

The Response to Sexual Violence at Ontario University Campuses

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FINAL REPORT

The Response to Sexual Violence at Ontario University Campuses

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1.0 Executive Summary

This Report is an examination of the police and institutional responses to sexual violence at Ontario university campuses.

It is based on a comprehensive desk study of the extant literature as well as site studies at three Ontario universities: Carleton University, Lakehead University and the University of Waterloo. The study was conducted over a four-month period (March-June 2016) and includes approximately 120 hours of interview data. We interviewed three respondent groups: (1) campus administrators and service providers (n=50), (2) campus and local police (n=29), and (3) sexual violence survivors (n=18) and students (n=29).

Our investigation of the response to sexual violence at Ontario Universities elicited five major findings that resonate with varied effects across the three respondent groups we investigated:

1. *Constructions of sexual violence and of survivor:*

Responses to sexual violence on university campuses are shaped by limiting and problematic understandings of survivors and of sexual violence. These include assumptions about survivors' intrinsic unbelievability, unreliability, and 'risky' behaviour that are now well-recognized, if still alarmingly present, as 'rape myths.' While these narratives are not endemic to university campuses, and reflect wider societal understandings of sexual violence and survivors, they influence how sexual violence survivors, university administrators, service providers and security personnel make sense of sexual violence. They also result in the routine minimization of incidents. Assumptions about 'stereotypical rape,' namely, stranger rape and "date rape" (defined as mismatched sexual expectations), influence how university administrators, service providers and security personnel respond to campus sexual violence. Incidents of sexual violence that do not fit these dominant and circumscribed models of 'real rape' are discounted, in various ways, through the survivors' and the institutions' responses to campus sexual violence. Serious attention needs to be directed toward the eradication of the insidious myths and stereotypes that continue to inform campus responses to sexual violence. Additionally, universities need to ensure that reputation and risk management do not take precedence over safety, information gathering and prevention. The risk management approach, employed by the three universities studied, can exacerbate the negative construction of the sexual violence survivor by responding to her as a problem to be managed rather than a member of the community to be supported.

2. *Challenges in reporting and disclosing:*

A defining feature of university responses to sexual violence is the absence of formal reports. According to interviews with administrators and service providers, by and large, survivors of sexual violence do not make or wish to pursue a formal report or complaint; they opt instead for informal remedies designed to limit their interactions with the perpetrator, such as room changes in residences, course changes in academic programs or campus safety plans and/or access to services such as medical and counseling assistance. These responses, while important to the immediate needs of survivors, do not tend to generate formal reports, processes or reviews, and generally rely on discretion and flexibility by university administrators and service providers. Given the evident demand of survivors for 'informal' remedies, and the hostility of contemporary context to survivors who come forward with sexual violence reports, the current focus of universities and government on the development of better reporting and policy

environments is not responsive to the realities and needs of the majority of survivors of sexual violence on our campuses today.

The largely informalized response to sexual violence offers both strengths and limitations in addressing campus sexual violence. It has the obvious merits of allowing for flexible responses to the needs of individual survivors, reflecting an orientation that aims to be 'victim-centered'. As many interviewees observed with reference to the *Ghomeshi* case, formalized complaint-based approaches to sexual violence remain undesirable and unsafe for many survivors.

But the largely informal process also directly contributes to the ongoing invisibilization and minimization of campus sexual violence, making it harder to address not only the prevalence of sexual violence, but also the predominant myths and misunderstandings about sexual violence.

We recommend a shift in focus from formal reporting and policies to informal remedies, service provision and prevention of sexual violence. In order to avoid the risk that such a shift might render campus sexual violence even less visible than it currently is, a strong systemic approach that emphasizes transparency and public accountability must be maintained.

3. *The creation of institutional silos:*

There is a major 'siloiing effect' at universities when it comes to sexual violence. Different units across campus charged with responding to sexual assault – ranging from sexual assault centres, equity offices, health and counseling, academic support services, deans and VP students as well as campus security – did not appear to be in conversation with each other, even when it was about individual cases. Institutional silos resulted in survivors feeling "bounced around" among various services as they attempted to secure academic accommodations and additional supports. Many remarked on the emotional toll associated with having to repeatedly tell their stories to administrators, faculty and service providers.

A significant contributing factor to the silo-effect appears to be the widespread adoption of a 'victim-centred' approach. While ostensibly in support of victim empowerment and the desire not to impose outcomes, the approach also served to justify inaction by respective units throughout the university. The informal 'solutions' to disclosures of sexual violence tended to be reactionary and individualistic. None of the universities had a system for monitoring disclosures and responses to sexual violence across the different parts of the university nor was there a system for consistent information sharing. Hence, there was no one looking at perpetrators and patterns of violence.

4. *The need for education and training:*

Education and training, while increasingly recognized as important, have been inadequately resourced and prioritized within universities. Both education and training should be extended to cover the whole university population – e.g., students, professors and presidents – with particular emphasis on university administrators and service providers.

'Education' refers to the initiatives directed mostly at students for raising awareness and promoting safety, most of which unfold in orientation weeks and/or in residences. Specialized sexual violence education is key to prevention and the elimination of rape culture as it manifests in various parts of the university, including academic and non-academic staff, administrators and service providers. While recognized as an important resource for combating sexual violence on

university campuses, universities pay too little attention to selecting and evaluating specialized education resources that are particularly suited to experiences of sexual violence in Ontario universities. Current education on sexual violence is also too narrowly focused on 'consent'. It needs to be broadened to include healthy sexualities, relationships, masculinities and femininities in order to better address the range of contexts that foster sexual violence.

'Training' refers to the preparation of staff, service providers and students who may encounter sexual violence issues or survivors in their work/volunteer activities. It has been largely ignored relative to education and/or treated as the equivalent of 'trauma' and mental health training and/or as an issue that can be 'dealt with' in generalized training. These misguided assumptions point to a striking lack of knowledge and expertise among university administrators and service providers about sexual violence.

Ongoing stand-alone sexual violence training on the social and cultural contexts in which sexuality and sexual violence affect students and other members of the university community is required at all levels of the university administration and services provision. This would include training on the complexity of what some refer to as 'date rape' as well as more intensive training on prevailing myths about women's believability that minimize accounts and consequences of sexual violence. Education and training 'short cuts' through, for example, on-line modules or student contracts, are not suitable and strongly discouraged. The training and training program development need to be overseen by sexual violence experts.

5. *Resource demands:*

The provision of adequate resources is often at the heart of effective responses to sexual violence survivors. It comes as no surprise that almost all of the respondent groups we interviewed agreed that there are challenges to effectively resourcing the university response to sexual violence. While universities on paper appear to have a great deal of resources to offer students who have experienced sexual violence, in practice, these resources prove difficult to access and are generally inadequately staffed.

While important advances in sensitivity, awareness and reporting have been pursued by universities in Ontario over the last two decades, these initiatives remain insufficiently coordinated, under-resourced and lack consistency across the province. Our research found that these services are often unknown to victims, that survivors' paths to counseling, accommodation and redress are highly uncoordinated at best and often intentionally siloed at worst. Accessing help is often a frustrating bureaucratic nightmare for survivors including lengthy and unpredictable wait times, confused and ill-equipped professors and administrators, and policing services who are caught between criminal justice processing and administrative investigation. Therefore, both survivors and the university community as a whole would benefit from enhanced education, training and reporting systems as well as easier and smoother access to informal remedies such as residence room changes and altering class schedules.

2.0 Introduction

This project examines the reporting and investigation of incidents of sexual violence experienced by university students, including the relationships between post-secondary educational institutions and the police. Interviews were conducted with survivors of sexual violence and student focus groups, campus administrators and service providers, and campus and municipal police on three Ontario university campuses – Carleton University, Lakehead University and the University of Waterloo.

It became apparent in our discussions with each group of participants that the vast majority of sexual violence incidents on the three campuses are not reported, investigated or formally recorded. This finding is in line with other research findings indicating the chronic underreporting of sexual violence. The range of responses to sexual violence on the three campuses studied largely unfolds in an ‘informalized’ context of off-the-record disclosures of sexual violence and service provision. According to our interviewees, most survivors of sexual violence do not make, and do not wish to pursue, a formal report or complaint. Relationships between universities and police services are equally defined by this informalized process. The movement and communication of formal reports between university offices and policy/security personnel will relate to a very small number of cases. The research in this project thus focuses not just on the investigation and reporting of sexual violence on the three campuses, but also the informal mechanisms through which campus sexual violence is addressed, and services are provided to survivors. Based on our study, we recommend that the current focus of universities and government should move beyond the development of better reporting and policy environments to focus more on service provision, informal remedies, anonymous complaint systems to better track incidents that are not officially reported, and the prevention of sexual violence, in accord with the needs and wishes of the majority of survivors of sexual violence on our campuses.

2.1 Context: Locating the Issues

Limitations in and barriers to reporting as well as differing definitions of sexual violence make it difficult to capture an accurate picture of the prevalence of sexual violence on university campuses. Best estimates place rates of sexual violence experienced by students anywhere between 25% and 54% (Fedina, Holmes, and Backes 2016; Amar et al. 2014). Despite these discrepancies, it remains clear that sexual violence is an extremely common experience on university and college campuses (Bohmer and Parrot 1993), especially among first year students (Flack, Caron, and Leinen 2008; Abbey 2002). The vast majority of the research conducted on campus based sexual violence focuses on reporting, including barriers to reporting (Barnes 2016; Lindquist et al. 2016; Sheehy and Gilbert 2015; Amar et al. 2014; Santovec 2011; Cantalupo 2010; Fisher et al. 2007; Krebs et al. 2007; Sable et al. 2006; Baum and Klaus 2005; Fisher et al. 2003; Crosset, Benedict, and McDonald 1995; Copenhaver and Grauerholz 1991). A smaller body of literature focuses on prevention (Gerrits and Runyon 2015; Buchholz 2015; Grimmitt, McCool, and Alzuru 2015; Gillum 2014; V. L. Banyard 2014; McMahan et al. 2014; Gidycz and Dardis 2014; Fleck-Henderson 2012; Triplett 2012; Ahrens, Rich, and Ullman 2011; Coker et al. 2011; Foubert, Godin, and Tatum 2010; V. Banyard, Moynihan, and Crossman 2009; Burn 2009; American College of Health Association 2008; Foubert and Cowell 2004) and a few studies explore survivors’ experiences in the wake of a sexual assault (Orchowski and Gidycz 2012; Ahrens et al. 2007). It bears noting that the vast majority of these studies come out of the United States. With the exception of DeKeseredy’s (2011) research on campus based sexual violence, there are no comprehensive studies in Canada.

In the wake of high profile incidents of sexual violence as well as emerging litigation launched by students on the grounds that neither universities nor policing organizations offered adequate responses

to sexual violence, a number of investigations have been undertaken on campuses across Canada. Over the past three years, eleven Canadian universities publicly released reports that document their own internal reviews of existing sexual assault prevention and reporting strategies. These include: University of British Columbia (2014), University of Alberta (2016), University of Ottawa (2015), University of Toronto Mississauga (2014), Queen's (2015), Ryerson (2015), Dalhousie (2015), Wilfred Laurier (Harrison et al 2015), Concordia (2015), St. Francis Xavier (2014) and St. Mary's (2013) universities.

Some of these reports (such as Dalhousie University, University of Ottawa, University of British Columbia, Ryerson University) came in response to specific incidents while others (such as Concordia) launched investigations on their own accord. Regardless of their motivations, common themes emerge from these reports as well as the academic literature. These themes include concerns about underreporting and barriers to reporting, campus cultures promoting sexual violence (rape culture – though rarely named as such by universities), adverse effects on students in the wake of a sexual assault, a need for greater training regarding sexual violence across the university and prevention strategies. While many of the same themes emerged through our own research, the nature of our multi-pronged and in depth study of three universities also revealed important new themes including the predominance of outdated assumptions about 'real' or 'usual' rape contexts in universities, a siloing effect among university service providers and widespread dissatisfaction of students with university responses to sexual violence, a sentiment that was especially keen in survivors.

2.2 Outline

In the next section (3) the report briefly sets out the methodology of this study, explains the terminology employed, addresses the limitations of the study and provides basic information on the three universities that are the case studies for this project. The bulk of this report is the major findings of the study discussed under five generalized headings: constructions of sexual violence and survivors; challenges in reporting and disclosing; the creation of institutional silos; the need for education and training; and resource demands. The extensive literature conducted as part of this study informed the data collection and analysis. In the interests of keeping the report at a reasonable length and focusing on the findings of the study, there is no separate review and discussion of the literature. An annotated bibliography is included as Appendix A. The report ends with a conclusion followed by a list of the recommendations.

3.0 Method

The team was tasked with mapping responses to sexual violence on three different campuses (Carleton, Waterloo and Lakehead) in Ontario. This project included three different nodes of research: campus administrators and service providers; campus and municipal police; sexual violence survivors and student focus groups. Alongside this fieldwork, we completed a comprehensive desk study of the extant literature. In terms of raw interview data, our numbers are as follows:

- *18 sexual assault survivors,*
- *50 administrators and service providers,*
- *29 security personnel,*
- *29 students interviewed individually and in focus groups*

Further information about the research methodology and ethics process can be found in Appendix A to this report.

3.1 Terminology

Sexual violence unfolds along a continuum and this poses a challenge for terminology. Universities use various terms for differences they see in 'wrongful' sexual behavior (e.g., sexual harassment, sexual 'misconduct', sexual 'touching', sexual assault). The increased recognition of coercion and 'unwanted' sexual activity, and the operation of gendered hierarchies that influence the categorization of activities add further layers of potential confusion.

In this study we use 'sexual violence' as an umbrella term to refer to the continuum of sexualized violence that may arise in a university setting and may have impacts on students, staff and faculty. This includes 'rape' as well as other activities or harms that flow from sexualized interactions defined by gendered hierarchies and power asymmetries, and that are experienced as violent and/or unwanted. These may or may not result in a formal communication or complaint to the university. We avoid using terms like 'sexual misconduct' that tend to minimize harms. We use more specific terms like sexual assault, sexual harassment or rape where referred to by our research participants or where the specificity is relevant to the context. Serious care and attention need to be given to the language and terminology choices employed in policies and reports, because the language used reflects the seriousness with which the issue is approached and treated.

Our focus in this research is primarily on students as survivors of sexual violence, though we recognize that faculty and staff also experience sexual violence, and that students are also often employees, and in some cases, even managers. We also recognize that sexual violence is experienced by both women and men. In the course of our research, almost all the experiences we heard about involved sexual violence perpetrated by men against women, even when we asked specifically about male survivors of sexual violence. Accordingly, we use the pronouns appropriate to the cases we heard about. The lack of information about male sexual violence survivors is a concern. This might in fact reflect the even more challenging environment and barriers faced by male survivors.

3.2 Limitations

Overwhelmingly, the sexual violence cases we heard of were presented in racially neutral terms, likely meaning that most of the cases involved students racialized as white, but this is not clear. One exception to this is the problematic administrator, service provider and security discourses about 'international students' (discussed below). More research on sexual violence experienced by members of racialized 'minority' university populations is needed. The role of race in structuring and invisibilizing campus sexual violence is clearly an important one, and more research on this topic is needed as well.

At each university, First Nations, Métis and Inuit students and student services were contacted, and where possible, interviewed. We were not able to conduct dedicated focus groups with First Nations, Métis and Inuit students in the time frame of this research despite repeated efforts. From the interviews conducted, it is clear that the issues this group of students face in relation to sexual violence are shaped by colonialism and racism. More research is needed in this area too.

While incidents of sexual violence within the context of domestic violence emerged in the course of our research, this project did not specifically address the issue of campus related intimate partner violence, including within same sex couples. To our knowledge, none of the incidents of sexual violence raised with us were same sex.

This study did not explicitly seek out information on the impact of disability on campus sexual violence. Research is needed on all of these issues. As a result, research ought to be commissioned on the specific issues and impacts relating to racialization and racism, indigeneity, same sex, disability and intimate partner violence, and the impact they have on sexual violence on university campuses.

3.3 Case Studies

The three universities we examined in this project are medium (Carleton and Waterloo) or smaller-sized (Lakehead),¹ offering comprehensive coverage of humanities, social sciences and ‘STEM’ disciplines. While each has particular academic strengths, none is unusual in character or size, and yet, each reveals the complex institutional structures that are housed within the modern ‘university’. These are research and teaching institutions, which also cater to the ‘whole’ student, offering housing, financial and health services, their own police/security services, study assistance, employment and career assistance, with gyms and sporting events, often with services such as travel agents, food provision, bars, cafes, photographers and the list goes on.

The university is divided between the various functions to serve students, and each of these has specific administrative offices that are likely to be involved in sexual violence cases:

- *academic (comprised of deans and faculty members);*
- *student-conduct offices (usually a vice-president student office);*
- *equity/human rights/ombuds offices (which may offer supports to students and/or undertake investigative functions for issues arising in either an academic or non-academic context);*
- *human resources (which may be involved in investigating or handling sexual and other forms of harassment cases involving students or staff or students who are also staff);*
- *residence (where many of the front line recipients of disclosure are likely to be student-staff);*
- *athletics (for varsity and other athletes and which may have their own disciplinary processes);*
- *health and counseling,*
- *unions/associations (for students, faculty and staff); and*
- *campus security.*

¹ Located in Ottawa, Carleton University offers undergraduate and graduate programs, and is home to various institutions and schools. In 2014/2015, there were 28, 289 students enrolled at Carleton University. The majority of these students were enrolled in undergraduate programs, either full-time (20, 292) or part-time (4, 262) programs. There were 3, 735 graduate students enrolled in part-time (620) or full-time programs (3,115). The university employs 850 faculty members and 713 contract instructors (Carleton University, 2016). The University of Waterloo (UW or UWaterloo) is based in Waterloo, Ontario. The school also has six satellite campuses and four affiliated university colleges. According to the University of Waterloo, there were 36, 674 students enrolled in the fall term of 2015, with 34, 126 students enrolled full-time and 2, 548 enrolled part-time. In 2015, 30, 275 students were enrolled in undergraduate programs, 5, 266 enrolled in graduate programs, and 1,133 students registered in non-degree or qualifying programs. There are 1,174 full time faculty and 2,257 staff at the university (University of Waterloo, 2016a). Lakehead University is a mid-sized university and has its main campus in Thunder Bay and an extension campus in Orilla, Ontario. The school has undergraduate and graduate programs, the Bora Laskin Faculty of Law as well as the Northern Ontario School of Medicine. During the year 2014/2015, there were 8,526 students enrolled at both the Thunder Bay and Orilla campus (Lakehead, Annual Report 2014-2015). There are 319 full time faculty and 1,850 staff (715 of which are full time positions) at Lakehead (Lakehead University, 2016a).

Disclosure unfolds in all these contexts depending on the identity of the survivor or perpetrator (staff, student or faculty), the context of the violence (residence, academic-related, employment or athletics) and the type of support sought (academic accommodations, counseling or security).

4.0 Major Findings

Our investigation of the response to sexual violence at Ontario Universities elicited five key generalized findings that resonate with varied effects across the three respondent groups we investigated. These five major findings are presented thematically, and by respondent group to highlight the reach and effect of these systemic issues. They are: (1) constructions of sexual violence and of survivors; (2) challenges in reporting and disclosing; (3) the creation of institutional silos; (4) the need for education and training; and (5) resource demands. We present these sequentially in this section before offering additional reflections on some important structural consequences of these problems.

4.1 Constructions of Sexual Violence and of the Survivor

Sexual violence and the response to sexual violence on university campuses are shaped by limiting and problematic understandings of sexual violence and of the survivor. These narratives are not endemic to university campuses; rather, they reflect wider societal understandings of sexual violence and survivors. Moreover, institutional and especially criminal justice responses to sexual violence have to fashion responses within the context of legal, reputational and risk mitigation that significantly impact their capacity to deal effectively with such incidents. These structural and ideological conditions are entangled with particular readings of survivors and sexual violence in general. These cultural and institutional considerations are highly impacted by narrative expectations.

4.1.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

Interviews with survivors reveal the multiple ways in which broader narratives of sexual violence shaped their own understandings of the violence they experienced, triggered responses of self-blame and denial, and instigated a reluctance to disclose or report. Their reactions demonstrate how prevailing understandings of ‘real rape,’ which privilege “stranger danger” incidents of sexual violence as the most egregious, typical, and worthy of intervention, impact the processes of naming and identifying sexual violence. Survivor accounts also illuminate the significant mismatch between these imaginaries of ‘real rape’ and actual occurrences. In so doing, they provide insight into the varying contexts in which sexual violence unfolds on university campuses.

Incidents of campus sexual violence occur along a continuum that includes sexual violence in the context of ongoing or previous relationships, in campus bars and residences, in incidents involving assailants who are known to the survivor, and those who are not. It includes ‘stereotypical’ rape scenarios in which women are assaulted by strangers or by men who drug them. It also includes coercive, unwanted sexual encounters where prevailing gender norms combined with hyper sexualized contexts complicate understandings of what constitutes consent. Survivors relayed incidents involving students and faculty members as perpetrators and were themselves both students and faculty.

Regardless of context, and particularly in cases where perpetrators were former intimate partners or acquaintances they dated, all of the survivors interviewed expressed difficulty in naming what happened to them as rape. They reported ongoing shame, guilt and mistrust, fears of not being believed, varying degrees of posttraumatic stress disorder, depression, suicide attempts, troubles with schoolwork and relationships, and a widespread need to hide what had happened to them. The vast majority expressed

a reluctance to report to police or disclose the incident to an administrator or service provider in the immediate aftermath of the assault. For many survivors, reaching a point in their lives where they felt able to discuss their experiences, and identify what happened to them as violence took several months to a year. A significant factor in precipitating these processes was the involvement of trusted friends, mentors and individuals who were knowledgeable about sexual violence. Taking classes in which sexual violence was discussed was also an important precursor in raising awareness.

Survivor accounts, particularly those relayed by Emma and Zayanya (below), demonstrate the limiting effects of dominant narratives of sexual violence, and the obstacles they impose in distinguishing between consensual and non-consensual sex. Both students endured sexual violence within the context of dating and intimate relationships. Their experiences contrast sharply with “stranger danger” accounts of rape, which, not surprisingly, made them feel reluctant to seek assistance because of fear that they would not be taken seriously. Prevailing beliefs that only strangers perpetrate rape also prevented them from immediately recognizing what happened to them as rape.

