, J., & Murdoch, M. (2015). Self-efficacy, male rape myth acceptance, and devaluation of emotions in sexual trauma sequelae: Findings from a sample of male veterans. *Psychological Services, 12*(4), 420-427. doi:10.1037/ser0000046

Walsh, R. M., & Bruce, S. E. (2014). Reporting decisions after sexual assault: The impact of mental health variables. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, 6*(6), 691-699. doi:10.1037/a0036592

Wang, H. (2013). A nonviolent approach to social justice education. *Educational Studies, 49*(6), 485-503. doi:10.1080/00131946.2013.844147

Wang, V. C. X., & Torrisi-Steele, G. (2015). Online teaching, change, and critical theory. *New Horizons in Adult Education & Human Resource Development, 27*(3), 18-26. doi:10.1002/nha3.20108

Weiss, K. G. (2010). Male sexual victimization: Examining men's experiences of rape and sexual assault. *Men and Masculinities, 12*(3), 275-298. doi:10.1177/1097184X08322632

Wellmer, A. (2014). On critical theory. *Social Research, 81*(3), 705-733. doi:10.1353/sor.2014.0045

Wies, J. R. (2015). Title IX and the state of campus sexual violence in the United States: Power, policy, and local bodies. *Human Organization, 74*(3), 276-286. doi:10.17730/0018-7259-74.3.276

Wijk, E. v. (2014). Recruitment and retention of vulnerable populations: Lessons learned from a longitudinal qualitative study. *The Qualitative Report, 19*(28), 1-21. Retrieved from http://tqr.nova.edu/

Winans-Solis, J. (2014). Reclaiming power and identity: Marginalized students' experiences of service-learning. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 47*(4), 604-621. doi:10.1080/10665684.2014.959267

Woelders, S., & Abma, T. (2015). A different light on normalization: Critical theory and responsive evaluation studying social justice in participation practices. *New Directions for Evaluation, 2015*(146), 9-18. doi:10.1002/ev.20116

Appendix A: Phone Interview Protocol

**Phone Script**

Hello (*name of participant*). Thank you again for responding to the invitation to participate in my Walden University PhD dissertation study, IRB Number 12-05-17-0477445. This phone call is to gather information about you and your college to ensure you meet the study requirements. As stated in the study invitation, you and your college will receive a pseudonym and all of our conversations will remain strictly confidential. *Do you have any questions at this time? Are you willing to participate in the screening discussion? Do you mind if I record this phone conversation?*

I would first like to provide you information about me, the study, and my mandatory reporting requirements. I have worked in higher education and public safety since 2002, and became interested in the topic of sexual misconduct response in 2012 when I began working at a large university where I had a close relationship with the Title IX Coordinator and complainants of sexual misconduct. The current study is examining polices and services small colleges have for male survivors with a goal to improve the resiliency of males affected by sexual misconduct.

As I stated in the invitation email, I am a Texas Peace Officer. Although I do not believe there will be an opportunity to disclose such incidents, I want to inform you that I must report incidents of abuse or neglect directed towards vulnerable populations, such as minors, the elderly, and people with disabilities. Additionally, I may have to report serious felony crimes. Again, because we will be focusing primarily on policies and services or incidents of sexual misconduct that have already been reported, I do not

foresee my mandatory reporting status becoming a concern. Please know you do not have to answer any questions or share any information you do not want to or do not feel comfortable answering.

**Phone Interview Protocol Notes**

The next section is to learn more information about you, your position, and your school.

*What is your current position title? Are you the Title IX Coordinator? What are your position duties?*

*What college are you employed with? Where is the school located? What is the full-time equivalent enrollment? Is the school considered public or private?*

*Is the college religiously affiliated? If so, which religion? How would you describe the relationship between the religion and the college.*

*During the past two academic years, did any students, faculty, or staff report incidents of sexual harassment or misconduct? How many cases total? How many involved female complainants? How many involved male complainants?*

*Has your college ever been or are currently under investigation by OCR due to Title IX related incidents?*

**Unique identifier:**

**Date/Time of screening:**

**Name of participant:**

**Participant's title:**

**Title IX Coordinator role?**          __Yes __No

**Name of college, location:**

**FTE?**

__ **Public**          __ **Private**

**Consent to screening?**          __Yes __No

**Consent to recording?**          __Yes __No

**Understand mandatory reporting?** __Yes __No

**Understand ability to withdraw?**    __Yes __No

**Regular duties:**

**Religious affiliation?**

**Religious relationship?**

**Total SM cases?**

**# Female complainants**

**# Male complainants**

**OCR investigation?**          __Yes __No

*If criteria met:* Thank you for the information, it was very helpful. I am in the process of screening others to develop a sample population I will select participants from. I will keep you updated on the process, and if you are selected as a participant, I will contact you to schedule the interview.