Emma met her assailant during orientation week and dated him for a month. During her interview, she described how difficult it was to comprehend the violence she experienced as rape, since her perpetrator was someone she knew and in her circle of friends. She blamed herself for not realizing that he was sexually abusive right from the beginning of the relationship:

I let it happen for almost a month and then realized, okay, I’m not happy and then I left. It ended up being what made me leave. But it took a while to get around to it. So, I thought, how could it have been an assault because it wasn’t as if someone was in a dark alley. It was someone I knew and someone I had chosen to be with... The [stranger assaults] are the only thing we’re taught about.

When discussing how she came to identify her experiences as sexual violence, Emma noted the significance of her disclosure to a friend in the Women’s Studies Department a year after the assault took place. This first disclosure precipitated a second disclosure, this time to her counselor. She credits both her friend and counselor as providing her with the support and validation required to “get back on with her life,” a process she noted took over two years.

Zayanya, a fourth year student, shared a very similar account. Zayanya experienced ongoing sexual abuse within the context of her first long-term relationship at the start of her undergraduate career. Despite the fact that both she and the perpetrator were undergraduate students, there was a gap in their ages. Whereas the perpetrator was on the verge of completing his undergraduate degree at the time, she, in contrast, had just turned 17, and “barely knew anything.” Although she had always sensed that there was a “very bad power dynamic” in the relationship, Zayanya felt hesitant to disclose the abuse because she did not think anyone would believe her. A significant factor contributing to her silence was her own confusion over whether or not her experiences constituted sexual assault despite her steadfast awareness that she was not consenting at various points in the relationship. Like Emma, Zayanya realized something was wrong early on, and “tried to get out” of the relationship, which continued for a year and a half. She blamed herself for not leaving the relationship earlier. When asked to elaborate on her concerns that no one would believe her if she sought assistance, Zayanya expressed her fear that the authority figures she disclosed to would tell her that sexual violence could not genuinely occur within the context of an intimate relationship. She felt this way despite perceiving most of the authority figures she interacted with in her department as supportive.

Our undergraduate chair is actually amazing. Within five minutes of meeting us, she knew everyone's names. But, because it was known we were in a relationship, I felt that there was still that perception that this was allowable within the context of the relationship because I was dating him, so sex and things were expected. [Did someone say that to you, or was that what you were assuming?] I was assuming that someone would say that.

When she was finally able to extricate herself from the situation, Zayanya required a leave of absence from her studies to address the emotional consequences of the violence and the difficulties associated with having to continually see and interact with her abuser, given their shared community and academic department.

The influence of dominant narratives of sexual violence also surfaced in survivor accounts describing instances of acquaintance rape. Ohary, who was assaulted on a date that included a formal event, described how her assailant made her feel like she owed him sexual favours because he bought her a corsage, paid for an expensive dinner, and rented a limo. The stereotypical gendered norms he evoked to justify his actions also impacted Ohary's perception of what occurred. When discussing her rationale for not initially disclosing the incident, she explained that she was not entirely sure if someone who had feelings for her could assault her. In addition, given that the incident deviated from the stranger narrative of rape, she expressed concerns that no one would take her complaint seriously:

I didn't think it would be that important... I didn't think anyone would care.... I thought this stuff happens because the person actually likes you but after I realized that I was objectified. I was like 'I'm not OK'.

These accounts reveal how dominant narratives of sexual violence impact survivors' actual experiences with identifying, responding to, and emotionally addressing the consequences of sexual violence. Regardless of how survivors defined assaults, all of them reported severe difficulties with coping both in the immediate aftermath of their assaults and long term.

Student focus groups revealed how dominant narratives of sexual violence surfaced in their campus communities. Of particular concern was how police responded to, and at times, constructed women who reported incidents of rape and sexual harassment, which they learned about through campus alerts, discussions with campus police, and in some contexts, directly from students involved in incidents. Several students remarked on how these processes drew on myths about sexual violence and survivors, and perpetuated victim blaming. Within the university context, these narratives were laced with additional constructions of student survivors as irresponsible, intoxicated, and unable to look after themselves.

During her interview, Alex, who also runs consent-training workshops on her campus, discussed a conversation she had with a campus police officer about the investigation of incidents, an issue she hoped to learn more about given her involvement in rape prevention initiatives on her university campus. Through the conversation, she learned that police officers not only interrogate complainants about substance use at the time of the incident, but that they also ask the complainants what they were wearing. Both lines of questioning, according to her source, were routine during investigations of sexual violence. Stories from her friends who reported incidents of sexual violence to the police confirmed the information. Alex advised that while she understood the rationale provided for why officers inquired about whether complainants were intoxicated during the assault – that it was part of the fact finding

process in preparation for a trial should one occur – questions about a complainant’s attire were irrelevant, sexist and blatantly asserted that women were to blame for what happened to them. Along with eliminating this line of police questioning entirely, Alex asserted the need for sensitivity training for police officers involved in sexual violence investigations, particularly when raising questions about alcohol and drug use to avoid insinuating that victims were responsible for their assaults.

Along with perpetuating victim blaming, Alex expressed concerns that police practices also fomented myths that survivors lie about sexual violence. She referred to a specific incident that occurred on her campus, in which a complainant retracted her statement after filing a report. The two male assailants in the case were unknown to the survivor. Alex advised that after the complainant made her report, the campus police distributed a campus alert to notify the university community. Although the alert triggered widespread anxiety amongst students, partially due, according to Alex, to the “vague descriptions” provided about the assailants, she agreed with the steps police took to inform the campus community. However, she critiqued how they handled the retraction. After it occurred, campus police distributed a second mass alert indicating that the incident “never happened.” In response, explained Alex, many students assumed that the complainant lied about the incident, a reaction that eventually transformed into a general disbelief in the occurrence of campus rape and perceptions that women often falsely allege sexual violence. Alex emphasized the need for more critical analysis in the wake of these incidents, and asserted that campus police had a responsibility to be more mindful of the potential backlash when such matters occur. She raised questions about what transpired behind the scenes of the investigation, and noted various reasons why survivors retract their allegations, based on factors not related to the veracity of the allegation.

Problematic understandings of survivors and sexual violence surfaced during frosh week, orientation events, and within the context of fraternities. Each of these are specific sites of egregious sexist attitudes, which seem to persist unabated. “Frat culture” is perhaps the most pernicious example. Fraternities are student associations that are not regulated by the university. Based on interviews with survivors and students, fraternity life, alongside varsity culture, is one site where sexual violence is particularly normalized. Respondents asserted that fraternities maintain and encourage rape culture either through actively celebrating sexual assault, or by tolerating generalized misogyny.

Lilly is in a sorority and described to us a ‘red light, yellow light, green light’ party that was being held jointly between her sorority and some of the fraternities on campus. Lilly described the significance of the color-coding at the party, and how the process encouraged a climate of implied consent:

If you wear red it means ‘I’m in a relationship’ which means ‘I do not give you consent’ because apparently you need to have an excuse for not giving consent. Yellow light means it’s complicated and green means ‘go for it’.... If you’re wearing green, people should still be asking you consent but like this whole system is telling people that they don’t need to ask for consent.

Lilly went on to explain that some of the sororities had suggested having dry mixers, an idea that was roundly rejected by the fraternities because, in Lilly’s words, “...they want us drunk so they can take advantage of us.” Lilly went on to explain that, in her experience, rape culture in frat life on campus is ‘through the roof,’ and indicated that nobody was interested in stopping it.

Lilly also explained that part of one fraternity’s pledge process involved a ‘bingo card.’ These cards held the names of every sorority on campus, and a pledge could put an “x” through the name of the sorority

once he had had sex with a member of that sorority. Pledges were told that filling their bingo cards would be favourably looked upon in considering their pledges.

When women like Lilly *do* traverse these highly sexually charged environments, they are often held accountable for their choice to participate. As a result, it is hardly surprising that in cases where basic precautions are not taken by young women, an initially sympathetic investigator can quickly become frustrated, and begin to point to the actions of the victim herself.

Overall, students displayed a wide spectrum of knowledge and opinions with regards to sexual violence on campus, police and university responses, and victim experiences. Beliefs appeared to be contingent on the students' backgrounds (e.g., academic field of study, experiences in advocacy regarding gender-based violence and status as international students). Those who had more exposure to the topic of gender-based violence either through their studies or through their volunteer work were more inclined to identify 'rape culture' on campus and incidences of victim blaming, to be critical of their respective universities with regards to responses to survivors, and generally held the opinion that universities were not doing enough to support survivors and prevent sexual violence on campuses. Students also pointed to the gravity of rape culture and the lack of awareness about what constituted sexual violence amongst first year students. In addition, they advised that the problem was far more prevalent than what is actually reported or disclosed to university administrators and campus police.

4.1.2 Administrators and Service Providers

As with security personnel discussed below, administrators emphasized the importance of operating in accordance with the survivors' wishes in any and all responses. This 'survivor-centered approach', while laudable and for many heartfelt, was often combined with narrow and stereotypical understandings of sexual violence as it unfolds on university campuses, with corresponding depictions of sexual violence survivors as 'excessive' in their demands.

University administrators routinely drew distinctions between 'clear' and 'serious' sexual violence, and 'less clear' and 'less serious' incidents. This distinction, while seemingly straightforward in the administrators' minds, is underpinned in many cases by stereotypical understandings and myths about rape. Complaints of sexual violence that do not line up with these stereotypical understandings tend to be minimized by administrators and/or seen as requiring only a limited response on the basis that these sexual violence incidents are 'not clear' or not supported by enough evidence. One administrator told us an account, summarized below (UADM 3):

A female student came forward to report that she had been sexual assaulted by a male student with whom she was working. Both students were known to the administrator. The administrator's course of action in such a case was to hear from both the complainant and respondent, to weigh the evidence and then reach a decision. The administrator heard from the respondent that the sexual activities were consensual and that the complainant was "out to get him". The administrator determined that, nonetheless, something had indeed happened but there was insufficient evidence to have the perpetrator removed from campus, as the complainant had asked. "I don't have tonnes of evidence, and I don't have tonnes of experience. But my first concern was with her." The result was that the male student had some limits placed on his movements on campus and his involvement in some volunteer activities. The monitoring and enforcement of those limits, as is often the case in this and other universities, was up to survivor.

What constitutes ‘tonnes of evidence’ is a matter of administrator discretion, and this is where limiting narratives of sexual violence and myths about survivor reliability come in. Later in the interview, this administrator went on to explain what would be done in cases with ‘clear’ evidence: “If there is someone with a clear complaint and camera footage of the guy going into her room... we’re pretty strong in this area and willing to remove him from (residence).” (UADM 3)

In this framing, the administrator has in mind a stereotypical ‘stranger rape’; a stranger goes into the residence room of an unsuspecting woman to commit sexual assault. Even with this ‘ideal’ model of a campus sexual violence, the administrator would require a high level of proof – e.g., videotaped evidence – before the perpetrator would be removed from residence, even though the administrator’s professed first concern is with the survivor.

As sexual violence unfolds along a continuum shaped by gender norms, different types of violence will present as involving varying degrees of severity. Drawing distinctions between types of violence and levels of severity is inevitable. The important point is on what basis, and according to what latent beliefs and assumptions are administrators making distinctions between ‘clear’ and ‘less clear’? Presumptions of what constitutes ‘clear’ rape (e.g., stranger rape and/or videotape evidence) have an impact on decisions made about the remedies for the survivor. In the case summarized above, for example, rather than having the perpetrator removed as the survivor requested, the administrator made a judgment call that there was insufficient evidence, and opted for a lesser, more informalized response.

Calculations as to what constituted ‘serious’ cases were similarly impacted by limited understandings of sexual violence and the operation of idealized models of ‘real’ rape. Sexual violence as part of a prior or ongoing relationship was one area where this was most evident. We heard several examples of sexual violence as part of intimate relationships. The kinds of situations administrators described to us are generalized as follows (amalgamated and with details changed to protect confidentiality):

Two students in a relationship, living in university residence, break up. The relationship was emotionally abusive and the living arrangements mean the students have ongoing contact. The abuser continues to hold power over the victim, threatening suicide, demanding constant attention and support, severely constraining the victim’s movements even to attend classes or to access social networks. Sexual activity continues, but it is the emotional abuse that the victim initially reports to university services. Over the course of several meetings, she comes to see the abuse as including sexual violence. (USP 9, USP 12, UADM 27)

In cases such as this, administrators and service providers are involved, but often not on the basis that these are cases of sexual violence. These cases tend to be minimized as relationships gone wrong or as mental health issues. When classed as ‘relationships,’ university action can be even more limited if most of the abusive conduct happens off campus. While less common, we also encountered administrators and service providers who discounted the phenomenon of university sexual violence. These forms of denial were accompanied by assertions that campus sexual violence was “serious,” but not as pressing as other issues or as something that happened before students arrived on campus. One administrator stated: “The majority of what we see is sexual violence in the past; when they were children, in high school, home for the holidays or in the summertime.” (UADM 10)

In other cases, administrators emphasized that they saw campus sexual violence as serious, but as paling in comparison to the range of other, presumably more serious matters. A university administrator

stated: “I wouldn’t say sexual violence is endemic. We have those situations we deal with through the policy but we have other, perennial issues [such as union] grievances.” (UADM 5) When sexual violence is positioned as less serious, then it becomes easier to justify limited responses, such as ‘talking to’ the perpetrator rather than removing him from campus.

The different ways in which sexual violence is seen, on balance, in terms of ‘unclear,’ ‘less serious’ can shift administrators’ overall attitude. One area where this became evident was in weighing the needs of the survivor/complainant against the perpetrator/respondent. All administrators have to ensure due process in cases of a complaint. This is clear. However, balancing also comes into play when a complaint has been assessed as founded; that is, where there is a sexual violence survivor, who is a student, and a sexual violence perpetrator, who is a student or a faculty member. Here, questions of the ‘effects’ on the perpetrator also took on an inordinate dimension for some administrators and service providers:

If you are dealing with the victim side, you are coming from the perspective you want to support the victim. I understand that, but you have to think about the accused; they are young people and sometimes they can make a horrible, horrible mistake.” (UADM 4)

Having a response that did not ‘unduly’ penalize or stigmatize the perpetrator, even where it was warranted, was resisted by some because of its “effects” on the accused. When complaints involved faculty members, this balancing tended to be framed in terms of rights to privacy:

I think privacy has to be paramount; allegations are so damaging on both sides. The person making the complaint can choose how confidential they want the complaint to be but short of a formal complaint, I think the other side has expectations of privacy. Rumours and innuendo are damaging to reputations. (USP 14)

Of course, attention must be paid to the perpetrator. Opportunities for education and remedies must be sought to help the perpetrator as well as the survivor, and conditions must be created for the perpetrator to recognize his conduct. Our concern is how this question of ‘balance’ is shaped by the limited understandings administrators have of sexual violence, and how balance can be achieved in a climate where sexual violence survivors have such limited recognition and remedy, and where they regularly blame themselves for the violence they endured.

For many administrators and service providers, the largely informalized response to sexual violence with minimal, if any, consequences for the perpetrator was appropriate as the way to achieve a fair ‘balance’ between survivor and perpetrator ‘rights.’ While a number of the administrators and service providers expressed concern about the fairness of complaint processes facing sexual violence survivors, particularly in light of the *Ghomeshi* trial, these and other interviewees also often expressed concerns about processes unfairly targeting male students and faculty members as ‘perpetrators.’ A number of respondents were of the view that university systems were too heavily weighted in favour of the survivor. Concerns were expressed that “allegations” had a profoundly negative effect on individual men, and that these men need to be protected. The negative effects of sexual violence were not identified as equally serious.

To be clear, balanced responses to sexual violence that adhere to due process guarantees are important. Our point here is that questions of balance sometimes mask what are in fact highly imbalanced contexts in which the institutional actors constrain the spaces in which sexual violence survivors can seek recognition, recourse and supports.

4.1.3 Policing Personnel

For campus special constables and security personnel, the survivor was both “at-risk” and potentially risky. Respondents were always clear that the survivor should never be blamed, and that acts of sexual violence were the fault and responsibility of the offender alone. Yet, they also argued that women were often taking too many risks given, for example, the milieu of university frosh week, residence life, being away from home for the first time and the need for acceptance and belonging:

I can't imagine going to U of T or Waterloo or one of these bigger universities and coming from a small town. How overwhelming it must be and how much you want to fit in with everybody but you don't know what you should and shouldn't be doing. With sexual assault, what's consent for guys and girls? You need to know when someone's breaking the law and when you're breaking the law and what to do about it. (POL 4)

Dealing with the university, there are young males and females. First time away from home and maybe don't approach it with the most mature attitude and they put themselves into a lot of situations where they absolutely shouldn't... They're gonna make their own mistakes. (POL 14)

Another general consideration regarding the potential for sexual violence on university campuses was the ethnicity and place of origin of the potential offender. This played prominently in anticipated cultural understandings of North American standards by international students:

It's all part and parcel of what's appropriate and not appropriate. Whether you come from a different environment, country, culture, whatever it is, those things need to be factored in as well because you have people coming in from different places who are unaware of what is acceptable in this society here. (POL 10)

One security administrator confided:

We have many international students on campus coming from places that have very different values about sex and gender than we do. Some of them have never even been able to interact with the opposite sex until now. Conflict and misunderstanding is bound to occur. (CSP 2)

While campus and off-campus law enforcement personnel repeatedly expressed sympathy for the survivors, they also depicted the same women as potentially risky if too quickly believed. The potential of false allegations weighed heavily in the considerations of policing personnel, often quite unapologetically so. Indeed, police view their respective role as fact finders and investigators whose responsibility includes eliminating cases that could significantly hurt the reputation and future of a person wrongfully accused. As a result, almost every police and security official we interviewed could cite at least one case of a false accusation that had significant ramifications for either the accused, the university or both. In the case of battered women, this phenomenon has elsewhere been described as “constructing the symbolic complainant” (Rigakos 1995) – a process whereby the police culture employs narrative tropes as cautionary tales about unreliable, duplicitous or even confused and ‘hysterical’ women. According to these narratives, women not only fabricate tales but also burn officers at trial by failing to repeat their accusations or changing their stories. These narratives have important implications for women. Thus, no matter how sympathetic an individual officer may be, a cautionary patriarchal narrative about women complainants lingers in the background, easily summoned to reinforce institutional risk:

A victim who said she was walking at night from one area of campus to the residence and a guy came out and sexually assaulted her pretty badly. She had a black eye and cuts to her face. And it was a mess here. Regional police were here. Did all that stuff. Had to notify the campus and there were Jane Doe implications to notify not only the campus community but the community at large. It turned out it was all fabricated. It caused great division among groups on the campus because some groups were convinced that it really happened and she only recanted because police were investigating and she felt uncomfortable. There was solid information that it did not happen. But we police or they police can't put out that information and the victim was embarrassed by all of this and would not clarify even to her own friends that she had lied. So it was a real difficult time on campus. (CSP 1)

In this particular case, the survivor was an international student away from home for the first time with "freedom to do what she wanted." She developed an online relationship with someone who shared sadomasochistic fantasies with her for many months until they agreed to meet and carry out these fantasies. According to one campus special constable, "they carried out the fantasies exactly as they described." When she returned to residence she felt she had to provide an explanation for her injuries to her friends, and so she purportedly fabricated a story about being sexually assaulted. According to the respondent, "regional police finally came out and said that the story was untrue" but the details were withheld.

This narrative serves as an example of how stories of symbolic complainants can act as powerful reinforcements for patriarchal fears. The narrative includes a series of tropes associated with established structural understandings of women including: (1) the unfortunate effect of promiscuity; (2) the result of the poor decision-making by a 'newly freed,' unsupervised young woman; (3) the inevitable consequences of engaging in the dangers of kink and social media; and, finally, (4) of course, that this culminated in an ill-informed, racialized and politicized campus response. All this to the dismay of informed, well-meaning police personnel who knew the truth but who nonetheless chivalrously guarded the shameful secret. One can imagine how such a story can have powerful ramifications for the way in which an organization's personnel come to understand women. The symbolic complainant taxes the police because she elicits a strange and somewhat toxic mixture of sympathy and betrayal resulting in lost time, resources and frustration, eventually breeding 'compassion fatigue.'

Another example of how this dyad of sympathy pairs with feelings of incredulity in narratives about sexual assault is, perhaps not surprisingly, a tale of lost virginity:

She felt that she was a victim. There's no doubt she felt she was victimized. There was consensual sex. The part where she feels victimized is that sex was important to her values. She was still a virgin. That was very important to her and she made it clear to this individual. They had sex and then down the road this individual says this relationship isn't working out... There was like emotional abuse. "You said the right things, did the right things, but the whole thing was to have sex with me." But the sex itself was consensual in that moment. The law doesn't ask "was he trying to trick you?" (POL 15)

This particular story about the scorned virgin was shared with us by three different members of the same police unit which makes it clear that it played some role in the group's overall construction of

sexual assault complainants. Indeed, cases of false or erroneous allegations were quite common among police respondents who deal with a wide array of complaints and, in certain cases, hundreds of reports throughout their careers. Often, the respondent will make a note of the moral character of the complainant and her disposition during the interview, testing the veracity of her claims against other available evidence. In the following case, the woman involved was having an extra-marital affair, and had made an allegation that she has been sexually assaulted in a hotel room.

It dealt with a big hole in her memory. They ended up checking in to a hotel and she has a very limited amount of information that she is able to provide. Very foggy. Married. She indicated that she was sexually assaulted over a long period of time. No recollection of leaving the bar. Thought that she was drugged. We went to the motel, grabbed the video from the lobby of both him and her checking in and leaving the next morning. Absolutely... it was so revealing. She's standing behind him as he's checking in and she's hugging him from behind. Leaning on him. Hand in hand to the room. The next morning she calls for the cab. She says she's so upset she's crying. There's no indication of that at all. (POL 14)

What was particularly abhorrent to this detective was his assumption that the woman was likely using the police to construct a story in the hopes of preserving her marriage and, in the process, potentially sending an innocent man to jail.

Finding corroborating evidence that undermines a case can leave an indelible impression. In the following case, the police were caught by surprise when there was no corroborating video evidence to support a claim of sexual assault even in light of the fact that the alleged perpetrator was a known sexual predator, and that the woman making the report was very believable.

She's saying that there's this guy that's behind her on the bus and he reaches over her shoulder and slides his hand down inside of her shirt and fondles her breast and she is absolutely still, frozen with fear. She's crying during the interview and we do an investigation that leads us to believe that the person she's talking about is on the sex offender registry so we're thinking "this is looking really good" until we get the video [from the inside of the bus]... He taps her on the shoulder and asks her a question... The rest of it was in her head. (POL 14)

One can only imagine the effect this type of investigation can have on police detectives; how even in cases when all of the particulars seem to be in order, where the woman seems reliable and truthful, the whole incident may nonetheless just be "in her head." It is an extraordinary cautionary tale.

4.2 Challenges in Reporting and Disclosing

A defining feature of university responses to sexual violence is the absence of formal reports. Interviews with administrators, service providers and survivors by and large indicate that sexual violence survivors rarely make or wish to pursue a formal report or complaint. Survivor interviews reveal the multiple reasons why reporting and disclosing were not seen as viable options in the aftermath of an assault. In addition, these accounts highlight the various obstacles survivors encountered when they actually did disclose to counseling and health services, report to the police, or disclose to university administrators for the purpose of initiating investigations.

Responses to sexual violence unfold in an ‘informalized’ context of limited disclosures of sexual violence which, in the main, do not lead to official reports or complaints. Therefore, the current focus of universities and government on the development of better reporting and policy environments is not responsive to the situation, realities and needs of the majority of survivors of sexual violence on our campuses today. These initiatives, at best, will be more relevant in a future context where survivors feel safe and supported enough to make a formal report; we are not at that point now.

All of the institutional respondents we interviewed seem well intentioned, yet, are faced with administrative and legal constraints that significantly circumscribe their ability to act and coordinate. The effect can be chilling and re-victimizing for survivors. The need to interrogate every aspect of a complainant’s history and her reporting of her story to others which has always been a problem has been amplified by the *Ghomeshi* effect, which placed an even greater stress on the reliability and credibility of the victim. As one respondent put it: “It’s all about building credibility. The in-depth interview is important. It either builds up a case or completely dismantles it.” (POL 14)

Recommendation

The government and university focus for action on sexual violence on university campuses should move beyond the development of better reporting and policy environments to focus more on service provision, informal remedies and the prevention of sexual violence, in accordance with the needs and wishes of the majority of survivors of sexual violence on our campuses.

4.2.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

Survivors raised an array of concerns related to reporting and disclosing sexual violence: long wait times at counseling services, which often deterred them from returning after their initial intake appointments; experiences of victim blaming from counselors and physicians; a lack of clarity with regards to policies and procedures during university investigations of complaints, in addition to few meaningful outcomes; and negative experiences with the police and criminal justice system. Survivors who did not report to the police or disclose to university authorities advised that they chose to stay silent due to shame, self blame, a need to deny the assault ever occurred, and fear that no one would believe them. Several survivors indicated that they avoided the criminal justice system because they feared “losing control” of their cases, and believed the experience would only re-traumatize them, a sentiment that was echoed during focus groups by students when asked to discuss their preferred courses of action following an assault. The few survivors in the sample who indicated a preference for formal criminal justice intervention ultimately did not pursue this route due to inaccurate information they received from counselors (see section 4.5.1.) and other authority figures. The students interviewed advised that they received no information at all regarding university policy and procedures for addressing incidents of sexual violence on campus, and knew nothing about these processes. Information on university policies and processes relating to sexual violence was seldom provided to survivors and when provided, was generally unclear, confusing and difficult to absorb.

4.2.1.1 Counseling and Health Services

Violet’s account of her experiences in the aftermath of the assault she endured reveals a number of these themes. Violet attended her university’s counseling services two weeks after being raped by another student, whom she met during orientation week. The reaction she encountered was not at all what she expected, and left her feeling ashamed and re-traumatized. Along with being asked to provide details about the incident, which she did not feel were relevant to receiving counseling, Violet advised that her counselor asked her a series of questions which made her feel as if the assault was her fault. In

addition, despite divulging that she was experiencing suicidal ideation, she had to wait over two weeks for her next appointment with her counselor.

When I went to counseling, this was in my first year, I had to go to a desk and fill out questions about how suicidal I was and how I was feeling. And I checked off “really bad.” And then during my intake, the woman asked me to play out the scenario, like play by play, what happened. So [I relayed what happened]... And the counselor asked, “Are you sure your choices of hanging out with him were okay? Shouldn’t you have thought about that? Then after I had the intake appointment, I had to wait over two weeks for the next appointment, even though I checked off “very suicidal.”

Unfortunately, Violet’s negative encounters with campus services continued throughout her undergraduate degree. She described a recent appointment with a doctor at health services, which she attended to obtain a re-fill on her anti-depressants. When the doctor asked her why she required the medication, she disclosed that she had been raped, and was continuing to deal with trauma, depression and additional emotional consequences from the assault. The doctor proceeded to ask her a number of invasive questions about the incident. She then questioned Violet’s account entirely.

[T]he doctor asked me why I needed the anti-depressants and I said it was because of the incident, I need them. And then she asked me, “What happened? Did you know the person? Were you drunk? Where was it on campus?” And she was asking me all these questions and I wasn’t responding. And she said, “Are you sure that’s what happened? This campus is pretty safe.” So, actually, my friend made an appointment with health services to talk to the Director about that. I didn’t expect her to ask me these questions. I think the worst part was that she didn’t believe me. She asked me whether I was drunk. And I said I wasn’t.

The initial responses of service providers who are turned to as trusted sources of emotional support as well as authority figures are crucial to validate a survivor’s experience of sexual violence. Long wait times for assistance following disclosures of depression, suicidal thoughts, experiences of trauma and crisis as a result of rape send a message to survivors that there is nowhere to turn within their universities for support. When survivors confront victim blaming, insensitive questioning requiring them to relay the details of assaults and re-live the trauma, and insinuations that the violence they experienced never really happened, the effects are traumatizing and life long, leaving a legacy of hopelessness. For Violet, the repercussions of the rape felt like they were “never going to get better.” She eventually sought the services of a counselor off campus on the recommendation of one authority figure she eventually confided in at her university.

4.2.1.2 University Investigations

Investigations into sexual assaults were few and far between; those that did take place appeared to follow an unclear process that was rarely disclosed to survivors. If the process was disclosed, it was done in a way and at a time that the survivor could not actually retain the information. Summer’s account of her experience of the university investigation process highlights these concerns. When Summer, who was assaulted by a faculty member, launched her formal complaint, the onus was placed on her to continuously return to the university office where she initially made her complaint in order to stay up to date on the status of the investigation. As an international student, she was concerned about language barriers, especially given that the initial complaint was required in written form. During our interview,

Summer indicated that she felt consistently unclear about the reporting process, but could not be sure if the lack of clarity stemmed from the fact that the information was not conveyed to her or because the procedures were conveyed to her while she was in acute trauma, which interfered with her ability to retain the information. She eventually returned to the trusted faculty member to whom she had initially reported the assault in order to help her sort out the different steps of the reporting process. In addition to feeling confused about university policies and procedures, Summer felt that the official reporting process did not address her safety concerns in a way that would maintain her anonymity. One intervention she requested was for a safety plan to prevent the possibility of encountering her assailant on campus. In response, she was offered a campus security escort while on campus. This is a routine offering made by universities, but one that many survivors, including Summer, reject due to understandable concerns of being marked and standing out on campus.

Along with a lack of clarity over university policies and procedures, the few survivors that did involve university officials did not achieve a resolution to their cases. Addie's story is illustrative of both problems. Addie was on a residence floor with a group of men who were routinely harassing the female students on the floor. The incidents she and her peers experienced included rape threats, harassing and threatening behavior, and attempts to gain access into their dorm rooms. One morning, Addie awoke to find that someone had written 'get ready to be raped' on the white board posted on her dorm door. In addition, a swastika was carved into her door. Though she erased the rape threat due to embarrassment, she told her residence fellow about the damage to her door due to her concerns that she would be held financially responsible for the repairs. The incident was reported to the manager of the residence who reassured Addie that she would not be charged for the damage to her door and that residence staff would follow up with her after reviewing security camera footage to determine the identities of the perpetrators. Five months later, Addie had yet to hear from the management of the residence or any other university official with regards to the incident. No official investigation was ever launched and the possibility of making a formal complaint was never presented to her as an option. Addie left the residence a short while after the incident due to safety concerns, but on occasion she visits her friends in her previous residence. She indicated that the same men whom she believes harassed her are still engaging in the same threatening behavior with seeming impunity.

4.2.1.3 Reporting to the Police

Overall, survivors were extremely reluctant to report incidents of sexual violence to the police. Decisions to avoid the legal system were based on a range of factors including fears of losing control of the process, concerns that regional police in particular would mistreat students or not take their complaints seriously, the specter of victim blaming and fears that reporting would result in a "monster of legal drama," a possible gesture to the aftermath of the Ghomeshi case.

Two of the survivors we interviewed indicated that they reported their assaults to the police. Both accounts illustrate the inadequacies of police investigations with regards to campus-based sexual violence complaints, though one case ultimately resulted in a positive outcome for the complainant. Melissa was sexually assaulted and stalked by her ex-boyfriend while still in high school a year before she began university. Her experiences with the criminal justice system were both negative and positive. Although she found the police to be responsive at some points, she indicated that she often felt left in the dark, and expressed concerns that her case "slipped through the cracks." Years later, she still does not know the intricacies of how the police and prosecutors handled her case. She also indicated that the police did not pursue the sexual violence charges against her ex-boyfriend despite the fact that she clearly stated her complaint of rape in her statement. The rationale provided for not pursuing the charge was a low prospect of conviction, given that the perpetrator was her ex-boyfriend. They instead

chose to charge him with forcible confinement and criminal harassment based on the allegations in her statement.

Melissa was angered that the police did not pursue her sexual violence complaint and the lack of information she received throughout the process. However, she was satisfied with the outcome of her case, a peace bond, since the intervention appeared to be enough to deter her ex-boyfriend from contacting her. In addition, she suspected that the criminal charge and the ongoing investigation may have provided her with leverage when notifying the university of the incident, a measure she needed to take since her perpetrator was accepted to the same university. Melissa said:

I contacted the University around when I got my residence assignment for living on campus and told them what was going on. He really expressed that this was not going to stop anytime soon and I wanted to make sure that he didn't come here and... that I would have a safe space. I wondered if there was anything they could do. If they could retract his offer or at least make sure he wasn't living in the same residence as me. And they were amazing. I actually had a great experience with resident services. I had no idea what actually went down because it's confidential. But it turns out that he didn't end up coming here and I don't know if it was something the university did, or something that residence services did, or if they just made it so difficult for him. I don't know. But something happened and it worked out for the best for me.

Although she does not know what happened behind the scenes, Melissa was relieved that the Resident Life Coordinator took her complaint seriously, and that her assailant ultimately did not enroll in her university.

Jordan's interactions with the criminal justice system were less productive, and left her feeling as if she were to blame for the rape she endured. Her experience played a significant role in why it took her "almost two years" to realize that the assault was not her fault. Jordan was raped in her second year by a student from another university who was visiting her friend for the weekend. She reported the incident to the police after both her sister and her good friend encouraged her to do so. Jordan advised that although the police officer was a "nice man," the way in which he questioned her while taking her statement left her doubting her own story. She noted the degree to which the officer "cross checked" her account, which made her feel as if she, not the perpetrator, had done something.

[The officer] was saying things like, "if you can't really remember how you got there, how do you know you had nothing to do with it?" And he would go in and out of the room and there was another officer in an adjoining room who was watching it all. He had told me this before: that he would be sitting in the room with me and his partner was watching. And he stepped out of the room to talk to her. And that also made me a little uncomfortable just because I knew that they were examining my facial expressions. I felt like I was being tested. He would come back from those meetings with questions that she brought up. They thought it was curious that I had remembered some things but not others, such as how I had gotten into the room. I hadn't remembered that at all. But, I had remembered certain things that had happened previously. My memory was more detailed from before, which I don't think is curious because when you've been drinking, you have more memory and then you have less memory...I didn't realize how much it affected me until this year when I was thinking back... At the time, I didn't think too much about it.

Jordan reported to the police as a “way to close the door and move on” from the incident. However, the experience was so damaging that she left the police station trying to convince herself that the rape never happened. Jordan declined to press charges, leaving the rest of the case up to the police officer, who advised that he would follow up with the accused so he could “give his side of the story”. Jordan decided not to follow up with the officer nor did the officer get in touch with her. Overall, Jordan asserted that although she understands why police officers need to question complainants to a degree, such interrogations in the immediate aftermath of a rape are extraordinarily traumatizing. She emphasized the need for, at the very least, a trained counselor to accompany survivors during the provision of their statements, and to reiterate that the rape was not their fault.

All of the students interviewed in focus groups cited the same concerns when explaining why they would not report should they be assaulted. Both groups – individual survivors and focus group students – were aware that rape trials rarely resulted in convictions. Given this, most viewed reporting as “useless,” and more likely to traumatize than provide a potential avenue for justice. We note that the fieldwork coincided with the decision in the Ghomeshi case. It is unclear how much of an impact that trial had on students’ perceptions; however, there was a notable ‘Ghomeshi effect’ in interviews and focus groups as students and student-survivors routinely cited the case in their explanations for not wanting to report. Cathleen said:

[P]erpetrators use the legal systems in very obvious ways like in the Ghomeshi case to manipulate their victims and also in very insidious ways. Especially perpetrators are very manipulative like [mine] is. They already know they exerted power over someone so they’re going to do it again... I would never go to the police.

Students additionally remarked on campus police responses to cases at their universities. Elizabeth, a fourth year student, expressed her concerns about dismissive campus police responses. Overall, she felt that campus police neither took student complaints seriously nor did they take appropriate steps to alert the campus community when assaults or threats occurred, a sentiment that was shared by a number of others during focus group interviews. Elizabeth referred to a recent case to illustrate her point:

I don’t know what they [campus police] do for the training... I feel like they’re just a little sick of listening to [us]... There was [one case involving] a man who kept stopping women outside of that sketchy alley [names buildings]. And there were three incidents that happened within a week where this guy was apparently stopping girls and tried to touch them, saying, “I’ll walk you.” And all three of them went to campus police... And a lot of people were getting mad about the fact that the school was painting it as an issue of students over-reacting and suggesting that the guy was only trying to be nice. But, the women felt threatened... I read one girl’s story of events. Her story was that the guy was following her and he kept following her as she walked to campus police. It was one o’clock in the morning.

Elizabeth remarked on a few additional incidents on her campus, which she felt required the attention of campus police. Overall, she did not think the police or her university took student complaints seriously.

4.2.1.4 Power Imbalance and Silencing

Formal complaints can be dangerous to pursue in instances where there is a clear power imbalance between the survivor and the assailant (i.e., the survivor is a student, and the assailant is a TA or faculty member). Thus, the power differential can operate as a significant silencing mechanism. For survivors, there are a number of ways in which silencing is experienced. The imposition of “gag orders” is one of the silencing tools reported by survivors who have elected to pursue a formal complaint. For example, when Summer received her assailant’s formal response to her complaint, it was accompanied by a letter from her Dean indicating that this matter was to be treated as confidential, and directing Summer to only discuss her assault and ensuing complaint with others on a ‘need to know’ basis. While speaking publically against a perpetrator raises risks of defamation or libel claims or a negative impact on the complaint process, these are issues to be discussed with the survivor, not imposed on her. A “gag order” blatantly contradicts the ‘survivor-centric’ approach so vigorously adopted at other stages of the process. In those earlier stages, the survivor-centric approach can also be silencing, particularly of a survivor who is anxious about the potential consequences of disclosure.

Fear over the potential of reprisals in instances where assailants are authority figures, particularly faculty members, is warranted. Summer lost both a RA position and an opportunity to publish because of her assault. Amanda who experienced sexual harassment as a graduate student, but who was also on the verge of accepting a faculty position at her university was dissuaded from making an official complaint. The silencing and restrictions to her movement were ongoing. Amanda felt she could not attend meetings during which her harasser would be present. In addition, despite her specific and libel standard requests to obtain a safety plan, she was not offered one.

4.2.2 Administrators and Service Providers

Administrators and service providers all underscored that most students do not wish to pursue formal complaints or reports, and they offered various reasons why this is the case. A number of our interviewees recognized that the current climate inhibits sexual violence reporting. References to the Ghomeshi trial and the negative impact that it is likely to have on the already extremely low reporting rates were made by many interviewees. A number of administrators were concerned about the absence of formal complaints, fearing that survivors’ needs are not being met, and perpetrators are not being dealt with. According to one administrator: “[T]his is a conundrum in our process. How are we to address these cases if there is no formal complaint?” (UADM 5)

Administrators and service providers noted that students who disclose, but do not wish to pursue a formal complaint offer the following explanations for not proceeding: they are ashamed or embarrassed; the perpetrator is a friend or in their social circle, and they fear ostracism for him or themselves; they do not want to harm the perpetrator’s career; they do not think they will be believed; they want to focus on their education; they feel they are at least in part to blame for what happened; they just want the whole thing to go away. In other words, students do not report or proceed with sexual violence complaints for the same reasons as the general population. However, each of these “reasons” has context specific factors that make the university experience unique. If we want reporting numbers on campuses to go up, these context specific factors need to be studied, and addressed.

According to the administrators and service providers we interviewed, most survivors who come forward seek a specific form of support/intervention. Some just want to tell a person in authority what happened; they want someone to know but they do not want any action to be taken. A few want the perpetrator spoken to informally; they want the perpetrator to be aware that someone in authority knows of the incident. In the experiences of administrators and service providers, the majority of survivors coming forward seek minimal services – counseling or health services; course or program

changes or a residence move; accommodation for exams or course work negatively impacted by the sexual violence; a safety plan to help them avoid the perpetrator.

Our research clearly suggests that the interaction between the service provider or administrator and the survivor at the moment of disclosure is crucial, and the ways that sexual violence disclosures are received may influence survivors' decision making. When survivors disclose to a university employee, and are provided with options for how they might proceed, the vast majority says that they do not want to pursue a formal complaint internally or externally. According to one administrator: "It's a challenge talking about reporting. You want to be realistic but don't want to discourage survivors. But in the processing of laying out the options, most make the choice to opt for just counseling or informal process." (USP 1)

Most survivors of sexual violence do not even pursue informal processes that would require their identity being revealed to the perpetrator as part of an effort to move his residence or class. In those situations, the survivor most often elects to move herself, often incurring the academic consequences (of changing programs, for example) and removing herself from support networks (in residences or her circle of friends).

Why disclosures so seldom lead to formal reports needs further investigation. Given the current problems with formal processes as documented in this report and in the literature, it should be no surprise that survivors of sexual violence are reluctant to pursue a formal complaint. It is difficult to provide full information to a survivor of campus sexual violence on the options open to her in a way that does not, at least implicitly, discourage formal reporting. Faced with the possibility of a defamation law suit, the prospect of being disbelieved or discredited, stigma and blame, lengthy intrusive investigation, relentless cross examination on minute details, isolation and rejection, it is a question whether the survivors who do choose to proceed with a formal report were actually given full disclosure of the minefields ahead. Until internal university systems and external policing and criminal justice systems are truly survivor-centric and survivor-supportive in practice, we cannot expect the rates of formal reports to increase.

The formal complaint mechanisms currently in place at the three universities are unwieldy and confusing, the opposite of survivor-centric despite the desire to be so. A complete overhaul might lead to increased rates of formal reports. But, for the moment and into the immediate future, improved formal reporting mechanisms will not address the current needs and choices of most survivors of sexual violence on campuses. Nonetheless, formal complaints processes seem to be the primary focus of attention in the development of the university sexual violence policies being drafted to comply with Bill 132. As a consequence, most of the considerable amount of time, energy and other resources currently expended on sexual violence on campuses is directed at development of better formal complaint mechanisms, which are presently used by almost no one. The limited resources currently allocated to sexual violence are largely being channeled toward revising a system that is not responsive to the current needs of the majority of sexual violence survivors, and may drive future resource allocation so that the majority of funds designated for sexual violence on campuses will be directed toward a process that is seldom used, and even if dramatically improved will likely have very limited impact. Attention needs to be paid to ensure that universities are not simply engaging in what is referred to as "symbolic compliance" (Edelman et al 2011) whereby the focus of policies and procedures is on statutory compliance rather than reduction of sexual violence.

Overwhelmingly, university administrators and service providers strongly discouraged the introduction of any kind of system that would mandate university personnel who receive reports of sexual violence to pass those reports up the university hierarchy, except in rare cases where the risk to others in the university is present. Even in those cases, many were of the view that this process should allow the report to be done without naming the survivor if that is her wish. While a few administrators were of the view that mandatory reporting was necessary in order to address the systemic problem of campus sexual violence, most took the view that mandatory reporting would result in fewer survivors coming forward to access support services. If used by survivors, anonymous reporting or complaints could be a mechanism that would assist in addressing the systemic problem of sexual violence by enabling the university to identify patterns of sexual violence as well as serial perpetrators.

Recommendation:

Universities should investigate mechanisms for anonymous reporting of incidents of sexual violence. There are on-line reporting tools currently available that connect survivors with other survivors who have reported the same perpetrator. Such a tool may increase reporting and assist in addressing the systemic problem of sexual violence by enabling the university to identify patterns of sexual violence as well as serial perpetrators.

4.2.3 Policing Personnel

For both campus and off campus policing personnel, the role of increased reporting was considered a key to better enforcement. The general feeling among policing respondents was that there were far too many unreported incidents. Policing respondents felt that the system was unaware of a great many cases, and that predators may be eluding the criminal justice system as a result.