*If criteria not met:* Thank you for the information. Unfortunately, the study requires [*criteria*]. Because you do not meet this criteria, I am unable to include you in the study. As stated previously, your information will be kept strictly confidential.

*All:* Do you have any questions or concerns? If you would like to contact me regarding future questions, please feel free to contact me at [*contact information*]

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

**Unique identifier**:

**Date/Time of interview:**

**Method of interview:**

**Interviewer:** David Chambers

**Interviewee (pseudonym)**:

**Name of college (pseudonym):**

**Study Purpose**: The purpose of the study is to describe how Title IX Coordinators at small colleges implement OCR's guidance related to policies and services to increase the resiliency of male complainants of sexual misconduct.

**Questions**

1.  Tell me about your responsibilities within the college [*Learning more about the staff member's role within the university, Paul (2016) stated small college Title IX Coordinators have multiple roles*].

2.  Describe the process a student reporting an incident of sexual misconduct follows [*Related to understanding the process for the college*].

    Follow up questions:

    a.  How long has this process been in place?

    b.  What factors helped in developing the process?

    c.  What types of changes have occurred in the process? What led to those changes? [*Related to understanding the impact of OCR on the process*].

3.  Describe the services provided to complainants of sexual misconduct [*Pertain to

*the research question to understand the services provided*].

Follow up questions:

    a. Are all of the services provided through the college or through outside agencies?

    b. What type of partnership do you have with the off-campus resources?

    c. How long have these services been available to complainants of sexual misconduct?

    d. What influenced the school to connect the services to sexual misconduct complainants or led to the development of the services [*Relates to the influence of OCR on service development*].

4. How familiar are you with the OCR's regulation (i.e. the DCL, Q&A, etc.) as they relate to Title IX incidents [*To understand the degree the participant is familiar with OCR's regulations*].

5. How has the guidance from OCR affected the process and services regarding Title IX incidents [*Pertains to the research question and the influence of OCR's regulations*].

6. ***If the school has experience with male complainants****: What were the concerns that developed when the male complainants came forward, if any [*Relates to understanding the perceived reality of the Title IX Coordinator (conceptual framework) and describes how the participant addressed previous male complainants (research question)*].

***If the school has no experience with male complainants****: What concerns, if any,

do you believe will develop if a male reported being a complainant in a sexual misconduct incident [*Relates to understanding the perceived reality of the Title IX Coordinator (conceptual framework) and describes how the participant addressed previous male complainants (research question)*].

7. Recent OCR guidance (Lhamon, 2014, 2015) highlighted that the guidelines pertain to all genders. What, if any, changes have you or your school made, or you think should be made, to ensure your services and policies are appropriate for all genders [*Relates to understanding the concerns regarding male survivors and the OCR regulations*].

    Follow up questions:

    a. What, if any, difficulty would you face implementing policies or services related specifically to male survivors [*Relates to external factors affecting the social norms (conceptual framework)*].

    b. How would the college environment support these changes (i.e. the president, board of directors, etc.) [*Relates to external factors affecting the social norms (conceptual framework)*].

8. Do you have any additional comments or thoughts related to this topic [*allows the participant to add additional comments not previously discussed*].

**Closing the Interview**

Thank you for your time to assist me with this study. I will transcribe the interview. Additionally, throughout the data analysis process, I will share my progress with you to allow you to ensure I am capturing your description in your own words