It's unfortunate because there's probably offenders that can move from campus to campus, province to province, and if the reports are not being submitted to police there is no central database to capture all that and that's one of the reasons ViCLASS was created. (POL 13)

Overall, this meant that the official number of sexual assaults that police and security services were aware of was understood to be far below the actual number of incidents in all three of the campuses we visited. A security personnel stated: "We have very few predatory ones where the offender is unknown. The last one happened in 2012." (CSP 2). Another one said: "I'm not seeing any more reporting. Last year we had six reported cases of sexual assault on campus. There's more than six sexual assaults occurring on campus, you know?" (CSP 1)

Often, campus police and security simply concede that little can be done without a broader project of encouraging survivors to report, and that they are hard pressed to have any significant impact in this regard on their own. As with other aspects of the response to sexual violence on campus, reporting itself is considered a survivor-driven process that policing agents must respect. The effect of this reluctance and non-reporting, of course, is that survivors are held partly responsible for the continuation of violence:

It's like all crime. If the victim doesn't want to report it, how do you fix it? How do you do anything to support them at that point? ... My sense is that victims will decide on their own when they're ready and how ready to deal with this stuff. And if you force them into it you're making it more difficult for them. (CSP 1)

Even when survivors decide to report, the process may not necessarily entail criminal investigation and the involvement of the local police. Even though campus police are legally required by memorandums of understanding to refer criminal matters to the police of jurisdiction, campus police and security are often left continuing with a case where the survivor is not looking for internal or external sanctions, but rather, some form of accommodation. In these cases, the tendency is to refer matters to other non-policing campus services that may or may not affect overall reporting, awareness or the basic counting of cases of sexual violence. This phenomenon is part of the larger institutional effect of ‘hiding behind the victim’ and the creation of institutional silos.

In the situations I’ve dealt with it’s usually “What do I do?” ... If it’s a therapeutic measure I’ll refer them to counselling services and depending on the circumstances see a doctor or go to the hospital. Even so, we always err on the side of it’s something that the police should be aware of. (CSP 10)

Recommendation:

We urgently need to know more about why students do not make formal reports. Related, we need to work more closely with the array of faculty and service providers who are receiving sexual violence disclosures to better understand how THEY see the options available to students. Finally, we need to know more about the sexualized contexts within which students find themselves unable to exercise meaningful consent that goes beyond simply ‘yes’ or ‘no’. Research should be commissioned on all of these issues.

4.3 The Creation of Institutional Silos

There is a major ‘siloeffect’ at universities when it comes to sexual violence. Different units across campus charged with responding to sexual violence ranging from sexual assault centres, equity offices/ombuds, health and counseling, academic support services, deans and VP students as well as campus security did not appear to be in conversation with each other, especially when it came to individual cases. The results included students being bounced from service to service, being given wrong or incomplete information about their options (as Violet’s narrative illustrates in Section 4.5.1), needing to relay their disturbing stories multiple times to a variety of individuals (as Maddie’s case demonstrates below), and not being told what the official processes are (as happened to Summer).

At two of the universities, there was no single ‘point person’ to whom a student could go, and who could reliably provide information on academic accommodations, university policies and procedures, and follow-up with the student in a timely manner. In these contexts, students often felt “forced” to disclose their assaults to authority figures to whom they preferred not to tell in order to explain absences from classes, missed tests and falling marks, all of which were common amongst survivors’ experiences.

Ironically, a significant contributing factor to the silo-effect appears to be the widespread adoption of a ‘victim-centred’ approach. While ostensibly in support of victim empowerment and the desire not to impose outcomes, the approach also served to function as a rationale for inaction by respective units throughout the university. Why refer elsewhere? Because the victim wished it. Why not proceed? The victim didn’t want to. Why did your unit not disclose to the other? The victim wanted her privacy. And so forth. The institutional mindset that the victim was responsible for mapping her own path to redress, justice, accommodation and counseling was well-served by relying upon a ‘victim-centred’ approach. In noting these institutional effects of the ‘victim-centered’ approach, however, we do not suggest the approach to be abandoned. We do not advocate policies and procedures that override the concerns

and decisions of survivors, but we recommend that universities need to pay attention to the potential unintended consequences of an exclusive focus on the needs and wishes of the individual survivor. Our critique is intended to draw attention to the need for universities to maintain their responsibilities in both responding to and preventing sexual violence. This requires acknowledgement that sexual violence is a campus wide and systemic problem that necessitates systemic not just individual responses.

4.3.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

Maddie's case illustrates the complications that arise for survivors when navigating university bureaucracies, particularly in the absence of an advocate to assist with the process. Maddie was raped by another student whom she considered to be a friend during her second year of university. She advised that she did not feel the need to disclose the incident to campus police or university authorities, given that the perpetrator was on the verge of graduating. In addition, she also did not seek the assistance of counseling services due to the support she received from her peer group and a very close friend, who had also been raped during her undergraduate career. What Maddie did require, however, were academic accommodations in the immediate aftermath of the assault. Normally a strong student, she was struggling to maintain her attendance in her small seminar course. Maddie explained that she was extremely reluctant to tell her professor that she had been raped, but felt that if she was "vague," she "wouldn't sound convincing." Feeling as though she ultimately had no choice if she wanted to "save her grades," she disclosed the situation to her professor.

[*crying*] For me what was really difficult was that I had to look at this professor and he knew. It would have been better if there was a middle man to do that for you so that professor didn't know specifically what happened to me. I felt that afterwards he kind of realized that his response wasn't ideal emotionally. And he kept trying to check in but he was still very awkward and fumbly about the whole thing. Or [in class], he would check in when there were other people in the room. And he wouldn't say anything specifically, but he would say, "Are you okay?" But then all my classmates [would notice] and try to figure out what happened. If there was a middle man where I didn't have to tell him what happened [that would have made it easier]."

Maddie's discomfort could have been resolved if her university employed a dedicated sexual violence resource coordinator to assist her in navigating the university bureaucracies.

Maddie remarked on how "exhausting" it is for survivors to have to relay their stories repeatedly to service providers, administrators and bureaucrats to obtain the assistance and accommodations required in the wake of an assault. She underscored the importance of "minimizing the number of people" students need to talk to, given how difficult it becomes to have to "repeat the same story over and over and over again."

Maddie's case illuminates additional concerns around anonymity that further underscore the importance of minimizing the number of individuals students are required to speak to in order to obtain support. She explained that,

Something that played a role in my assault and me not going to the police was my sexual orientation. It wasn't something I was open about at the time. My perpetrator was convinced that if he raped me he could "rape me straight." So, I felt that in order to go to the police I would have to include that in a point in my life when I wasn't ready to share that... A man did rape me, but sexual assault also happens in queer relationships.

Maddie fortunately found a counselor who worked from an anti-oppressive framework at her university's counseling services. She was adamant, however, that a centralized sexual violence coordinator to liaise on her behalf would have been a considerable help particularly in the immediate aftermath of the assault.

Being able to rely on a single point person to coordinate academic accommodations would have also mitigated the difficulties Zayanya experienced after ending her abusive relationship. The obstacles she confronted at the time partially led to her decision to take one-year leave of absence. She described being bounced around between the registrar's office, various professors and the undergraduate chair in her department as she tried to advocate for herself.

My counsellor was really helpful in working with the registrar's office. But my department was meaner. It was a different [academic member of staff in charge] at the time. But, I went to them saying, "I'm not going to be able to fulfill this academic requirement and I know this because I'm really, really struggling. And he said, "well, you're going to have to figure this out because there's nothing I can do for you." And then when I went back a few weeks later, he said, "-----, you should have come to see me before, because now your degree is all messed up. And I said, well, I tried, but you didn't want to help me, so what could I do. And I was forced to take a year off because of the academic things that were going on in my department, not so much the registrar's office.

Addie, whose case was discussed previously, encountered a similar experience when navigating services at her university. She saw a counselor on campus for three sessions in the aftermath of being repeatedly threatened, and sexually harassed by a group of men on her residence floor. In contrast to her interactions with residence staff, to whom she only disclosed the vandalism of the swastika carved in her door, Addie disclosed the rape threats to her counselor. The counselor gave Addie some breathing exercises, and then offered to refer her to someone else. Addie attempted to follow up on this referral but gave up in frustration, calling it '... a big referral game,' and indicating that she felt she was constantly being passed from one service to the next.

4.3.2 Administrators and Service Providers

University responses to sexual violence issues are piecemeal, ad hoc and individualized with limited systematic communication, and almost no ongoing institutional monitoring and learning. The result has been to increase the burden on the survivor, encourage silos between offices dealing with sexual violence matters, and privilege limited, counseling-based solutions. Relations between parts of the university, campus and local police, while universally described by administrators and service providers as 'very good,' seemed to suffer from lack of clarity about roles. Finally, the largely informalized responses to sexual violence do not tend to generate internal reports/paper trails or where they do, no one examines these to look for patterns and trends in experiences of survivors or types of victimization. The perpetrator and patterns of perpetration were not on anyone's radar. None of the three universities are making any effort to study or learn about systemic patterns of sexual violence on their campus.

Each of the different components of the university – academics, student conduct offices, residence, athletics, health and counseling and security – operate largely within their own systems and with their own process. Middle and senior-level administrators confirmed that when an incident is disclosed but not formally reported, other offices in the university likely do not know about it. Even when there is an

internal reporting system of some kind – such as a database used in residences to make and categorize incidents – these are rarely shared beyond a select few offices within the university. These “silos and partitioning,” according to some of the administrators we interviewed, “are dangerous.”

Of the three universities studied in this project, only one university, Carleton, has an identified sexual assault coordinator position. There are definite merits to this office. The position offered a clear ‘contact’ point for both survivors, faculty and staff, and the person in this position had developed an impressive range of education and training activities, giving sexual violence greater visibility as a topic of concern, and signaling an institutional commitment to addressing sexual violence. That said, this position also created its own siloing dynamics. The presence of an identified sexual assault coordinator position rendered sexual violence on campus more invisible and easily deniable, because administrators who no longer see and deal with sexual violence cases, now can claim that sexual violence does not exist on their campus.

In all three universities, siloing dynamics are a direct result of how informalized responses to sexual violence are dealt with and viewed. As most students opt not to report, the vast majority of cases land on the informal path of choosing among the supports that are available. These supports, ranging from changing classes and residences to ‘talking to’ the perpetrator, will be enacted by a range of different offices, depending on who receives the disclosure. At none of the universities was there a system for monitoring these disclosures across the different parts of the university. Even where unit reports were prepared, the senior officer in charge of those reports did not review them for patterns of responses or perpetration.

Within this highly informalized setting, flow of information is difficult but crucial; the university systems, including attitudes about sexual violence, unnecessarily increased silos between parts of the university. These silo effects can be grouped into two main dynamics: 1) an unreflective survivor-centric approach that validates inaction by the university, and 2) lack of communication, and sometimes mistrust, between university units.

Sexual violence disclosures are made to various people in the university: academic advisors, residence staff, professors, coaches, doctors and counselors, equity/human rights/ombuds officers, security personnel, managers, colleagues and friends. This is unlikely to change even with a centralized reporting process outlined in a stand-alone policy. In addition, there are a number of related policies (sexual harassment, workplace violence and student codes of conduct) in place that make it difficult for survivors to know where to go, and how best to proceed. Often those advising the survivor are themselves not clear on the differences among various options, and what would be the most appropriate route to meet her needs. These policies are not necessarily consistent in their approaches, and each has its own culture of implementation. While administrators tend to see optional routes for dealing with an incident as beneficial, most recognize that it adds a level of confusion and complication. According to one administrator, “It is good to have variety but it is also hard to sort.” (UADM13)

Almost all administrators and service providers underscored the importance of a survivor-centric approach, which they invariably defined as based solely on the survivor’s decision – usually at the point of disclosure – about the course of action they wish taken. Most of the time, this means a relatively quick fix: changing the survivor’s academic arrangements or residence, helping with a safety plan, combined with a referral to counseling. There are no systems in place to follow up with survivors about rethinking or expanding their chosen options as their own healing and personal circumstances change.

The emphasis placed on survivors to lead the process legitimates university responses that are minimalist and highly individualistic.

The approach of most administrators and service providers places an enormous burden on the survivor to weigh options, and decide a course of action, often in the context of extreme stress and confusion and while juggling multiple demands and contradictory messages. Survivors are required to make a decision about reporting at a point in time when their own assessment of what happened, and its implications for them is still in process. As one counselor observed, echoing the experiences reported by many student survivors:

Initially, [some students] do not identify it as an assault because [they say] ‘it’s my fault’ etc. ... Its only later they realize that what happened is not right.” At the very least, university administrators should be following up with survivors as their healing and academic process develops to consider the available options. (USP 12)

Reporting is the subject of serious debate among administrators. Increasing the number of reports, for some administrators, is essential in order to be able to address sexual violence on campus, to protect the university, and to provide better service to survivors, who are currently encountering administrators with limited training and expertise:

I am concerned that people are making decisions beyond their mandate and not wanting to report up the chain, and this means matters are not being dealt with until it’s too late. We need reporting to better understand what is going on. I have concerns that [university administrators] are making very legalistic decision and distinctions, weighing evidence, effectively running trials and they do not have the training to do this. (UADM 11)

Other administrators felt that informal responses, particularly in cases where women do not want to come forward, are an entirely appropriate solution, and that increased reporting is not necessary. One administrator stated:

If people aren’t going to disclose, most will then work through this issue on their own; through counseling [and so on]; the University shouldn’t be there to fix everyone. (UADM 3)

In this context, administrators overwhelmingly embraced counseling as the ultimate solution. Counseling is an important part of the response process, but it seems to be under-resourced, and generally counselors are under-trained. It is clear that a far greater investment in counseling services is needed given the importance placed on them. But, even if fully resourced, there are limits to what counseling can achieve. Ultimately, counseling-as-solution is another example of how an ostensibly ‘survivor-centered’ approach serves to validate a piecemeal response, and will always be limited by its individual-focus. It can also obscure the range of ways that the survivor’s needs as a member of the university community are often not met when it is the survivor who must change her classes, alter her routine, and/or move from residence. Along with placing the responsibility to recover from rape on the survivor, individualized responses also leave the broader social and structural processes that foster sexual violence untouched. Offender accountability is also overlooked in this approach.

Relations between university units were characterized by a lack of formalized information sharing and sometimes also by mistrust. Privacy concerns were often cited to explain why reports generated in

some parts of the university were not available to administrators in other areas. While we were visiting one university, a situation was developing which illustrated some of these dynamics. The following is a summary with some details changed:

A female student came forward concerned about socially exclusionary behavior of a boyfriend with whom she had recently broken up. She disclosed that the former boyfriend had been physically threatening and emotionally abusive. The administrator could not access student records, so an “informal” phone call was made to a colleague who has access to undergraduate student records. In this process, it became apparent that the male student had prior complaints against him. As a result, a meeting was called. A relevant graduate administrator was also invited to the meeting because the male student is now a graduate student. It turned out that the graduate administrator also had reports concerning the male student. But, these reports included a complaint made by the male student that he was being victimized by the female student. Unaware of the prior history, the graduate administrator was about to pursue a formal complaint against the female student. A full account of the male student’s conduct became available only at the meeting, and in turn, a pattern of abusive behavior revealed. (USP 9)

In this scenario, the abusive conduct was caught by the university administrators as a result of both chance and established informal working relationships. While these relationships are important, and sometimes work well, they are too ad hoc to constitute effective responses. Should relations between different offices breakdown as individuals leave their positions, and new staff are hired, these informal systems will also breakdown.

Another concern reported to us was about sharing of information between university administrators and security personnel. While almost all university offices reported very good relations with both campus and local security personnel, concerns arose in relation to special constables. Two of the universities have special constables and contractual arrangements with local police that mandate campus security to report serious matters, including sexual violence, to local police. In some cases, both university administrators and service providers viewed this ‘mandatory’ reporting arrangement with suspicion.

[Campus security personnel] are required to report to local police and to transfer follow up to local police in cases of sexual violence. Campus security personnel prefer not to know about sexual violence cases because then they have to report to local police. This is part of the arrangement under the ... agreement with local police. Hence once something goes to campus security personnel, it goes out of the university and out of our control. (UADM 16)

Recommendation

Universities that do not have a sexual violence coordinator should create the position at the senior management level. This would be a person trained specifically in responding to incidents of sexual violence and in working with survivors as well as in sexual violence prevention. In order to avoid the siloing effect, this person should be responsible for ensuring communication and consistency between all units dealing with sexual violence issues, and should be tasked with ensuring that the issue of sexual violence is kept as a high priority on the campus agenda.

4.3.3 Policing Personnel

The rank and file of campus police recognize a culture of silencing for the most part, but feel that their hands are tied with respect to addressing the problem. Their reasons here are fourfold. First, they cite that it is survivors who make the ultimate decision to report. Second, they indicate that their reports are often not followed up. Third, they feel that extant policies are unclear, and limit them in the kinds of services they can provide. Finally, at least one of the universities we studied, there is widespread skepticism and mistrust of the local police service with regards to their treatment of survivors.

From the perspective of almost all security and policing respondents we interviewed, the processing of sexual assault allegations is driven by the survivor. It is often set in motion at the pivotal point of initial contact with the responding security authority. This is typified by the response of one campus special constable who reported:

The responding officer will take a statement, a general statement of what happened to get a sense of what the complainant is looking to do at that point. We provide some information on what their resources are, find out if they want the police involved or they want the university to deal with it that way... They provide information that way and that sort of determines how they'll proceed from there. (CSP 2)

From the perspective of the initial responding authority, it would seem that the onus is on the complainant to effect the movement of the case (e.g., what direction it might take, what resources are accessed, and the zeal and swiftness with which the allegation may be dealt with). This was reinforced by other campus policing respondents who stated:

We let them drive it how they want to. (CSP 4)

We are still obliged to call the [local police] but the victim can just say "I'm not interested in pursuing this with the local police... we're done."... We would bring her back here to a soft interview room and we would get counselling services involved... In instances where they are not reporting but have disclosed and just want information on supports and all of that and they want to make sure they're taking the proper steps. Sometimes counselling, sometimes residence. (CSP 1)

First and foremost, we don't actually investigate any sex crimes on campus at all... It's our mandate to get the victim to a place of safety... If we know where he is we'll go and scoop him and hold him but everything gets investigated by the [local police]. [Unless] they make it clear that they have no desire to speak to the police. We would still do a safety plan but then we have an internal investigation to do. (CSP 13)

Campus special constables reported that they provide complainants with a menu of potential on campus and off-campus resources that they could access, but that it was up to the survivor to follow through on these options.

The determination [about whether to call the police] is made by the survivor. As part of what we do when we initially speak to the survivor we talk about the processes and what options are available to them. One of the options is to have us take a report or to have us take a report and the police take a report. If they wish the police to be involved then we would call police and have them come here and take over the investigation at that point. (CSP 9)

Students don't generally come to the security service to make a report, whether it's off-site to a sexual assault reporting centre or some place they can receive assistance... some other policing agency. We have a due diligence responsibility to let the local police know of an assault [but when the student doesn't want police involved] we would then pass information back to the survivor and say "what does this look like to you? These are the options. We have a host of options for you. We can walk you down to health and counselling..." We can have student services involved or any other agency they think will assist them we can push them in that direction. (CSP 6)

Yet, even after the case is escalated to the local police, the survivor is still constructed and perceived as the author of her own journey to justice. This sentiment was evidenced repeatedly in responses given by police investigators who reported that their policy is to do "what the victim wants" (POL 14), that the police are "very victim-driven" (POL 5), and that they take into account "victim desires" (POL 15):

You can't force a person to be a victim. Sometimes they just want to tell you about it and leave it at that. You try to get the person to go forward with the investigation but there's no guarantee and that's their option... You can't go against their wishes. (POL 10)

Some just say "well I just wanted to report it you. I don't want anything done." Some will say "yeah, I just want the person warned I don't want to get them in trouble" or they'll say "yeah, I want to go to court, I want to proceed with charges". The case will progress from there. (POL 5)

It's a big commitment, to say the least, to really take things to the end as far as taking things to court and being prepared to tell your story on the stand multiple times. (POL 16)

Do they want to go down the road of charges, the interview process, the whole thing? ...The victim's immediate needs are taken into account before we proceed. (POL 15)

Even when pressed, and perhaps for obvious legal and specific evidentiary reasons, the police are reluctant to move any case forward without the support and active participation of the survivor.

I'm pretty sure they have a policy at the Crown's office that if the victim will not proceed, they won't proceed at the end of the day. They can but it flies in the face of best practices and is also not respectful of the victim. (POL 11)

Yet the rationale for a "survivor-centric" approach can extend beyond pure evidentiary reasons even when there is physical evidence including a rape kit: "No. No [we won't proceed]. And that's very much driven from victims' rights groups as well." (POL 15)

While hiding behind the survivor can be used to defend institutional inertia, the defense of survivors can also be used to rationalize an overzealous response. At one site we visited, both campus security and local law enforcement personnel were dismayed by the fact that the university had recently banned a student from campus based solely on an allegation without conducting a fulsome investigation. This particular case was well known to both campus and local police. One investigator was still visibly appalled by the case when he reported:

We brought him in. I explained to him that there has been an allegation that has been made against him. Told him what the allegation was. He told me who made the allegation. I told him I was not there to confirm or deny but we have reasonable grounds... He was trespassed. He was totally done. Can't come back. (CSP 13)

According to other respondents we spoke to, the student banned from campus (and by extension banned from completing his degree) was an international student with no ability to settle off campus. According to the investigator, "the only world he knew was campus life". Nonetheless, he was picked up on a Friday night, and escorted off campus with no family or friends to rely upon. Policing agents were concerned that the actions of the university could lead to a civil action. A special constable was purportedly told by the university administration "if he doesn't like it he can sue us. That's what we have lawyers for. But we will look after the victim first." (CSP 13) It is worth noting in this case that while the university acted rather brashly, it did so on the back of defending the survivor and, moreover, acted particularly swiftly against a foreign student who was unlikely to have access to immediate legal recourse. The international student who was banned had little capacity to insist on his rights and due process and, in the end, "never came back." The story, however, does not end there. Police and special constables were also dismayed by the fact that the complainant did not support their actions, and refused to cooperate in the investigation: "That one was really compounded because she wouldn't cooperate in any investigations at all. She subsequently stopped talking to us..."

The university, in this particular case, seems to have gambled that the delay of a criminal investigation was a greater risk to its reputation than the risk of a bold, albeit potentially arbitrary response. Better to side too swiftly with the complainant than an international student. Yet, even in this case, where the university seemingly acted unilaterally in the purported interests of the survivor, the survivor was still held responsible for an administrative response she had no interest in neither precipitating nor participating in. Police representatives suspiciously raised the point that the survivor was only asking for "accommodations with her professors so they could give her additional time." Finally, one might well ask, would the university's response have been different if instead of being a foreigner with no local connections, the student who was summarily banned was the son of a wealthy Canadian alumnus with access to legal resources?

A recurring, sometimes direct, sometimes indirect problem for campus police and security services was their ability to access existing institutional knowledge about sexual violence cases. This lack of information sharing seemed to be exacerbated by the legal standing of campus law enforcement entities. Special constabularies are duty-bound to report criminal offences to the local police. Security officers, however, who are 'private citizens' under the employment of the university, are under no such obligation. In either case the common expectation was that campus law enforcement would refer matters to the local police as soon as possible. This puts the campus police in an uncomfortable position. First, they are legally obligated to report incidents with or without the consent of the institution or the survivor. The survivor is required to decline the assistance of the local police (usually in person) herself before the campus police can recommence the investigation. Second, the local police prefer that the referring campus security or police officer collect as little information as possible lest this information taints the investigation or compels the Crown or defense counsel to later call the security or police officer to testify as a witness. A police officer stated:

If the university conducts their own investigation and if the person is not happy with the outcome and they come to us, that makes each one of them a witness. (POL 13)

A related, and important effect of the public reporting function of the campus police is that it sometimes makes them an unreliable institutional ally for the university because while they are employees of the institution, they are also, as special constables, duty-bound to a broader public good through an oath of office and a memorandum of understanding that forces them to assist and inform local law enforcement.

At one institution we visited, campus policing personnel reported that Health and Counseling had completely frozen them out of any knowledge of sexual assault cases. They would not even report the number of incidents that came to their attention. One respondent called it “an uphill battle” (CSP 4) while another candidly confided, “it’s a fucking gong show” (CSP 6). He related an incident where a representative from Health and Counseling “dropped off a bloody knife” wrapped up in cloth. When his office queried what this knife was about, the response he received was “it’s none of your business but you should have this just in case” (CSP 6). Other actions by the university administration seemed to reinforce the isolation of this particular service from sexual assault cases, such as excluding them from high profile meetings, and ill-equipping them to deal with media and public queries about an ongoing cases.

The precarious legal position of campus law enforcement in cases of sexual violence was a common theme, eliciting concerns about access to timely information by campus authorities and local police:

The biggest hurdle is ... the difference between conducting an internal investigation for the university’s discipline process to deal with the community base and criminal investigations. There are two different standards there and depending on the investigator for the police you may or may not get much back sort of thing. So, at times it’s difficult to get a sense of where things are going from their end... They certainly don’t want you talking to their suspect... It’s difficult to sanction someone internally without some sort of investigation, without ever hearing their side of it. Its not a complete process and wouldn’t hold water if we were ever challenged on it. (CSP 2)

Generally speaking, campus police and security reported “good” to “excellent” relationships with local police. We were hard pressed to find respondents with either the local or campus police criticizing the current information sharing arrangement. The flow of information, however, was expectedly unidirectional. Campus police and security investigators routinely supply leads, referrals and evidence as required to the local police in their role as junior partner. The reverse is not typically expected, especially when public safety is not an issue and/or the survivor has chosen to go directly to the police. As a result, the police sometimes do not advise the university community of ongoing investigations involving students unless the investigation calls for it. A police officer stated: “There have been some we have let them know about. Sometimes we need to let them know that something has happened on campus.” (POL 13)

One continued source of information provided by campus police is CCTV footage. Multiple respondents at both universities and police services mentioned that the availability of extensive CCTV coverage on university campuses is an important help for police investigators. While there is ample evidence to support the notion that campus police and security typically work well with local police, it is important to take note of the particular public interest role of Ontario campus special constabularies (G. S. Rigakos 2013). Where there are no public reporting requirements and formal reporting mechanisms in place with the local police, universities can more effectively hide information from the public if they desired. Security services, as non-police bodies, can be more easily controlled in this regard.

[When I sat on their campus policy group] I asked them to encourage victims to report their experience to the police just so we know who's out there and what's going on... They are not submitting reports we submit. They don't have access to the information we have access to like VICLAS and things like that where we can see patterns so we're missing part of what's actually happening in [this area]. They didn't even want to put that in their policy that they would encourage them to report... (POL 13)

In the absence of an integrated system where information is available to the public police, there is a common concern that institutional silos and the temptation by universities to engage in reputation management could result in repeat offences:

Another flaw in the system is one where the individual was removed from the university. Two or three counts of sexual assault or whatever it happened to be. Banned as a student from this campus for being a threat to the community. He wound up becoming a student at another post-secondary institution in the province... There's no record of it on a transcript and you can go wherever else you want. (CSP 2)

Yet, the police themselves are quick to point out that it is not the university alone that contributes to the deficit of reporting. Information silos are built into the system even at the point of initial evidence collection:

It's the same thing at the hospital, if someone goes to the hospital and asks for a kit to be done they will not contact us unless they sign off that they can let the police know about it. (POL 13)

Given the problems of silos and the lack of inter-unit communication and trust, coupled with the negative experiences of many survivors, oversight of university efforts to address sexual violence on campus is a serious concern. Other agencies, most notably the police, have come under severe criticism when oversight of complex and sensitive issues is exclusively internal. Universities would do well to heed these critiques, and establish an external community based advocate system to review university responses to sexual violence on campus. The community oversight program developed and implemented in Philadelphia for the Philadelphia police force could be adapted to address the specifics of campus based violence in Ontario.

Recommendation:

The government of Ontario, in conjunction with Ontario universities, could work together with community agencies who directly serve survivors of sexual violence to develop an external community based advocate system to review university responses to sexual violence on campus. The community oversight program developed and implemented in Philadelphia for the Philadelphia police force could be adapted to address the specifics of campus based violence in Ontario.

4.4 The Need for Education

The terms 'training' and 'education' were used interchangeably by most of the administrators and service providers we interviewed. For our purposes here 'education' is primarily directed at students as part of sexual violence prevention. Training refers to programs directed at students, staff, faculty, administrators and security personnel on sexual violence, including effective responses to sexual violence.

Training and education are essential to sensitive and meaningful responses to disclosures of sexual violence, to the development and implementation of effective policies and procedures relating to sexual violence, and, at the root of it all, to the reduction of the incidences of sexual violence. Education is key to prevention and to the elimination of rape culture as it manifests in various parts of the university, including among administrators and service providers. Education and training must be directed at everyone on the campus. While virtually all of the interviewees acknowledged the need for education and training, it would appear that, to date, little concerted attention has been paid to these issues.

There is a vast range of approaches to sexual violence education regarding its content, focus and mode of delivery and literature describing and assessing different programs (McMahon et al. 2014; Christensen 2013; Gidycz and Dardis 2014; Cantalupo 2010; Carmody 2009; Carmody 2006; Kress et al. 2006; Anderson and Whiston 2008; V. L. Banyard, Plante, and Moynihan 2005; Fabiano et al. 2003; Bingham and Scherer 2001; Breutenbecher and Scarce 1999; Linz, Wilson, and Donnerstein 1992). However, as the literature on attitude, norm and behavior change demonstrates (Majury, Rankin, & Conners 2015; Darwinkel, Powell, and Tidmarsh 2013; WVF for Rape Information and Services 2014; Anderson and Whiston 2008; Scholly 2005; Fabiano et al. 2003), the multiplicity of potential intervening factors in conjunction with the abstract nature of the change being sought make it very difficult to determine what works and what does not in terms of increased understanding and prevention of sexual violence. But we need to learn from what we do know. One thing that is clear in the literature is that a sexual violence education program needs to start from where the intended audience is at. Outdated materials or materials addressing issues that are not relevant to the target audience or presented in a format that alienates them will be ineffective and may be counterproductive. Recent studies indicate that a positive approach that addresses relationships and sexuality rather than a negative approach that focuses on prohibited conduct is more likely to effect attitudinal change with respect to sexual violence (Majury, Rankin, & Conners 2015; Barker 2003). In other words, a healthy sexuality program² is more likely to be absorbed than a program explicitly on sexual violence.

4.4.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

Amongst a smattering of events scattered across the school year, frosh week was most frequently cited as the week during which students received education on sexual violence prevention and consent. As reflected in the literature, students seem to retain very little of the information acquired in consent workshops during frosh week. Moreover, by and large, these interventions do not appear to be taken seriously. Many of the sexual assaults we were told about occurred during frosh week; some actually mirrored the examples used in the education programs. Both survivors and focus group participants felt the level of education received was inadequate and ineffectual.

Ashley's assault occurred at a party held at the end of frosh week. She talked about the heavy emphasis placed on drinking during frosh week, and called the consent training 'bullshit'. On Ashley's campus, first year students were given bracelets affirming their commitment to consent after a brief presentation delivered by frosh facilitators. In her second year, Ashley became a frosh facilitator, and went through the facilitator training that includes education on sexual violence and consent. This training was done online. Ashley indicated that only a few of the frosh facilitators retained much of the information delivered through this program. In addition, most of the frosh facilitators, despite the training, treated

² We need to develop a new vocabulary. While the term "healthy sexuality" has positive connotations, and is broad enough to address more than "consent," it is medicalized, and in turn, not appealing. New audience-specific terminology is definitely in order.

consent 'like a joke.' Ashley felt that the seriousness with which frosh facilitators treated consent education was divided on gender lines. She often observed her male counterparts making sarcastic comments about consent, and never saw a male facilitator intervene in a situation which she felt, based on their training, could potentially turn dangerous.

Frosh facilitators and residents fellows were repeatedly characterized as either ill-equipped to respond to sexual violence or were cited by others as directly encouraging rape culture. More specifically, we were given accounts of frosh facilitators, along side residence fellows, actively encouraging drinking and 'hook-up' culture, and ignoring clear threats made to students.

Upper year and graduate students appear to have received little to no education about consent or sexual assault prevention beyond what they may have been exposed to in their first year. The only exception here was for students who took courses in a handful of departments in which sexual violence was part of the curriculum. Learning about sexual violence in the classroom did appear to have a greater impact on the students who had been exposed to it. Finally, students advised that education efforts tended to focus on stereotypical incidents of sexual violence rather than the different forms of abuse that are more difficult to name and identify, such as sexual violence within the context of ongoing intimate relationships or friendships.

4.4.2 Administrators and Service Providers

Effective education requires resources, primarily skilled and knowledgeable experts with time to devote to the ongoing task of program development. This is a rapidly developing field with a voluminous literature. At the very least, every university needs to task one or two people with the job of keeping up with the literature, revising existing programs, and developing new ones. Materials need to be regularly updated, particularly those used with students. Many of the administrative and service provider interviewees were acutely aware that the materials they use are out of date. But revisions and the development of new materials tend to fall to the bottom of the sexual violence to-do-list. Administrators and service providers at the three universities spoke enthusiastically about the "teacup video"³ on consent, which is available on you tube. They see this video as an appealing way to deliver a complicated and sensitive message. However, if this video is to continue to be used as an educational tool, we need to know how students perceive the message, and whether it actually has any impact on their behaviors. If we really want to effect change, on-site research – e.g., program evaluation and impact studies – has to be part of program delivery. Given that we really do not know what works in reducing sexual violence and shifting rape culture, innovation and research should be a central component of the provincial strategy on sexual violence on campuses. In the words of one interviewee: "Research and education are what universities do. It is what we do well. This is what we should be doing on sexual violence." (OUADM 1)

The primary audience for campus-based sexual violence education is seen to be students. All three universities provide sexual violence education in the context of first year undergraduate orientation. Graduate orientation programs do not seem to incorporate sexual violence education. Given the high numbers of sexual assaults that occur during orientation, it is reasonable to initiate sexual violence education during this time. However, with so much other new information being imparted to students at this time and so much else going on, very little, if any, of the sexual violence material presented at orientation is actually retained. It is important that the sexual violence education is augmented and

³ "Consent: It's Simple as Tea", <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oQbe5JGiT8> (Accessed 23 May 2016).

reinforced throughout the student's university career. While some interviewees advised us that there is some follow through over the year, we were provided with very few concrete examples. Healthy sexuality and sexual violence education should be provided at every possible opportunity over the course of the undergraduate and graduate experience. Creative thought needs to be brought to bear on when and how this can be done. Different approaches need to be tried and studied. In-person intensive programs over multiple sessions are generally regarded as more effective than one off sessions (Majury, Rankin, & Conners 2015; Banyard et al, 2005) – which lead some to recommend a mandatory first year course addressing sexual violence. However, mandatory training is generally seen as less effective, and can give rise to serious backlash (Majury, Rankin, & Conners 2015; Tinker 2012).

A number of interviewees noted the need for special training for international students who are seen as having 'different cultural' experiences. This is an area where extreme care must be taken not to re-enforce cultural stereotypes or play into racism. Given Canada's multicultural make up, it would seem odd to focus on international students as "culturally-different." All sexual violence training and education should be developed within an anti-oppression framework, and should adopt a multi-cultural, anti-racism approach. In this context, special attention should be paid to the histories of colonialism and racism against Indigenous peoples. Staff working with Indigenous students were concerned that sexual violence education and training programs include the impacts of colonialism (residential schools, children in care, etc.) on the experience of sexual violence and on the responses to it.

Recommendations

Every university should have at least one staff member, under the supervision of the sexual violence coordinator, assigned the job of keeping up with the sexual violence literature, revising existing educational programs, and developing new programs. Materials need to be regularly updated, particularly those used with students. Universities might also consider creating dedicated Gender Violence Faculty colleagues (GVFC). This initiative is designed to involve faculty members in education efforts, as well as the drafting, implementing and review of university policies and procedures for responding to sexual violence on campus. GVFCs receive course releases to pursue the responsibilities.

On-site research – e.g., program evaluation and impact studies – ought to be integrated into the delivery of sexual violence educational programming and training. Given that we really do not know what works in reducing sexual violence and shifting rape culture, innovation and research should be central components of the provincial strategy on sexual violence on campuses.

4.4.3 Policing Personnel

It would seem that almost all Ontario universities, it would therefore seem, engage in some sort of awareness and education about sexual violence and safety with incoming students during the first week of orientation. These frosh week sessions can include the setting up of a 'buddy' system or peer-support, information on the legal context and consequences of unwanted sexual aggression, and in some cases the appropriate persons to whom to report such an incident. These outreach initiatives are typically led by student services departments and student groups. Campus policing organizations are often invited, and participate in these events. Specialized liaison, investigation or executive members of campus policing groups typically attend these sessions. There is often little awareness among the rank and file campus security personnel about these programs or their content. Most of our queries about prevention and education to patrol officers met with vague answers and referrals to other members of the unit who were directly assigned this responsibility. The same scenario played out with local police investigators who saw outreach, education and prevention as part of another unit's responsibility or

part of a specialized service provided by other ranks within the unit. In any case, education during frosh week was perceived to be the important point of contact for such initiatives.

The vast majority of our interventions are targeted at orientation week events. Research supports that this is perhaps the best time to be targeting them... We use presentations, videos. We advertise the sexual assault report centre. (CSP 2)

Despite the fact that education was considered a specialized service, almost all of the campus and local policing personnel we interviewed understood well that accessing assistance could nonetheless be daunting for victims:

We try to develop materials that are effective not as if they were written by a cop. We have social workers that write these so they're understandable because there's a lot of information to navigate through... How are you supposed to know that all on your own? (POL 2)

Two interesting, yet common, responses to our queries about prevention and education were that, first, education was understood to be a form of training for strategic (and moralized) risk avoidance by women, and second, that prevention meant the implementation of safety planning after an incident had already occurred. In other words, education was aimed at women in order to make them less susceptible to victimization, and, after they had been victimized, to assist them in making themselves harder targets to access. The impetus of education and prevention seemed to revolve around responsabilizing women for their own safety:

If the offender is known to the victim we do safe planning for victims of crime. It applies to stalking and domestic violence but if the suspect in the case is known to you, do they know your routes to and from work? Do they know when you're going to be at work? We offer strategies on helping safeguard yourself. (CSP 2)

I think education is very big... as far as decisions, making good decisions. Both for victims and people suspected of doing stuff. Don't put yourself in situations that are going to come back and bite you. (POL 14)

Yet all of this education and prevention was viewed as a mere antidote to a generally promiscuous and naïve youth culture that valorizes casual sex:

The social media, the movies, they glorify "it's OK the one-off sex" and then everybody thinks it's OK until they get involved with someone who doesn't. It's the whole perception of what sex is and how casual it can be right now with university students with these apps like Tinder and other ones where it's just a hook up. (POL 13)

In cases where women were simply incapable of engaging in their own risk avoidance, a form of guardianship was recommended: "We need to do more bystander intervention." (POL 13)

Our interviews indicate that campus police personnel tend to respond to sexual violence based on long-standing myths and stereotypes, and sexist assumptions. Specific education programs need to be developed to address these issues in the context of campus police culture.

Recommendations

Anyone who joins the university community should be required to take an in-person healthy sexuality education program. Refresher and update programs should be provided regularly. Audience specific programs need to be developed – for example, for first year students, for upper year students, for graduate students, for faculty, for maintenance staff etc. Particular attention should be paid to the development of education/prevention programs for students involved in fraternities and athletics.

A thorough evaluation of frosh week activities including training and vetting of frosh facilitators should be conducted every year. The sexual violence component of the program and training, and the monitoring of sexual violence incidents during this time should be a key feature of the evaluation.

The following criteria should inform all education programs:

- provided by on-the-ground experts on healthy sexuality and sexual violence;*
- focuses on the complexity of sexual violence experiences and patterns;*
- addresses myths about sexual violence survivors and perpetrators;*
- takes an anti-oppression, intersectional approach that addresses issues related to race, Indigeneity, disability and class in addition to gender and sexuality.*

4.5 A Deficit in Training

Our interviews with university administrators and campus safety officials suggested that there is much more training required across the board. Specifically, more training is required at all levels of university administration and service provision on the social and cultural contexts in which sexuality and sexual violence unfolds among university students and the university community. This would include training on the complexity of what some refer to as ‘date rape’ as well as more intensive training on prevailing myths about women’s believability that minimize the experience and consequences of sexual violence.

4.5.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

In section 4.2.1, we relayed several accounts of survivors encountering victim blaming and insensitive questioning from counselors and health providers. These discussions reveal the urgent need for specialized training in addressing cases of sexual violence for front line service providers delivering counseling and health services. Along with acquiring training to intervene in cases in a way that validates survivor experience and does not perpetuate victim blaming, ensuring that front line staff are knowledgeable of university and criminal justice procedures is just as crucial. Focusing on both of these aspects of intervention is essential in order for students to be able to make informed decisions about how to proceed with their cases.

Violet’s case, discussed previously, not only revealed ongoing instances of victim blaming from her university health and counseling service providers, her interactions also illuminated the misinformation she received about criminal justice procedures in the weeks following her rape. When Violet was eventually able to secure an appointment with a counselor, in her first session, she disclosed the assault, and expressed an interest in reporting it to the police. Her counselor discouraged her, advising that she lacked the appropriate evidence to pursue her case because she did not see a doctor to obtain a rape kit examination. It was not until her interview years later that Violet realized that rape kit examinations are not required in order to pursue charges through the criminal justice system. The counselor left her with the impression that because she did not take this extra step, the legal system was not an option.

I had no idea you had to get a rape kit done or anything. So when I asked [her counselor about reporting], she made me during the counseling session, call the health nurse. And the health nurse said, “there’s nothing that you can do about it [a lack of a rape kit]

now.” And then the counselor said, “yes, because you failed to do that, the best thing you can do is write a third person report to the police. But, it’s not going to do too much. And the counselor said that a lot of times it’s worse to report. And she said it would be easier to get over it if I didn’t report it.”

While there is good reason to doubt the possibility of justice through the legal system, ultimately, survivors need to receive accurate information about the process so as to make their own decision on whether or not to report to the police. In addition, it is crucial that service providers support those decisions, regardless of their personal perspectives. One overwhelming refrain from survivors during their interviews was the importance of simply having, to use Jordan’s words, a “person of authority who knows what she or he is talking about to just say, ‘This was not your fault and you had nothing to do with this.’” Addressing training deficits fundamentally entails ensuring that this simple intervention can be achieved, in addition to accurate information provision.

4.5.2 Administrators and Service Providers

Most university employees expressed a desire and a need for more training in dealing with sexual assault survivors. At the universities we studied, only a handful of employees and almost no faculty received formal training on how to respond to sexual violence disclosures. Faculty training is especially important as faculty were the first people to whom many of the survivors turned after their assaults.

The limited training that is available for faculty and staff tends to be very general. It is primarily directed toward information on university policies and processes, with very basic information on sexual violence. Given the prevalence and impact of assumptions about ‘real’ rape and notions of ‘stereotypical’ types of sexual violence on thinking, and responses to sexual violence by survivors, security and police, services providers and administrators, significant training on sexual violence and contemporary patterns is needed across the university. While the majority of interviewees felt that some training on sexual violence would be appropriate for all staff who work directly with students, there were also pockets of respondents who did not see the need for specialized training. Others noted difficulties for universities in providing and keeping current training of university personnel: “People don’t like being trained and there is an enormous cost involved in training all of the university’s employees.” (UADM 6)

Information on policies is available on the websites of all three universities although it is scattered, and often hard to locate and piece together.⁴ Lakehead University has spent some time developing brochures that target different audiences.⁵ All three universities run social media campaigns related to sexual violence over the course of the year, and have materials available at events like health fairs. Mandatory online training on workplace violence and sexual harassment is provided to all employees at the University of Waterloo.⁶ While new faculty at all three universities are provided with information on

⁴ As part of our research, we hired three fourth-year honours students to search the websites of the three universities to see how long it would take a sophisticated, upper-year undergraduate student, who is not immediately in crisis, to locate information on services and contacts for someone who had experienced sexual violence. It took the students thirty minutes to find the relevant information at each university. The students were all selected from an upper year course in “Transitional Justice,” and were all near at or near the top of their class. At least two of the universities (Carleton and Lakehead) had recently redesigned their websites to make information on sexual violence and services more readily accessible.

⁵ The recently produced brochures were just revised based on concerns and suggestions brought forward by sexual assault survivors on campus. This is a good example of the point made by many interviewees that policy development and implementation in this area needs to be an ongoing process of revision, re-thinking and non-defensively listening to survivors.