Appendix C: Website Data Collection Protocol

**Unique identifier**:

**Date/Time accessed:**

**Website URL:**

**College pseudonym:**

**FTE, URL:**


**Title IX website:**

>   **URL:**

>   **Outline of process for reporting:**

>   **Identified services, URL for services:**

>   **Use of gender specific terms: __Yes          __No**

>>      **Examples:**


**College Nondiscrimination Policy:**

>   **URL:**

>   **Policy name:**

>   **Included sexual acts:**

>   **Use of gender specific terms: __Yes          __No**

>>      **Examples:**

>   **Services identified for support, URL for services:**

**Title IX /Nondiscrimination Policy listed services** (repeat for all services)

    **Name/URL:**

    **Purpose of service** (related to sexual misconduct)**:**

    **Description of services offered:**

    **Use of gender specific terms: __Yes          __No**

        **Examples:**

Appendix D: Title IX Investigation Data Collection Protocol

**Unique identifier**:

**Date/Time accessed:**

**Website URL:**

**College pseudonym:**

**Case #1** (repeat as needed)

    **Date investigation opened:**

    **Case status:** __Active    __Pending    __Closed

    **Alleged allegations:**

    **Identified concerns:**

    **Identified outcomes:**

    **Other notes:**

Appendix E: Codebook

**Study Demographic**

| | |
|---|---|
| Unique Number | Reference number from real participant information |
| Participant Name (P) | Pseudonym name of Title IX Coordinator |
| University Name (P) | Pseudonym name of college/university |
| University Size | Full time equivalent student |
| Number TIX | Number of Title IX Investigation during 2016-2017 academic year |
| Female TIX | Number of Title IX Investigations involving female victims |
| Male TIX | Number of Title IX Investigations involving male victims |
| NonBinary TIX | Number of Title IX Investigations involving nongender-binary victims |
| Multi TIX | Number of Title IX Investigations involving multiple victims |
| Current OCR | Number of Current OCR investigations |
| Past OCR | Number of Past OCR Investigations |
| Outcomes | Outcomes of past OCR Investigations |
| City | Bigger Cities (BC) 6000+ residents |
| | Smaller Cities, Towns, & Villages (SC) 1000 – 6000 residents |
| | Very Small Towns & Villages (VS) < 1000 residents |

**General Codes**

| | |
|---|---|
| Great Quotes | Quotes I believe are important |
| Interesting | Comments that are interesting or may have more meaning |

**A Priori Codes**

| | |
|---|---|
| Male CP | Any reference to male complainants, including services for, policies about, incidents of, etc. Weighting: Negative comments are negative numbers, 0 is neutral, positive numbers are positive comments (-10 thru 10) |
| Female CP | Any reference to female complainants, including services for, policies about, incidents of, etc. Weighting: Negative comments are negative numbers, 0 is neutral, positive numbers are positive comments (-10 thru 10) |
| TIX | Any reference to Title IX – the actual code or university procedures or policies. Weighting: Negative comments are negative numbers, 0 is neutral, positive numbers are positive comments (-10 thru 10) |

| OCR | Any reference to the enforcement component of Title IX – the Office for Civil Rights. Including investigations, guidance, influence. Weighting: Negative comments are negative numbers, 0 is neutral, positive numbers are positive comments (-10 thru 10) |
|---|---|
| Services/Resources | Any reference to services and resources provided to complainants/survivors |
| On-Campus | Provided on-campus |
| Off-Campus | Provided off-campus/in the community |
| Procedures | Any reference to college/university procedures regarding TIX, OCR, survivors |
| Oppression | Based on conceptual framework, any reference to oppression facing survivors due to services, procedures, social norms, etc. |
| Male | Oppression of male complainants/survivors |
| Female | Oppression of female complainants/survivors |
| Conflicting Roles/Laws | Conflicting federal laws or roles that caused concerns for the process |

**Descriptive Codes**

| Position | Participant's position and duties |
|---|---|
| Title IX | Duties surrounding Title IX Coordinator position |
| Other | Duties surrounding other positions |
| Multiple Roles | One staff member conducting multiple roles |
| Demographics | Demographics information related to the school, such as size, faculty, etc. |
| Community | Description of the community |

**Angela Manual Codes**

| Due Process | Anything related to the due process used within the process |
|---|---|
| Financial Resources | Impact of money in implementing Title IX Services |
| Not Being Believed | CP/Victims not being believed or feeling of not being believed |
| Policy Review | College review of policy – any reason |
| Reporting Methods | Different methods of reporting incidents |
| Required Judicial | Case discussing moving forward against the wants to the CP |

| Threat Assessment/BAT | Items referencing Threat Assessment or sending the case to BAT |
|---|---|