⁶ Similar training may be available at the other two universities, but was not brought to our attention.

university policies during their orientation, concerns were raised that faculty are not familiar with university policies related to sexual violence. Moreover, we were not told of any training on sexual violence provided to faculty or staff who move into administrative positions – such as chairs, directors, associate deans and deans, vice presidents and president.⁷

There is almost no in depth training on sexual violence provided to those who work directly with survivors of sexual violence as supporters or advisors or decision makers. Aside from the sexual assault counselor at Carleton, and the staff training that she provides, we were not made aware of anyone at any of the three campuses who has specialized training on sexual violence. The service providers we interviewed had training in their fields, and access to additional professional development training. Individual staff may opt to take their professional development requirements in the area of sexual violence (assuming that it is made available by their professional bodies) but they are not required or specifically encouraged to do so. When we asked about counselors having specialized training on sexual violence, we were frequently referred to their training on trauma. With the exception of one interviewee who stated that she had a good understanding of sexual violence but could learn more, the direct service staff we interviewed felt the professional training they had received had prepared them adequately to deal with sexual violence disclosures, and to assist the survivor to the extent that they would be involved in any follow up. None of them felt that they needed specific training on the issue of sexual violence, and how to handle sexual violence cases.

The general sense from administrators and service providers was that health and counseling, and residence staff are well trained, and not in need of specialized training. Yet, the extremely low disclosure and reporting rates may indicate a need for training in sexual violence indicators and sensitive soliciting of disclosure from both potential victims and potential perpetrators of sexual violence. The dissatisfaction from survivors at all three universities speaks loudly to the need for in depth training for those who deal directly with survivors as supporters, advisers or decision makers.

While some of the administrators we interviewed did not feel the need for specialized sexual violence training, a number of them did express interest in receiving training. Some spoke quite strongly about this as a need in terms of their administrative roles but also as decision makers in disciplinary cases involving sexual violence. One administrator who had no training in law or sexual violence was deeply disturbed by the burden he experienced in trying to assess credibility, and determine whether or not the survivor had consented in the context of a student disciplinary hearing against the alleged perpetrator. Training aside, it is not clear, how much this kind of adjudicative role is appropriate for people in university administration.

The stature accorded to university athletes indicates that athletic departments might be a site where specialized training and education on sexual violence issues are needed. At present, coaches are required or encouraged to discuss the issue of sexual violence with their athletes, and to go through the university policies related to sexual violence as part of their orientation. But, the coaches themselves have no training on sexual violence. It was suggested by some administrators that sexual violence training should be mandated as part of coach certification.

⁷ Recently, at Lakehead University, the student members of the LGBT community have provided training on LGBT issues to senior administrators. This actually might be a model for survivor-lead training of university administrators.

We heard recommendations for bystander training, disclosure training, peer-to-peer training. One interviewee expressed a need for staff training on privacy and confidentiality, referencing what they saw as the problematic practice of dealing with confidential matters through email. Questions about who would provide the training as well as the quality and effectiveness of the training need to be addressed. For example, online training is less expensive and can be monitored, but there are concerns about its effectiveness. Studies on the impact of sexual harassment training indicate that the training can have the opposite to the intended effect, leading to decreased sensitivity to sexual harassment and increased adoption of gender stereotypes (Tinkler, 2012; Bingham, 2001; Edelman, 1999). Some of this is about fear and backlash which need to be anticipated and addressed in any training and education program; and some of it is about the pervasiveness and intractability of sexist beliefs which require broad and deep systemic responses. The incongruent pairing of support for sexual violence policies with the endorsement of rape myths, which we frequently encountered in our study, has similarly been documented in the studies on sexual harassment policies (Tinkler, 2012; Edelman, 1999). Rape myths are deeply entrenched in our cultural psyche, and will not be easy to dislodge. This is specialized work that needs to be done by experts in the field.

4.5.3 Policing Personnel

There is no standardized response training for campus special constables or security personnel in Ontario. Campus training varies from no training at all, to in-house sensitivity and awareness conducted by campus groups, to sexual assault investigation training offered by the Ontario Police College. Special constables and security personnel take other specialized courses that can have impact on the prevention and investigation of sexual violence cases but the focus seems to be on quickly referring cases to the local police, and then coordinating with other campus authorities to direct a response including safety planning.

There is some material within their special constable curriculum as far as conducting general investigations... We do some training with equity services and the sexual assault support centre to learn about what resources are available on campus. We do safe planning... How to create a safe plan... We do info sessions with the [local] Police [specialized] section. (CSP 2)

Even when campus police attempt to gain more specialized training from existing police programming, they are generally relegated to the bottom of the list:

As a special constable service, there's obviously the option of taking the sexual assault investigator's course at the Ontario Police College. But you're typically a second priority. For example, I've been on the waiting list for a year and a half now... From the university perspective there's definitely room for improvement in terms of trying to access professional resources for investigations. (CSP 2)

In the absence of standardized training, response procedure may vary considerably. According to one respondent: "We don't have anything laid out on how we're supposed to deal with these situations" (CSP 4). A deficit in sexual violence response training can be so substantial that it seems to eclipse all common sense. In the following incident a campus policing agent who complained that he had no training in responding to such incidents reported that he was guided to a woman in distress by the local police dispatcher:

It was three o'clock in the morning. It was -30 degrees outside. Thursday night, early Friday morning. We got a call from [local] police that they had someone on the line. It

was a female who was behind residence... in the bush outside and didn't know how to get out. She was intoxicated. She had left the [campus pub]. I couldn't find her so I had our comm guy call [local] police to have her scream so I could locate her. I heard her scream, I found her and I got her. She was really intoxicated. She had her pants down around her ankles and she was bleeding. So, you kind of *know* what happened. Filed a report, forwarded it up. Never heard anything after that. (CSP 12)

The responding officer said that the incident was buried, and no follow-up was undertaken which, in itself, speaks to the general problem of disclosure discussed elsewhere in this Report. But, he added, "I called the residence assistant and [the victim] just wanted to go to her room." No rape kit examination was taken, and the police were not subsequently notified about the nature of the offence. The reason given for not following up with the police was that, in the eyes of the responding officer, the woman in this case had already elected not to report to the police when she failed to tell them what had happened to her on the phone that evening. The local police, in his opinion, had also purportedly chosen not to investigate the case when they referred the matter back to the campus. As an indication of how risky the woman was perceived to have been despite her condition (or perhaps because of it), the responding agent also added "I wasn't about to walk her back to her room, just her and I." This, despite the fact that "she was shivering. She had no jacket, no shoes, just her socks." When the researchers asked what measures he did take, the officer replied: "I asked her if she wanted to go to the hospital," but that the woman declined.

While one can easily critique the response of the untrained officer in this case, what is perhaps most compelling to take note of is how, first, all inaction in this story is attributed to simply honoring the victim's choices and, second, how easy it is to deflect responsibility to another official or department that could have done something on her behalf: the residence assistant, the local police, counseling services, and the university administration after the report was filed. In the absence of adequate training and a clear response procedure and follow-up, deflecting responsibility seemingly becomes the only recourse available to responders. One can predict the reasoning behind why there was no resultant action by any party involved: the victim never asked.

Recommendations

All university service providers, administrators and faculty should be required to take training on how to respond to a disclosure of sexual violence, including the relevant university policies and procedures that might apply.

All health and counseling staff should be trained on first response protocols for incidents of sexual violence. Protocols should include advising the survivor of all available options with no pressure with respect to any option, including a physical examination.

At least three members of each university's counseling team should be specifically trained in counseling sexual violence survivors, and in trauma counseling.

The following criteria should inform all training programs:

- *provided by on-the-ground experts on healthy sexuality and sexual violence;*
- *focuses on the complexity of sexual violence experiences and patterns;*
- *addresses myths about sexual violence survivors and perpetrators;*
- *takes an anti-oppression, intersectional approach that addresses issues related to race, Indigeneity, disability and class, in addition to gender and sexuality.*

4.6 Resource Demands

The provision of resources is often at the heart of effective responses to systemic inequities in an institution. The allocation of resources is, of course, conditioned by university priorities and budgetary constraints. It comes as no surprise that almost all of the respondent groups we interviewed agreed that there are challenges to effectively resourcing the university response to sexual violence. Issues discussed above relating to wait times, and training and education are partially, if not substantially, resourcing issues.

Resources in the university context can give rise to empire building and turf protection. The silos discussed in section 4.3 create the potential for competition for limited resources. Access to resources within the university is a preoccupation for most university offices. For example, when the Government of Ontario's Women's Safety Grant is housed in the university, this means that those funds may benefit a single university office, possibly at the expense of another. Competition for controlling resources allocated to the issue of sexual violence might create friction and lead to break down in relations. Additional resources may exacerbate the silo effect.

4.6.1 Survivors and Student Focus Groups

While universities on paper have a great deal of resources to offer students who have experienced sexual violence, in practice, these resources prove difficult to access often because they are understaffed or otherwise under-resourced.

In addition, the power differential between for example student survivor and faculty perpetrator is significantly exacerbated by differences in access to resources. While the university provides the student survivor with support, it does not provide an advocate in situations involving another member of the campus community. The faculty perpetrator, on the other hand, has access to extensive union or association resources in responding to the claim. This resource imbalance can have major consequences for the survivor and her ability to pursue her case. Serious consideration needs to be given as to what can be done to ensure that the survivor is not disadvantaged or silenced due to resource imbalance.

4.6.2 Administrators and Service Providers

Resource allocation is a complex and difficult task for university administrators. Resource limitations are implicated in many of the issues discussed above, specifically in relation to the number of counseling staff, the expense of education and training, oversight costs, and hiring of sexual violence experts. Making the reduction/elimination of sexual violence a primary goal on university campuses will entail significant resources. Universities will need to reassess their allocation of resources if they want to address the issue of sexual violence more comprehensively and effectively. Serious consideration will need to be paid as to where, at this point in time, limited resources can be most productively employed.

The silos discussed in section 4.3.2 create the potential for competition for limited resources. Access to resources within the university is a preoccupation for most university offices. Where the Government of Ontario's women's safety grant is housed in the university, for example, means that those funds may benefit a single university office, possibly at the expense of another. Competition for controlling resources allocated to the issue of sexual violence might cause friction and lead to a break down in inter-unit relations and trust. Additional resources may exacerbate the silo effect.

4.6.3 Policing Personnel

It is now a well-established cliché in police research that 'more resources are needed' for an effective response to any number of areas ranging from partner assault to high school outreach to effectively

responding to Aboriginal populations. The response to sexual violence is no exception. Almost all respondents we spoke to who were members of public police services suggested that with more investigators they could make a more significant impact in dealing with sexual assault cases, especially historical cases. This held true regardless of the size of the caseload of the detectives we interviewed (which varied between 9-35 cases), and regardless of whether or not they were part of specialized sexual assault units:

We don't have a dedicated unit so that means we are not as specialized as other services. We have to deal with our homicides alongside our sexual assault cases... There's probably about 100 threshold cases of sexual assault per year where the case gets to us and we start an investigation... Ten to 15 are university related. (POL 13)

We tell them "yours is just as important as anyone else's but we have to triage. But there's no way I'll ever forget about it. It's sitting on my desk." I think as long as your victim knows you're not forgetting about them. And she was excellent about it until I could get to it. (POL 14)

The deficit in resources played a more pronounced role in patrol work, which was the first point of contact between the police and the survivor. While specialized units themselves had a long list of files to contact, investigate and close, patrol officers were often hurried, and harried when responding to a sexual assault call:

The call volume is so high. People on the radio asking for backup. There is so much pressure to go hurry these calls as quickly as possible because you know there are so many others waiting and other needs happening... It's so important to slow things right down. (POL 16)

Despite these resource concerns, the general perception among campus police was that student sexual assault victims were far better off in terms of follow-up, investigation and accommodation than a member of the general public. Repeatedly, we heard that the services offered on campus, the sensitivity afforded to survivors, and the seriousness with which the offence of sexual assault was treated meant that survivors received significant institutional attention and resources.

We have far more supports in here, internally, than a victim would have in downtown [city] with no connection to the university. Counselling services is 24/7 and will be here in 20 minutes... The accommodations that we can offer and the ongoing supports, they're fabulous. Universities do a real good job. Much better than regular society. But it's still not great. (CSP 1)

The university has taken a lot of important steps to improve its service model... the support centre, drafting a policy that will directly deal with sexual assaults. (CSP 2)

In some cases, complainant pressure can result in rather swift and effective post-allegation action when the victim and her supporters – in this case, her parents – make clear demands on campus security:

We put a panic button in one girl's room. It cost us thousands of dollars and then there was the monthly charges on top of that. But no one ever said to me 'oh hold on now, that's a bit expensive'. I've never been limited on budget... We changed class schedule,

we changed their parking. Whatever they need to feel safe. I'm not going to nickel and dime her feeling safe. (CSP 13)

The rank and file of campus police feel that their hands are tied with respect to addressing the problem of handling sexual assault cases. Their reasons here are fourfold. First, they cite that it is survivors who make the ultimate decision to report. Second, they indicate that their reports are often not followed up. Third, they feel that extant policies are unclear, and limit them in the kinds of services they can provide. Finally, at least one of the universities we studied, there is widespread skepticism and mistrust of the local police service with regards to their treatment of survivors.

5.0 Conclusion

In this Report we have empirically documented serious deficits in understanding and responding to victims of sexual violence on university campuses in Ontario. These deficits tend to be below the surface, and behind the scenes, and therefore not readily visible to much of the university community. Thus, the official account of available resources and services for survivors appears accommodating and sympathetic to women in need of safety, counseling and redress. Survivors can be referred to campus sexual assault centres to connect with sympathetic advisers, counseling and health services that can provide therapeutic intervention, security and campus police services that can investigate and move matters on to local police, student and residence services that can help coordinate with campus police to initiate safety plans and make academic accommodations, and senior administrators that can coordinate university sanctions against perpetrators, and set policy to ensure preventive programming. On the face of it, it would appear that, as one respondent put it “the accommodations” universities offer are “fabulous” and “[m]uch better than [what] regular society” (CSP 1) can offer.

This type of positive overview of campus responses to sexual violence, held in good faith by many university administrators and staff, itself constitutes a barrier to getting at the more fundamental issues that contribute to rape culture on Ontario university campuses. It contributes to a minimization of the problem and complacency about what needs to be done.

Almost without exception, administrators, police and other campus service providers have adopted a ‘victim-centred’ approach, ostensibly in support of victim empowerment, and the desire not to impose outcomes or mandate survivors to proceed with university or criminal justice investigations. Indeed, survivors should not be forced to proceed in the investigations of their cases. Yet, this approach has also had the convenient institutional effect of largely absolving universities of providing a guided, fulsome, multi-level intervention for survivors. A survivor’s path to redress, accommodation, recovery, justice and support is largely her own individual journey, and her concerns should remain front and center of the process. However, reporting, disclosure and resourcing are unclear and rife with pitfalls. Survivors are warned about keeping their stories consistent just as they are tasked with repeating their stories in sufficient detail to warrant institutional intervention. They are made to feel responsible for their own safety. They are also told to take the same precautionary measures most survivors are encouraged to take – such as changing their schedules, carrying a panic alarm or whistle, moving dorms or apartments while they feel their assailants’ lives go unchanged.

While there is a need for universities to continue being flexible in responding to the needs of survivors, universities must go beyond the surface level of attending to survivors’ immediate needs and address sexual violence as a systemic problem with pervasive impact. Among other things, this requires much

more thought and rigor in the training and education provided. Administrators, service providers and policing personnel urgently need to be equipped with dedicated, focused, expert-led training on sexual violence.

Communication about and between different units and departments of the university is contradictory, confusing and counter-productive. Available services are often unknown to victims, that survivors' path to counseling, accommodation and redress are uncoordinated at best, and often intentionally siloed at worst. Some university departments intentionally withhold information from other units due to contradictory professional codes of conduct, collective bargaining regulations, victim requests or, in one case, outright hostility toward campus policing services. Accessing help is often a frustrating bureaucratic nightmare for survivors, including long or unpredictable wait times, confused and ill-equipped professors and administrators, and discombobulated policing services caught between criminal justice processing and administrative investigation.

Creativity and innovation are needed if we are to make progress toward the elimination of sexual violence on our campuses. Universities need to be willing to invest in research in this area in order to explore new ideas. Restorative justice is one of many possibilities warranting some attention, given the close-knit communities often shared by survivors and perpetrators. While restorative justice as a response to incidents of sexual violence has been subjected to much feminist critique, it has been attracting the interest of feminists who are painfully familiar with the limitations of the criminal justice system (Dalhousie Report 2016; Randal 2013). In a restorative justice model, survivors and perpetrators and their community meet to talk about and learn from the incident[s]. As a prerequisite to the process, the survivor has to agree to it and the perpetrator has to take responsibility for his/her actions. The survivor is encouraged to use the process to express how the assault has impacted her/him, and together the group determines how to move forward. A restorative justice process may be an effective education tool, and may in some instances provide the most meaningful remedy.

Anonymous reporting is another tool that needs to be studied and considered. An anonymous complaint system could address the needs of survivors who wish to relay incidents to university authorities for the purpose of record keeping, but who do not want to disclose their identities.

Given our lack of progress to date in eliminating or even abating sexual violence on campuses, and the rape culture that underpins such violence, it is incumbent upon everyone involved in the university community to be open to new ideas and approaches, and to be willing to explore new tools and programs. Research and evaluation will be integral to ensuring that we learn and improve on an ongoing basis.

While important advances in sensitivity, awareness and reporting have been pursued by universities in Ontario over the last two decades, there is still much work to be done. Survivors are frequently dissatisfied with the support they receive, and with the options offered to them. Some survivors are further victimized as they try to pursue some form of redress or support. Myths and stereotypes continue to inform much of the response to sexual violence on campus. There are multiple policies in effect, often unclear and sometimes in conflict with each other. Staff, faculty and administrators are usually well meaning, but often ill informed. The relationship between campus security and local police is often a complicating factor. Reporting and disclosure rates remain extremely low. In this context, improved formal reporting processes will be unlikely to have much impact. The more fundamental underlying issues need to be addressed first. A focus on prevention, that is, on education and training,

and on understanding what works, would likely be a more effective avenue for reducing/eliminating sexual violence on campuses at this time.

Recommendation

A restorative justice process should be available as an option to students who might prefer this mode of response.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following 18 recommendations are found throughout this document in key sections where pertinent findings can inform policy. They are grouped thematically, re-organized and enumerated below.

Focus

1. The government and university focus for action on sexual violence on university campuses should move beyond the development of better reporting and policy environments in order to concentrate more on service provision, informal remedies and the prevention of sexual violence, in accordance with the needs and wishes of the majority of survivors of sexual violence on our campuses.

Training

2. All university service providers, administrators and faculty should be required to take training on how to respond to a disclosure of sexual violence, including on the relevant university policies and procedures that would apply.

3. All health and counseling staff should be trained on first response protocols for incidents of sexual violence. Protocols should include advising the survivor of all available options with no pressure with respect to any option, including a physical examination.

4. At least three members of each university's counseling team should be specifically trained in counseling sexual violence survivors in addition to trauma counseling

5. The following criteria should inform all training programs:

- *provided by on-the-ground experts on healthy sexuality and sexual violence;*
- *focuses on the complexity of sexual violence experiences and patterns;*
- *addresses myths about sexual violence survivors and perpetrators;*
- *takes an anti-oppression, intersectional approach that addresses issues related to race, Indigeneity, disability and class, in addition to gender and sexuality.*

Prevention and Education

6. Any one who joins the university community should be required to take an in-person healthy sexuality education program. Refresher and update programs should be provided regularly. Audience specific programs need to be developed – for example, for first year students, for upper year students, for graduate students, for faculty, for maintenance staff, etc. Particular attention should be paid to the development of education/prevention programs for students involved in fraternities and athletics.

7. A thorough evaluation of orientation week activities, including training and vetting of orientation facilitators, should be conducted every year. The sexual violence component of the program and training, and the monitoring of sexual violence incidents during this time period should be a key feature of the evaluation.

8. The following criteria should inform all education programs:

- *provided by on-the-ground experts on healthy sexuality and sexual violence;*
- *focuses on the complexity of sexual violence experiences and patterns;*
- *addresses myths about sexual violence survivors and perpetrators;*
- *takes an anti-oppression, intersectional approach that addresses issues related to race, Indigeneity, disability and class, in addition to gender and sexuality.*

Health and Counseling Services

9. Ongoing and unlimited counselling support for students in trauma recovery.

10. Group counseling for survivors. Survivors repeatedly expressed a desire to connect with other survivors on campus. This is particularly important for first year students who experience an assault early in the first semester or year of their undergraduate careers, since they are often extremely isolated, and have yet to form significant friendships and relationships. It makes sense that a campus-based support group to be available for any student for whom this is of interest. Groups should be available on a regular basis.

Research

11. Research should be commissioned on the specific issues and impacts relating to racialization and racism, indigeneity, same sex, disability and intimate partner violence, and the impact they have on sexual violence on university campuses.

12. Every university should have at least one staff member, under the supervision of the sexual violence coordinator, assigned the job of keeping up with the sexual violence literature, revising existing educational programs and developing new programs. Materials need to be regularly updated, particularly those used with students.

13. On-site research – e.g., program evaluation and impact studies – should be integrated into the delivery of educational programming and training. Given that we really do not know what works in reducing sexual violence and shifting rape culture, innovation and research should be a central component of the provincial strategy on sexual violence on campuses.

14. We urgently need to know more about why students do not make formal reports. Related, we need to work more closely with the array of faculty and service providers who are receiving sexual violence disclosures to better understand how THEY see the options available to students. Finally, we need to know more about the sexualized contexts within which students find themselves unable to exercise meaningful consent that goes beyond simply ‘yes’ or ‘no.’ Research should be commissioned on all of these issues.

Anonymous Reporting

15. Universities should investigate mechanisms for anonymous reporting of incidents of sexual violence. There are on-line reporting tools currently available that connect survivors with other survivors who have reported the same perpetrator. Such a tool may increase reporting, and assist in addressing the systemic problem of sexual violence by enabling the university to identify patterns of sexual violence as well as serial perpetrators.

Oversight

16. The government of Ontario, in conjunction with Ontario universities, work together with community agencies who directly serve survivors of sexual violence to develop an external community based advocate review system of university responses to sexual violence on campus. The community oversight program developed and implement in Philadelphia for the Philadelphia police force could be adapted to address the specifics of campus-based violence in Ontario.

Dedicated Sexual Violence Co-ordinator

17. Universities who do not have a sexual violence coordinator should create the position, at the senior management level. This would be a person trained in responding to incidents of sexual violence and in working with survivors. Their role would be to oversee all programs and initiatives related to sexual violence on campus, including counseling, education and training. In order to avoid the silo effect, this person would be responsible for ensuring communication and consistency between all units dealing with sexual violence issues, and would be tasked with ensuring that the issue of sexual violence was kept as a high priority issue on the campus agenda.

Restorative Justice

18. A restorative justice process should be available as an option to students who might prefer this mode of response.

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159–66.

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Sheehy, E., and D. Gilbert. 2015. “Responding to Sexual Assault on Campus: What Can Canadian Universities Learn from US Law and Policy.” Ottawa Faculty of Law Working Paper 2015-26.

“Shifting the Paradigm: Primary Prevention of Sexual Violence.” 2008. Linthicum: American College Health Association.

“Transforming UBC and Developing a Culture of Equality and Accountability: Confronting Rape Culture and Colonialist Violence.” 2014. Vancouver: University of British Columbia.

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APPENDIX A – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ETHICS

Ethics clearance was secured for all aspects of the research at all three universities. For the most part, survivor interviews and focus groups were audio recorded, and later coded using a data management system (Nvivo). Interviews with policing personnel and administrators were not audio recorded. Instead, comprehensive notes were taken that were later transcribed and coded. Survivors and focus group participants were recruited through postering, word of mouth, social media and advertisements in student newspapers. Survivors were given a \$50 gift card for their participation. Focus group participants were given \$10 gift cards. Neither administrators nor policing personnel were remunerated for their participation.

All participants were guaranteed confidentiality. Special care was taken to protect the identities of survivors including the use of pseudonyms chosen by survivors as well as a deliberate lack of record-keeping aside from consent forms which are held in a secure location on campus.

Because of timing (we were not able to begin data collection until the beginning of March at Carleton University, and the end of March at the University of Waterloo and Lakehead University) the numbers of student participants are lower than we had hoped. This is largely because we received ethics approval close to the end of term, right before the final exam period, which is extremely busy for students. The data-collected points to some important themes relating to the operation of sexual violence policies and procedures at universities, their effects on university community in general, and survivors in particular, and allows us to present recommendations for future.

DATA AND CODING

a) Survivors and Student Focus Groups:

Survivor Sample Size (N=18)

Carleton University (n=11)
University of Waterloo (n=7)
Lakehead University (n=0)⁸

Focus Group Sample Size (N=29)

Carleton University (n=14)
University of Waterloo (n=11)
Lakehead University (n=4)

Coding:

Pseudonyms used throughout

⁸ Despite all our attempts to recruit survivors (through postering, social media, university newspaper ads, social media ads and advertisements via student clubs and university offices) at Lakehead University, we were not contacted by any survivor. This could have resulted from the survivors' discomfort to disclose their stories to complete strangers, the timing of the recruitment, not having a team member at Lakehead University, and time restrictions of the project, etc.

b) Administrators and Service Providers:

Sample Size (N=50)

Carleton University (n=18)

10 university administrators

8 university service providers

University of Waterloo (n=15)

10 university administrators

4 university service providers

1 off campus service provider

Lakehead University (n=15)

7 university administrators

6 university service providers

2 off campus service providers

2 Other University administrators

Coding:

UADM denotes 'university administrator' followed by randomly assigned number 01-27

USP denotes 'university service provider' followed by randomly assigned number 01-18

OCSP denotes 'service providers' off campus followed by randomly assigned number 01-3

OUADM - Other University Administrator followed by randomly assigned number 01-02

c) Policing Personnel:

Sample size (N=27):

Carleton University (n=10)

3 campus special constables

1 campus security executive

5 Ottawa Police Service detectives

1 Ottawa Police Service executive

University of Waterloo (n=10)

4 campus special constables

2 campus security executives

5 Waterloo Regional Police detectives

1 Waterloo Regional Police executive

Lakehead University (n=7)

2 campus security officers

1 campus security executive

3 Thunder Bay Police Service detectives

1 Thunder Bay Police Service executive

Coding:

CSP denotes "campus security personnel" followed by randomly assigned number 01-13

POL denotes "local police personnel" followed by randomly assigned number 01-14

APPENDIX B – ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abbey, A. 2002. "Alcohol-Related Sexual Assault: A Common Problem among College Students." *Journal of Studies in Alcohol* 14: 118–28.

This article summarizes research on the role of alcohol in college students' sexual assault experiences. Sexual assault is extremely common among college students. At least half of these sexual assaults involve alcohol consumption by the perpetrator, the victim or both. Two research literatures were reviewed: the sexual assault literature and the literature that examines alcohol's effects on aggressive and sexual behavior. Research suggests that alcohol consumption by the perpetrator and/or the victim increases the likelihood of acquaintance sexual assault occurring through multiple pathways. Alcohol's psychological, cognitive and motor effects contribute to sexual assault. Although existing research addresses some important questions, there are many gaps. Methodological limitations of past research are noted, and suggestions are made for future research. In addition, recommendations are made for college prevention programs and policy initiatives.

Abbey, A. (1991). "Acquaintance Rape and Alcohol Consumption on College Campuses: How are they linked?" *Journal of American College Health* 39 (4): 165-169.

This article explores the links between acquaintance rape and alcohol consumption among college students. Both heavy drinking and acquaintance rape are serious problems on college campuses, and they frequently co-occur. Seven explanations for the relationship between alcohol consumption and acquaintance rape are provided: three of these explanations focus on alcohol consumption by the perpetrator and four focus on alcohol consumption by the victim. The need to conduct studies and develop prevention programs that address these issues is discussed.

Abbey, A., Zawacki, T., Buck, P., Clinton, M., and P. McAuslan. (2001). "Alcohol and sexual assault." *Alcohol Research & Health* 25 (1): 43-51.

<http://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/arh25-1/43-51.htm>

Ahrens, C. E., Rich, M. D., and J. B. Ullman. (2011). "Rehearsing for Real Life: The Impact of the InterACT Sexual Assault Prevention Program on Self-Reported Likelihood of Engaging in Bystander Interventions." *Violence Against Women* 17 (6): 760-776.

The InterACT Sexual Assault Prevention Program is an interactive, skill-building performance based on the pedagogy of Augusto Boal's Theatre of the Oppressed. A longitudinal evaluation of this program compared pretest, posttest, and 3 month follow-up data from 509 university student participants. Results suggested that the InterACT performance was successful in increasing participants' beliefs about the effectiveness of bystander interventions and the self-rated likelihood that participants would engage in bystander interventions in the future. Differences in both overall ratings and rates of change were noted. Implications of these results for research and practice are discussed.

Ahrens, C. E., Campbell, R., Ternier-Thames, N. K., Wasco, S. M., and T. Sefl. (2007). "Deciding Whom to Tell: Expectations and Outcomes of Rape Survivors' First Disclosures." *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 31(1): 38-49.

Rape survivors who speak out about their assault experiences are often punished for doing so when they are subjected to negative reactions from support providers. These negative reactions may thereby serve a silencing function, leading some rape survivors to stop talking about their experiences to anyone at all. The current study sought to examine this worst case scenario. Focusing on the qualitative narratives of eight rape survivors who initially disclosed the assault but then stopped disclosing for a significant period of time, this study sought to provide an in-depth description of how negative reactions

silenced these survivors. Three routes to silence were identified: 1) negative reactions from professionals led survivors to question whether future disclosures would be effective; 2) negative reactions from friends and family reinforced feelings of self-blame; and 3) negative reactions from either source reinforced uncertainty about whether their experiences qualified as rape. Implications for future research and practice are discussed.

Amar, A.F., Strout, T.D., Simpson, S., Cardiello, M., and S. Beckford. (2014). "Administrators' perceptions of college campus protocols, response, and student prevention efforts for sexual assault." *Violence and Victims* 29 (4): 579-593.

Sexual assault disproportionately affects college students. Because most survivors do not report sexual assault, research has explored individual factors related to the reporting, with limited research exploring institutional-level factors related to victims' decisions to report their experiences. Objective: The purpose of this research was to describe three key areas: (a) campus assault adjudication, (b) protocols and campus responses to assault, and (c) provision of student prevention education regarding sexual violence. Participants: A nationally representative sample of 1,067 campus administrators responded to a survey regarding institutional sexual assault policies and procedures. Conclusions: Findings suggest that although many institutions are responding adequately to sexual assault in these three areas, improvements are possible. Implications for improving campus responses and further research are discussed.

Anderson, L. A., and S. C. Whiston. (2005). "Sexual Assault Education Programs: A Meta-Analytic Examination of their Effectiveness." *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 29 (4): 374-388.

Meta-analyses of the effectiveness of college sexual assault education programs on seven outcome measure categories were conducted using 69 studies that involved 102 treatment interventions and 18,172 participants. Five of the outcome categories had significant average effect sizes (i.e., rape attitudes, rape-related attitudes, rape knowledge, behavioral intent, and incidence of sexual assault), while the outcome areas of rape empathy and rape awareness behaviors did not have average effect sizes that differed from zero. A significant finding of this study is that longer interventions are more effective than brief interventions in altering both rape attitudes and rape-related attitudes. Moderator analyses also suggest that the content of programming, type of presenter, gender of the audience, and type of audience may also be associated with greater program effectiveness. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

Armstrong, E. A., Hamilton, L., and B. Sweeney. (2006). "Sexual Assault on Campus: A Multilevel, Integrative Approach to Party Rape: *Social Problems* 53 (4): 483-499.

This article explains why rates of sexual assault remain high on college campuses. Data are from a study of college life at a large mid-western university involving nine months of ethnographic observation of a women's floor in a "party dorm," in-depth interviews with 42 of the floor residents, and 16 group interviews with other students. We show that sexual assault is a predictable outcome of a synergistic intersection of processes operating at individual, organizational, and interactional levels. Some processes are explicitly gendered, while others appear to be gender neutral. We discuss student homogeneity, expectations that partiers drink heavily and trust their party-mates, and residential arrangements. We explain how these factors intersect with more obviously gendered processes such as gender differences in sexual agendas, fraternity control of parties, and expectations that women be nice and defer to men. We show that partying produces fun as well as sexual assault, generating student resistance to criticizing the party scene or men's behavior in it. We conclude with implications for policy.

Baldwin, J. D., and J. I. Baldwin. (1988). "Factors affecting aids-related sexual risk-taking behavior among college students." *The Journal of Sex Research* 25 (2): 181-196.

Questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of students at a university in Southern California. The results revealed that for the most part, students were engaging in few activities that would protect them from contracting the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). Regression analyses were used to evaluate several variables related to sexual risk-taking, i.e., condom use, number of sexual behaviors in the last three months, and casual sex. The most consistent predictors of cautious sexual behaviors were age at first intercourse, average number of partners per year, being female and using seatbelts while driving. Safer sexual practices were not influenced by religiosity or having had a course on human sexuality or religiosity. The findings lead us to conclude that AIDS-related education must not rely solely on programs designed to relay AIDS information only, but must also stress the value of certain lifestyle habits, social responsibility, and caution in face of risky activities.

Banyard, V. L. (2014). "Improving College Campus-Based Prevention of Violence Against Women: A Strategic Plan for Research Built on Multipronged Practices and Policies." *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 15 (4): 339-351.

Growing awareness of the scope of violence against women (VAW) on college campuses has led to innovations in intervention and prevention. These efforts have often followed best practices in prevention, have targeted different campus populations, and used varied tools. Prevention evaluation on campuses is increasing. This review briefly summarizes what we have learned about preventing VAW on campus from evaluation research and then describes a roadmap for where research needs to go. To date, most work focuses almost exclusively on sexual violence, concentrates on single programs on one campus, focuses on attitude outcomes, and most research explores main effects of program utility. More complex prevention and research models are needed including the use of multipronged prevention approaches and researching their synergistic effects; investigation of more specific program effects to better unpack what essential elements of different prevention tools are driving changes; and more complex analyses of outcomes including exploration of moderating variables. This research agenda has implications for new programs, policies, and research designs including the importance of partnerships between practitioners and researchers to actualize these goals.

Banyard, V.L., Plante, E.G., and M. M. Moynihan. (2005). *Rape Prevention Through Bystander Education: Bringing a Broader Community Perspective to Sexual Violence Prevention*. Durham: University of New Hampshire.

The sexual violence prevention program we evaluated uses a community of responsibility model to teach women and men how to intervene safely and effectively in cases of sexual violence before, during, and after incidents with strangers, acquaintances, or friends. The program varies from other prevention programs in that it does not address men as potential perpetrators or women as potential victims. Rather it approaches both women and men as potential bystanders or witnesses to behaviours related to sexual violence. The program is grounded in recent research in social and community psychology on bystander intervention and community-focused solutions. The program draws upon findings from research on community change and prevention as well as more individually-focused studies of rape prevention programs and bystander behaviour in emergency and crime situations. Three hundred and eighty-nine undergraduates participated and were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups or a control group. Results from the research reveal that up to two months after participating in either a one or three session version of the program, participants in the treatment conditions showed improvements across measures of attitudes, knowledge, and behaviour while the control group did not. Most program effects persisted at four and twelve month follow-ups. The program appeared to benefit women and men equally. Implications and future directions for research are discussed.

Banyard, V., Moynihan, M., and M. Crossman. (2009). "Reducing sexual violence on campus: the role of student leaders as empowered bystanders." *Journal of College Student Development* 50 (4): 446-457.

Sexual violence is a widespread problem for college communities. Students, faculty, and staff are increasingly involved in prevention efforts. To date, however, evaluation of sexual violence prevention programs has shown mixed results. One promising new practice teaches segments of college communities to be engaged, positive bystanders. It aims to both raise awareness about the problem of sexual violence and build skills that individuals can use to end it. The framework is grounded in research about the causes of sexual assault on campuses and factors identified by health behavior theories for changing attitudes and behavior. Evaluation of data using a bystander model is just beginning to appear. The current study presents a brief evaluation of one bystander program conducted with two groups of student leaders on one midsize public university campus in the Northeast. Results show the program to be effective, even among a group of student leaders who have a higher level of general awareness of campus community problems and training in working with students. Implications for programming and future research are discussed.

Barger, E., Wacker, J., Macy, R., and S. Parish. (2009) "Sexual Assault Prevention for Women With Intellectual Disabilities: A Critical Review of the Evidence." *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities* 47 (4): 249-262.

Although research has indicated that women with intellectual disabilities are significantly burdened with sexual violence, there is a dearth of sexual assault prevention research for them. To help address this serious knowledge gap, the authors summarize the findings of general sexual assault prevention research and discuss its implications for women with intellectual disabilities. Next, the authors evaluate interventions published in both the peer-reviewed and non-peer-reviewed literature from a comprehensive search of the scientific literature as well as from recommendations made by disability and sexual assault service providers in the United States. The results of this comprehensive literature review found 4 sexual violence prevention programs that were designed for participants with intellectual disabilities and that had undergone some type of evaluation. Each program and its evaluation are critically and systematically reviewed. Based on the authors' review of these programs as well as the wider literature, they conclude with recommendations and discuss the work that remains to decrease the incidence of sexual violence against women with intellectual disabilities.

Barnes, S. 2016. "Sexual Harassment and Assault on Campus: Creating a Safer Community for All." Sydney: University of Sydney.

In October 2014 a working group comprised of staff in Student Support Services and representatives from key student organizations was formed to respond to sexual harassment and assault on campus. Its aim was to gather information about prevalence, community attitudes and student experiences of institutional processes for reporting, and to make a visible institutional commitment through the development of resources and support. Under the provisional title *Creating a Safer Community for All*, the working group's project plan laid out a series of viable short, medium and long term actions. These actions are intended to be facilitated by staff but led primarily by students. While student leadership brings with it the diversity and responsiveness of peer engagement, it also demands effective consultation and organization across multiple representative organizations and with multiple stakeholders. An environment scan of national and international institutional responses to sexual assault and harassment on university campuses revealed that despite the unique legal circumstances and obligations of North American universities, they nonetheless offer some innovative and student-focused messaging which has informed our approach. Important progress has also been made by the

Australian Defence Force Academy and the Australian Human Rights Commission in implementing the Unacceptable Behaviour Survey. While ADFA is unique in its structure and cohort, it offers a local example of whole-of-institution cultural and policy change. This paper will offer a discussion of the challenges and opportunities which arise when developing a best-practice, whole-campus approach to sexual assault and harassment built on collaboration and consultation between staff and student stakeholders.

Barry, D.M., and P. M. Cell. (2009). *Campus Sexual Assault Response Teams: Program Development and Operational Management*. Kingston: Civic Research Institute, Inc.

Baum, K., and P. Klaus. 2005. "Violent Victimization of College Students, 1995-2002." Washington: Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/vvcs02.pdf>.

For the period 1995 to 2002, college students ages 18 to 24 experienced violence at average annual rates lower than those for nonstudents in the same age group (61 per 1,000 students versus 75 per 1,000 nonstudents). Except for rape/sexual assault, average annual rates were lower for students than for nonstudents for each type of violent crime measured (robbery, aggravated assault, and simple assault). Rates of rape/sexual assault for the two groups did not differ statistically. Between 1995 and 2002 rates of both overall and serious violence declined for college students and nonstudents. The violent crime rate for college students declined 54% (41 versus 88 per 1,000) and for nonstudents declined 45% (102 versus 56 per 1,000).

Belknap, J., Fisher, B. S., and F. T. Cullen. (1999). "The Development of a Comprehensive Measure of the Sexual Victimization of College Women." *Violence Against Women* 5 (2): 185-214.

It is only in recent years that sexual victimization has been identified as a salient problem on college and university campuses. Researchers have used a variety of different methodologies and data sources to describe the extent and the nature of sexual victimization of college women. These studies, however, are most commonly flawed by an incomplete conceptualization of sexual victimization (e.g., omitting sexual harassment and stalking), and by the inability to distinguish between different ranges of more and less serious sexual victimizations. This article presents a comprehensive measure of sexual victimization that includes incident reports to gather detailed accounts of sexual victimizations.

Bellaire, K., Edwards, N., Musceo, A., Nagpal, S., and H. Yohannes. (2011). "Improving the system: police policy and practice on sexual assault against young women." Toronto: METRAC.

Benoit, C., Shumka, L., Phillips, R., Kennedy, M. C., and L. Belle-Isle. (2015). "Issue Brief: Sexual Violence Against Women in Canada." Ottawa: Status of Women.

The purpose of this issue brief is to provide a comprehensive picture of what is known about sexual violence against women in Canada. This includes a discussion of some of the challenges associated with measuring the prevalence of sexual violence, as well as some of the broader historical, political, and social processes that contribute to sexual violence and shape public understanding of the problem. This is followed by a discussion of available national and provincial data on the incidence of sexual violence in Canada, calling attention to particular sub-populations of women with increased vulnerability, or about whom little is known. The issue brief also includes a brief discussion of some of the program and policy changes taking place in Canada around the issue of sexual violence, as well as examples of innovative and effective interventions. It should be noted that this report focuses on sexual violence against adult women. Sexual violence against children and adolescents is an important but distinct issue that deserves specialized attention and action. The objective of this brief is to raise awareness and understanding of the issue as well as support policy and program development and decision making for governments,

non-governmental organizations, service providers, academics and others working to address sexual violence against women in Canada.

Benson, D. J., and G. E. Thomason. (1982). "Sexual Harassment on a University Campus: The Confluence of Authority Relations, Sexual Interest and Gender Stratification." *Social Problems* 29 (3): 236-251.

We examine experiences of sexual harassment reported by a random sample of undergraduate women at a major U.S. campus, Berkeley. Thirty percent reported having received unwanted sexual attention from at least one male instructor during their four years at college. Two general patterns emerge: Women carefully monitor and try to avoid new instructors who harass them. But when harassment occurs in more established student teacher relationships, women often lose their academic self-confidence and become disillusioned with male faculty. We argue that the prevalence of sexual harassment has the cumulative effect of eroding women's commitment to careers in male-dominated areas.

Beres, M. (2007). "'Spontaneous' sexual consent: An analysis of sexual consent literature." *Feminism & Psychology* 17 (1) 93-108.

Sexual consent is an understudied and under-theorized concept despite its importance to feminist researchers and activists interested in sexual violence. Literature on consent, although sparse, has been produced from a variety of disciplines, including law, psychology, and sociology. This article is a critical review of current literature and current understandings of sexual consent. Different conceptualizations of consent are analysed including implicit and explicit definitions from legal theorists and sexual violence and consent researchers. Alternatives, including communicative sexuality, are discussed and feminist understandings of the social context of consent and the social forces that produce understandings of consent are examined. Directions for future research are suggested.

Berkowitz, A. (1992). "College men as perpetrators of acquaintance rape and sexual assault: A review of recent research." *Journal of American College Health* 40 (4): 175-181.

This article reviews literature since 1980 on college men as perpetrators of acquaintance rape and other forms of sexual assault. Topics include (1) the definition and incidence of acquaintance rape and sexual assault; (2) perpetrator characteristics; (3) situations associated with sexual assault; and (4) men's misperception of women's sexual intent. An integrated theory of sexual assault is proposed, along with implications for the development of effective rape-prevention programs for men.

"Best Practices for Investigating and Prosecuting Sexual Assault." 2013. Edmonton: Alberta Government.

https://justice.alberta.ca/programs_services/criminal_pros/Publications%20Library%20%20Criminal%20Prosecutions/BestPracticesforInvestigatingandProsecutingSexualAssault.aspx

Bingham, S. G., and L. L. Scherer. (2001). "The Unexpected Effects of a Sexual Harassment Educational Program." *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science* 37 (2): 125-153.

This study evaluated a sexual harassment program for staff and faculty employees at a metropolitan university. One hundred men and 97 women who participated in the program and 141 men and 178 women who did not participate responded to a self-report questionnaire through campus mail. Analysis of variance was used to test for effects of program participation and employee gender on five outcome variables. Results indicated that participants showed more knowledge about sexual harassment than did nonparticipants and had a stronger attitude that sexual behaviour at work is inappropriate. Men had more favourable attitudes toward sexual behaviour at work than did women. Moreover, program

participation and employee gender interacted, indicating an adverse reaction to the program among male participants. Male participants were less likely than other groups to perceive coercive sexual harassment, less willing to report sexual harassment, and more likely to blame the victim. Implications of the findings are discussed.

Block, J.A. (2012). ““Prompt and Equitable” explained: How to craft a Title IX compliant sexual harassment policy and why it matters.” *College Student Affairs Journal* 30 (2): 61-71.