**Bill Manual Codes**

| Evolving | Process evolving or changing, any reason |
|---|---|
| Influence | Influence of change to the process |
| DCL | Anything related to the Dear Colleague Letter |
| Internal Reflection | Either staff or university internal reflection to alter process or come up with new ideas |
| Training | Training related to Title IX – directed towards faculty, staff, or students |
| Victim Orientated | Being focused on the victim and having view that men are always perpetrators |
| Risk Abatement | Bystander Intervention, risk reduction, etc. |
| Personal View | Personal views of the participant |
| Social Norms | Comments that address social norms of the college/university, community, or society |
| Approach | Personal approaches for the participant |

**Chris Manual Codes**

| Appropriate Male Advocates | Selecting advocates or support systems that would be supportive of male CP |
|---|---|
| ATIXA Checklist | Influence of ATIXA checklist and policies |
| Background | Background of the participant |
| Developing Partnerships | The process of developing partnerships with outside agencies |
| Educational Process | Educational vs. criminal process |
| Educational Training | Educational training related to TIX |
| Equal | Fair and equal processes |
| Faculty Meeting | Meeting with faculty and supporting faculty |
| Future Role | Future role for this participant |
| Male on Male Victimization | Reference male victimization to only male on male victimization |
| Policy Change | Chris' unique position allows to update policy and make significant changes – this code references those |
| Religious Aspect | The influence of the Catholic church on policy and services provided to students |
| Training Influence | Influence of training on policy creation |
| Unique Position | Referencing the unique position of interim position |

**Diana Manual Coding**

| Training | Training received for the role as Title IX Coordinator |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| Pushback | Conflict or pushback from faculty, staff, or community about how TIX are investigated or the policies/services connected to the process |
| School Response | Options available on-campus to support students that are not available in community |
| Disclosure | Who the victim discloses to after the incident |
| Advocates | Advocates provided by the university – faculty or staff |
| Proactive Training | Training to the college community to educate about the TIX process |
| State Legislation | Change of state legislation that affects TIX policy |
| Interim Steps | Steps college took to stay in compliance while reviewing policy |
| Small School Limits | Limitation due to being a small school |
| Equity | Comments related to the focus of equity or equitable services |
| Soft Transfer | The work by the Coordinator to make sending victims off campus more personal |
| Coming Out | Providing support for victim when also facing coming out concerns |
| Matter-of-factly | Response process – viewing things matter-of-factly vs. being influenced by the gender of victim/complainant or description of the incident |
| Office over community | Office/College not allowing Community in negatively influence them |
| Gender Specific | Gender specific resources |
| Not using | Not using services, or unknown if not using |
| Passion | Coordinator demonstrating her passion for her work |


**2nd: Second Cycle Coding--Categories**

| | |
|---|---|
| Complainant | Any excerpt pertaining to a complainant in a TIX case |
| Federal Oversight: TIX,OCR | Any excerpt pertaining to guidance provided by or requirements of DOE, OCR, or TIX |
| Services/Resources | Any excerpt pertaining to services or resources provided to students, faculty, or staff to respond to sexual misconduct |
| Procedures | Any excerpt pertaining to procedures related to the Title IX investigation and adjudication, including due process, policy review, reporting methods, required judicial actions, BAT, and internal reflection |
| Oppression | Any excerpt pertaining to oppression facing complainants or others in the process |
| Conflicting Regulations | Any excerpt pertaining to real or perceived confliction in the regulations provided by the Federal Government, or changes to regulations requiring response |

| | |
|---|---|
| Small School Limitation | Any except pertaining to real or perceived limitations due to the size of the school and community |
| Struggles | Any excerpt pertaining to other struggles facing complainants during the Title IX process |
| Training | Any excerpt pertaining to training received by those investigating the incident or provided to faculty, staff, and students |
| Community Conflicts | Any excerpt pertaining to conflictions or pushback from internal and external stakeholders, such as faculty, community members, etc. |
| Equity | Any excerpt pertaining to the real or perceived equity of the process |
| Personal Views | Any excerpt pertaining to the view of the participant as it comes to the process |

**Values Coding**

    **Values:**

        **"Not giving a shit"** – The participant's attribute that they are open-minded and can work with anything that comes through their doors

        **Community, Sex** – The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values regarding the community's view of sex

        **Faculty** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values of the faculty

        **Personal view on Title IX** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values regarding their personal views regarding Title IX

        **Risk Abatement** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values regarding the idea of risk abatement

        **Students** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values of the students

        **Victim Orientated** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values of the community related to victim orientated responses (meaning males are always perpetrators and females are victims)

        **Wealth** - The participant's/case's standards of behavior or important values of the wealth of the community, or how the wealth influences decisions

    **Attitudes:**

        **Changing Processes** – The way the participant/case thinks and feels about changes to processes or services

        **Community influence** – What influence, or lack of influence the community has on the university, college, or staff

**Difference – Male CP** – Differences, or lack of difference of policy or procedures for male victims
**Diversity?** – Issues related to diversity or lack of diversity
**Equity** – Attitudes towards the equity of the policy, procedures, or work preformed
**Faculty pushback** – Pushback from faculty related to Title IX
**Fair Process** - The way the participant/case thinks and feels about the process and services provided are fair and equitable to all people involved
**Long distance to resources** – How the participant thinks about the long distance to some resources
**No Pressure** - The way the participant/case thinks and feels about the process puts no pressure on individuals making complaints, not directing them to a reporting pathway
**Not Believed** - The way the participant/case described students' ideas or feelings of not being believed when reporting incidents
**Not Scary** – How the participant feels about the staff not being scary
**OCR Policy/QA** – Participant's feelings towards OCR policy, including the Q&A
**Role** – What the participants thinks/feels their role is
**Students Dissatisfied** - The way the participant/case described students' ideas or feelings of being dissatisfied with the process or former process
**Title IX Policy** – Participant's feelings towards the university's Title IX policy


**Beliefs:**
**"Not normal"** – The participant's or community's belief of about what is normal and not normal – ex. Male & Male Title IX incidents
**Antiauthority** – System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding the students' general feeling of being antiauthority
**Catching our breaths** – Participant's beliefs about the community transitions
**Community Conservative** – The participant's belief of the community's political view
**Don't move forward** – Participant's belief that many victims do not move forward with any formal process
**LEO Job** – The belief that colleges should not adjudicate Title IX incidents because they are a law enforcement job
**Levelheaded** – The participant's belief they are levelheaded and can work with any type of Title IX related incident
**Male Vic Views** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding the views of male victims, to include social norms

**No changing with training** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding people do not stop committing sexual assault due to training

**Not Violation** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding whether it is a Title IX Violation or not

**Poor Guidance** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding that OCR and the federal government provides poor guidance surrounding their requirements

**Preferred Changes** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding their preferred changes to OCR regulations

**Progressive college** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding the view of their college's current policies and procedures

**Regarding Title IX** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding their beliefs regarding Title IX

**Services** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding the services provided for all people involved

**Training Varies** - System that includes values and attitudes the participant/case surrounding how training provided varies and is not consistent

## Versus Coding

**Academic v. Student Services -** Title IX Coordinator background in academic affairs versus student services

**Community v Campus political view** - Difference in political view between the community and the campus

**Community v Campus v Personal resources** - Difference in the resources used between the community, on-campus, and personal resources

**Formal vs Informal Disclosure** - Differences in disclosing to formal sources (college, LEO) vs. informal support systems (friends, family)

**Leo v. School** - Differences in the adjudication between LEO and campus administrators

**Male v Female** - Differences in how male and female victims are treated, or the lack of differences

**OCR v. Other Federal Regulations -** OCR versus other regulations and possible conflicting policies

**Old v. New OCR Guidance/Administration -** Differences in the old and new OCR guidance under the new administration (Trump)

**Private v. Public Requirements -** Different requirements for public and private colleges related to OCR and other federal regulations

**Regulatory v. Victim Oriented -** Difference between following regulatory requirements and providing programs and services with the focus on supporting the victim

**Risk Abatement V. Vic Oriented -** Difference in focusing on risk abatement and victim oriented (male perp, defined by Bill) services, trainings, and programs
**School Confidentiality v. Legal Confidentiality -** Legal confidentiality differences between school employees and professionals covered by legal confidentiality
**School Perspective v. OCR Requirements -** The difference between the guiding views/beliefs of the school versus the requirements of OCR
**Small v. Large School** - The difference between large and small school resources
**State v. Federal Requirements** - The difference between local, state, and federal requirements as it relates to Title IX incidents
**TIX v. Non-TIX Report -** Differences between reports that meet Title IX violations and those that do not
**University v. OCR policy** - Difference between campus policy and OCR requirements related to Title IX
**Victim v. Accused -** Difference in treatment, services, or programs provided to the victim versus the accused
**Victim wishes vs Must investigate -** Things related to a school having to conduct an investigation against the will of the victim, due to the overall safety of the campus