An April 2011 "Dear Colleague" letter issued by the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights provided new guidance related to Title IX and the civil rights violation inherent in sexual harassment cases. Using the "Dear Colleague" letter as a guide, this article will provide best practice suggestions to remedy gender discrimination and ensure compliance with Title IX's requirements. In addition, this article will explore the ramifications of noncompliance with Title IX's regulations and discuss issues for future study.

Bohmer, C., and A. Parrot. 1993. *Sexual Assault on Campus: The Problem and The Solution*. Toronto: Maxwell Macmillan Canada.

Recent statistics indicate that 25 percent of all female college students will experience some form of sexual assault by the time they graduate. Even that figure is probably an underestimate, since many women who are assaulted drop out of school. Very few of these incidents are reported, and when they are, campus authorities often mishandle the case, causing further trauma to the victim. Of the small number of cases pursued through campus judicial procedures or reported to the police, only a fraction result in conviction. Why does no one seem to know what to do about the problem of sexual assault on campus? Why do so few women report their assault? Why are so many cases mishandled? Why do some college administrators so fear being sued that their fear becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy? Why are some institutions better equipped to handle the problem, and what is the best way to handle sexual assault on campus? Carol Bohmer and Andrea Parrot, both recognized experts on the problem of rape, particularly acquaintance rape, examine these and other questions in this landmark book. *Sexual Assault on Campus* combines social science evidence, analysis of legal doctrine and cases, and interviews with victims, their parents, campus security officers, and college administrators. Based on the results of their own qualitative study on the responses to complaints of sexual assault on campus, the authors offer important new guidance to all involved in the problem, particularly administrators, lawyers, and service providers working with students - from rape crisis centers and social workers to residence hall directors. Further, *Sexual Assault on Campus* includes case studies, making it important reading for students of social work, criminology, and law and society programs. And certainly victims of campus rape, their families, and friends will want to read this book - the first ever to deal effectively with the aftermath of sexual assault on campus.

Bourg, S., and H. V. Stock. (1994). “A review of domestic violence arrest statistics in a police department using a pro-arrest policy: Are pro-arrest policies enough?” (1994). *Journal of Family Violence* 9 (2): 177-189.

This study examined domestic violence arrest statistics in a sheriff's department that does not utilize a community approach and provides little police training on domestic violence. In reviewing all domestic violence reports (n=1870) over a 12-month period, less than one-third (28.8%) of the domestic violence cases ended in arrest. Even the most serious charges (aggravated batteries) were more likely to end without an arrest (62.6%) than with an arrest (37.4%). Although results showed that more men were identified (88.4%) and arrested (91.6%) as batterers than women (11.6% and 8.4%, respectively), closer analyses revealed that arrested women were more often charged with more serious charges (60%) than arrested men (26.0%). Finally, gender and race data indicated that while four-fifths (84.6%) of black

females were arrested on felony charges, less than one-fifth (19.5%) of white males were arrested on the same charge. These findings demonstrate a need for further research on factors that may affect pro-arrest policy effectiveness.

Brennon, S., and A. Taylor-Butts. (2008). "Sexual Assault in Canada 2004 and 2007." Statistics Canada: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics Profile Series. <http://www5.statcan.gc.ca/olc-olc.action?ObjId=85F0033M2008019&ObjType=46&lang=en>

About one in ten sexual assaults is reported to police, according to the 2004 General Social Survey (GSS) on Victimization. With only a small proportion of sexual offences formally documented through law enforcement, the prevalence of sexual assault in Canada has been difficult to quantify. According to the 2004 GSS, there were about 512,000 incidents of sexual assault, representing a rate of 1,977 incidents per 100,000 population aged 15 and older. Given that most sexual assaults go unreported, police-reported sexual assault counts are notably lower, with about 24,200 sexual offences recorded by police in 2007. Victimization data suggest that the rates of sexual assault remained stable in recent years. However, police-reported data reveal a steady decline in offences coming to the attention of law enforcement for more than a decade. The majority of sexual offences in Canada are of a less severe nature. Victimization data indicate that most sexual assaults involved unwanted sexual touching (81%) rather than more severe sexual attacks (19%). Among the incidents that came to the attention of police in 2007, the large majority (86%) were level 1, the least serious form of sexual assault. The 2004 GSS showed that sexual victimization rates were dramatically higher among those aged 15 to 24, compared to those 55 and over. Additionally, over half of the sexual assault victims reported to police in 2007 were children and youth under the age of 18. When asked why they did not tell the police about the sexual assault, a majority of victims (58%) said that they did not report the incident because it was not important enough. While few sexual assault victims filed formal reports with police, most (72%) confided in friends and many turned to family (41%) and other informal sources of support. Similar to victims of other forms of violent crime, sexual assault victims commonly experienced anger, confusion and frustration as a result of their victimization.

Breutenbecher, K., and M. Scarce. (1999). "A Longitudinal Evaluation of the Effectiveness of a Sexual Assault Education Program." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 14 (5): 459-478.

The purpose of the present investigation was to empirically evaluate the effectiveness of a sexual assault education program. Participants in this study included 224 college women who were randomly assigned to either the treatment group or the control group. Early in the academic year, all women were assessed with respect to history of sexual victimization and general knowledge about sexual assault. At the time of the initial session, women in the treatment group also participated in a 1-hour sexual assault education program. Women in the control group did not participate in the program. At the end of the academic year, participants in both groups returned for a 7-month follow-up session and were assessed for knowledge about sexual assault and experience of sexual victimization during the follow-up period. Although the program was successful in increasing knowledge about sexual assault, it was not successful in reducing the incidence of sexual assault.

Brown, J. M., and S. L. Walklate. (eds.). (2012). *Handbook on Sexual Violence*. London: Routledge.

Buchholz, L. (2015). "The Role of University Health Centers in Intervention and Prevention of Campus Sexual Assault." *JAMA* 314 (5) 438-440.

Buchwald, E., Fletcher, P., and M. Roth. (1993). *Transforming A Rape Culture*. Minneapolis: Milkweed Editions.

The premise of this book is that, in a rape culture, men and women assume that sexual violence is a fact of life, inevitable as death or taxes. The editors, through this collection of 37 essays, argue that much of what is accepted by society as inevitable is in fact the expression of values and attitudes that can change. The essays, most of which were written at the editors' invitation, describe a future without rape, strategies to achieve it, and current programs of action that are having some degree of success in changing the climate that encourages sexual violence. Essayists included are Andrea Dworkin, Pamela R. Fletcher, Naomi Wolf, Gloria Steinem, bell hooks, and Michael S. Kimmel. In addition to the essays, a list of organizations working on issues related to rape, a bibliography, an index of contributors, and a subject index are included. A mission statement of Milkweed Editions publishers also is included.

Burn, S. (2009). "A situational model of sexual assault prevention through bystander intervention." *Sex Roles* 60 (11): 779-792.

Bystander intervention is a potentially potent tool in the primary prevention of sexual assault but more information is needed to guide prevention programs (Banyard 2008). Undergraduates (378 women and 210 men, primarily White) at a central coast California university completed an anonymous questionnaire measuring five barriers identified by the situational model of bystander intervention (Latane and Darley 1970) and bystander intervention behavior. As expected, the barriers were negatively correlated with intervention, were greater for men than for women, and intervention likelihood was affected by perceptions of victim worthiness, especially for men. Hypotheses predicting a positive relationship between having a relationship with the potential victim or perpetrator and intervention were supported. Implications for sexual assault bystander intervention programming are provided.

Butchart, A., Garcia-Moreno, C., and C. Mikton. (2010). *Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Against Women: Taking Action and Generating Evidence*. Geneva: World Health Organization.

The report is intended for use by policymakers and planners who are interested in taking a public health approach to prevent the occurrence of intimate partner and sexual violence. The information in the report is presented in four chapters. Chapter 1 presents an overview of the nature, magnitude, and consequences of intimate partner and sexual violence within the broader typology of violence. Chapter 2 discusses the risk and protective factors that have been identified for intimate partner and sexual violence as well as how to incorporate both these types of factors in prevention efforts. Chapter 3 provides a summary of the scientific evidence base for primary prevention strategies, and describes three types of programs: those that have been found to be effective, those that are supported by emerging evidence, and those programs that could potentially be effective but have yet to be sufficiently evaluated. Chapter 4 describes a six-step framework for use in implementing intimate partner and sexual violence prevention policies and programs. The final section of the report discusses several future research priorities along with key conclusions that have emerged from current research.

"California Campus Blueprint to Address Sexual Assault." (2004). Sacramento: California Campus Sexual Assault Task Force.

Campbell, R., and S. M. Wasco. (2005). "Understanding Rape and Sexual Assault 20 Years of Progress and Future Directions." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 20 (1): 127-131.

During the past 20 years, researchers have documented the widespread problem of rape in American society. Approximately one in four women are raped in their adult lifetime, which causes severe

psychological distress and long-term physical health problems. The impact of sexual assault extends far beyond rape survivors as their family, friends, and significant others are also negatively affected. Moreover, those who help rape victims, such as rape victim advocates, therapists, as well as sexual assault researchers, can experience vicarious trauma. Future research and advocacy should focus on improving the community response to rape and the prevention of sexual assault.

Campbell-Ruggaard, J., and J. Van Ryswyk. 2001. "Rape on Campus: Numbers Tell Less than Half the Story." In *Sex Without Consent: Rape and Coercion in America*, edited by M. D. Smith, 283–99. New York: New York University Press.

"Campus sexual assault: suggested policies and procedures." 2013. Washington: American Association of University Professors (AAUP).

Cantalupo, N.C. (2010). "How should colleges and universities respond to peer sexual violence on campus? What the current legal environment tells us." *NASPA Journal About Women in Higher Education* 3 (1): 49-84.

Over the last decade or so, various legal schemes such as the statutes and court or agency enforcement of Title IX and the Clery Act have increasingly recognized that certain institutional responses perpetuate a cycle of non-reporting and violence. This paper draws upon comprehensive legal research conducted on how the law now regulates school responses to campus peer sexual violence to show that schools face much greater liability from failing to protect the rights of campus peer sexual violence survivors than of any other group of students, including alleged assailants. By encouraging their institutions to develop more victim-centered responses to campus peer sexual violence, advocates for women in higher education can respond to the current legal environment, properly confront this problem, and help their schools avoid liability.

Cantor, D., Fisher, B., Chibnall, S., Townsend, R., Lee, H., Bruce, C., and G. Thomas. (2015). "Report on the AAU Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Assault and Sexual Misconduct." Rockville: Westat.

Carmody, M. (2009). "Conceptualising the Prevention of Sexual Assault and the Role of Education." 10. ACSSA Issues Paper. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Carmody, M. (2006). "Preventing Adult Sexual Violence Through Education?" *Current Issues in Criminal Justice* 18 (2): 342-356.

Carr, J.L., and R. L. Ward. (2006). "American College Health Association campus violence white paper." *NASPA Journal* 43 (3): 380-409.

Christensen, S. (2016). "Engage students in interactive learning about sexual assault policies, resources to help ensure increased awareness." *Student Affairs Today*.

Although many colleges and universities have introduced stricter sexual assault policies in recent years, the difficulty remains in educating students and ensuring they're fully aware of the resources at their disposal. Researchers explored the most effective methods for disseminating information about campus sexual assault policies to first-year students in a study entitled *Informing Students about Campus Policies and Resources: How They Get the Message Matters*. This research was funded by the U.S. Department of Justice. The study proves that engaging first-year college students in active learning is the most effective way to disseminate information about campus sexual assault policies. Students directed to study guidelines on their own time are less likely to absorb and retain the information, whereas

students who are given the opportunity to discuss regulations with teachers and peers are more likely to understand and remember them.

Christensen, M.C. (2013). "Using feminist leadership to build a performance-based, peer education program." *Qualitative Social Work* 12 (3): 254-269.

This article explores the experiences of six college students learning and using feminist leadership techniques for the creation and implementation of a performance-based, peer education, sexual assault prevention program. The program was established and governed through the use of two models for feminist leadership, *Visions; Building a Feminist Community* and *Theatre for Community, Conflict, and Dialogue*. Both models emphasize a collaborative leadership style and process, which includes a strengths focus, ethic of care, and modeling responsibility to the group. Data were collected via in-depth interviews, field notes, and written evaluations focusing on the group experience. Data reveal how the creation and implementation of this program impacts students' engagement with feminist leadership practices and how this shapes them as leaders. Data also illustrate valuable implications for future practice, policy, and research development.

Coker, A., Cook-Craig, P., Williams, C., Fisher, B., Clear, E., Garcia, L., and L. Hegge. (2011). "Evaluation of Green Dot: An active bystander intervention to reduce sexual violence on college campuses." *Violence Against Women* 17 (6): 777-796.

Using a cross-sectional survey of a random sample of 7,945 college undergraduates, we report on the association between having received Green Dot active bystander behavior training and the frequency of actual and observed self-reported active bystander behaviors as well as violence acceptance norms. Of 2,504 students aged 18 to 26 who completed the survey, 46% had heard a Green Dot speech on campus, and 14% had received active bystander training during the past 2 years. Trained students had significantly lower rape myth acceptance scores than did students with no training. Trained students also reported engaging in significantly more bystander behaviors and observing more self-reported active bystander behaviors when compared with nontrained students. When comparing self-reported active bystander behavior scores of students trained with students hearing a Green Dot speech alone, the training was associated with significantly higher active bystander behavior scores. Those receiving bystander training appeared to report more active bystander behaviors than those simply hearing a Green Dot speech, and both intervention groups reported more observed and active bystander behaviors than nonexposed students.

Copenhaver, S., and E. Grauerholz. (1991). "Sexual Victimization Among Sorority Women: Exploring the Link Between Sexual Violence and Institutional Practices." *Sex Roles* 24 (1/2): 31-41.

This study investigates the incidence and nature of sexual coercion among sorority women. Particular emphasis is placed on sexual coercion that occurs within the context of fraternal life. Overall, almost half of those studied had experienced some form of sexual coercion, 24% experienced attempted rape, and 17% were victims of completed rape. Almost half of the rapes occurred in a fraternity house, and over half occurred either during a fraternity function or was perpetrated by a fraternity member. This study provides evidence that fraternities represent a social context that tolerates, if not actually encourages, sexual coercion of women, including sorority women.

Cooper, L. (2002). "Alcohol Use and Risky Sexual Behaviour among College Students and Youth: Evaluating the Evidence." *Journal of Studies on Alcohol* 14: 101-117.

To evaluate the empirical associations between alcohol use and risky sex at two levels of analysis. Global associations test whether individuals who engage in one behaviour are more likely to engage in the other, whereas event-specific associations test whether the likelihood of engaging in one behaviour on a

given occasion varies as a function of engaging in the other on that same occasion. Studies examining the association between drinking and risky sex in samples of college students and youth were reviewed. Those published in the past 10 years and using event-level methodology or random sampling were emphasized. Findings were generally consistent across levels of analysis, but differed across types of risky behaviours. Drinking was strongly related to the decision to have sex and to indiscriminate forms of risky sex (e.g., having multiple or casual sex partners), but was inconsistently related to protective behaviours (e.g., condom use). Moreover, the links among alcohol use, the decision to have sex and indiscriminate behaviours were found in both between-persons and within-persons analyses, suggesting that these relationships cannot be adequately explained by stable individual differences between people who do and do not drink. Analysis of event characteristics showed that drinking was more strongly associated with decreased protective behaviours among younger individuals, on first intercourse experiences and for events that occurred on average longer ago. Conclusions: Future efforts aimed at reducing alcohol use in potentially sexual situations may decrease some forms of risky sex, but are less likely to affect protective behaviours directly.

Cornelius, T. L., Sullivan, K. T., Wyngarden, N., and J. C. Milliken. (2009). "Participation in Prevention Programs for Dating Violence: Beliefs About Relationship Violence and Intention to Participate." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 24 (6): 1057-1078.

This study utilizes the Health Belief Model (HBM) to examine the factors related to the intention to participate in prevention programming for dating violence. Perceptions of susceptibility to future violence and the benefits of prevention programming appear to be the strongest predictors of participation in prevention programs. Perceptions of the severity of dating violence do not appear to be related to intentions to participate. There were no differences in intention between those reporting psychological or physical violence in their dating relationship, although some of the HBM factors were associated with a history of violence. Contrary to hypotheses, psychological and physical violence did not moderate the impact of the HBM factors on intention. Implications of these findings are discussed and recommendations for recruiting participants for primary and secondary prevention programs are offered.

"Creating Change Together: A guide for rape crisis centers partnering with colleges and universities." (2014). Cleveland: Ohio Alliance to End Sexual Violence. <http://www.oaesv.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/Creating-Change-Together-Final-8.28.14.pdf>

Crosset, T. W., J. R. Benedict, and M. A. McDonald. 1995. "Male-Student Athletes Reported for Sexual Assault: A Survey of Campus Police Departments and Judicial Affairs Office." *Journal of Sport and Social Issues* 19 (2): 126-40.

This article examines the relationship between collegiate athletic participation and reported sexual assaults at Division I institutions. The research is based on the police records at 20 institutions during the 1992-1993 school year and the records of 10 judicial affairs offices over a 3-year period from 1991 through 1993. Although the findings indicate that male student-athletes are overrepresented in reports of sexual assault in both locations, the differences between student-athletes and other male students are statistically significant only when it comes to the number of incidents reported to judicial affairs.

Daigle, L.E., Fisher, B.S., and F. T. Cullen. (2008). "The violent and sexual victimization of college women: Is repeat victimization a problem?" *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 23: 1296-1313.

Little attention has been given to repeat violent and sexual victimization among college women. Using two national-level data sets, the authors find that a small proportion of college women experience a large proportion of violent and sexual victimizations. Women are more likely to experience repeat

sexual victimization than repeat violence incidents. Repeat victimization tends to happen in the same month of the initial victimization, and the most likely next type of victimization is by far the same type of victimization. Comparing incident-level characteristics of repeat incidents to single incidents, there are few differences, with the exception that, in a larger proportion of single incidents, women took self-protective action. Implications for prevention and educational programs are discussed.

Daly, K. (2014). "Restorative Justice and Sexual Assault." *British Journal of Criminology* 46 (2): 334-356.

As restorative justice has grown in popularity worldwide, mainly in response to youth crime, controversy surrounds its use for sexual, partner and family violence cases. With some exceptions, all jurisdictions have put these offences beyond the reach of restorative justice for both youth and adult offenders and, thus, empirical evidence is lacking. This paper presents findings from an archival study of nearly 400 cases of youth sexual assault, which were finalized in court and by conference or formal caution over a six-and-a-half-year period in South Australia, to address these questions: (1) What differentiates a court from a conference case? (2) What happens once a case goes to court, e.g. what share of cases is dismissed and how do penalties vary for court and conference cases? (3) From a victim's point of view, what appears to be the better option—having one's case go to court or conference? Contrary to the concerns raised by critics of conferencing, from a victim's advocacy perspective, the conference process may be less victimizing than the court process and its penalty regime may produce more effective outcomes.

Danis, F. S. (2007). "In search of safe campus communities: A campus response to violence against women." *Journal of Community Practice* 14 (3): 29-46.

Although there is a perception of college and university campuses as sanctuaries of learning, they are not always safe places for women. The studies by the Carnegie Foundation for Higher Education as well as other research on violence against women confirm sexual harassment and dating violence as significant barriers to women's educational achievement. Ernest Boyer, former President of the Carnegie Foundation, envisioned the college campus as a community of learners where civility is affirmed, diversity pursued, group obligations guide behavior, individuals are supported and service is encouraged, and traditions are celebrated and shared. This vision has strong parallels with efforts to develop coordinated campus responses to violence against women. Based on a case study of a strategic alliance within a university and between the university and community-based organization, this article highlights the achievements of this collaboration along with the role of a school of social work in facilitating this alliance.

Darwinkel, E., Powell, M., and P. Tidmarsh. (2013). "Improving Police Officers' Perceptions of Sexual Offending Through Intensive Training." *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 40 (8) 895–908.

We examined whether specialist police training on the dynamics of sexual offending can modify officers' victim-blaming attitudes and negative perceptions regarding likely case authorization. The sample included 77 Australian police officers specialising in sexual assault investigation. The training, delivered face to face over 4 weeks, included focus on identifying elements of grooming in offending relationships and how these elements can be elicited from victims and suspects within a narrative interviewing framework. Officers' perceptions of cases were assessed immediately pre- and post-training using a series of case scenarios. For each scenario, officers rated (on a 10-point liker-type scale) their confidence that the case should be authorised to proceed to prosecution and the responsibility attributable to the victim. For each case, officers also listed up to 5 factors to justify their case authorization decision. Overall, confidence in case authorization increased from pre- to post-training, whilst perception of victim "responsibility" decreased. The pattern of results, including the qualitative evidence to justify

officers' decisions, support that the attitude change was due to greater understanding of the dynamics of sexual offending. The implications for police trainers, and directions for future research, are discussed.

Day, K. (1994). "Conceptualizing Women's Fear of Sexual Assault on Campus." *Environment and Behavior* 26 (6): 742-765.

Sexual assault is increasingly recognized as an urgent and pervasive problem on university campuses. Women's fear of sexual assault is similarly significant and widespread. Growing university assault prevention efforts on campus have often over-looked the negative implications of women's fear. Depending on their onus of responsibility, university sexual assault prevention strategies may implicitly reinforce gendered social norms for public behavior by increasing women's fear in public spaces, with consequent detrimental effects for women's positive experience on campus. Based on a conceptualization of fear of sexual assault as a form of social control, this review discusses societal, individual, and university/campus factors (organizational, social, and especially physical) associated with women's fear of assault on campus. In conclusion, it suggests university assault prevention strategies that may also reduce women's fear.

DeGue, S. (2014). "Preventing sexual violence on college campuses: Lessons from research and practice." Washington: Division of Violence Prevention, Centres for Disease Control and Prevention.

DeGue, S., Valla, L. A., Holt, M. K., Massetti, G. M., Matjasko, J. L., and A. T. Tharp. (2014). "A systematic review of primary prevention strategies for sexual violence perpetration." *Aggression and Violent Behaviour* 19 (4): 346-362.

This systematic review examined 140 outcome evaluations of primary prevention strategies for sexual violence perpetration. The review had two goals: 1) to describe and assess the breadth, quality, and evolution of evaluation research in this area; and 2) to summarize the best available research evidence for sexual violence prevention practitioners by categorizing programs with regard to their evidence of effectiveness on sexual violence behavioral outcomes in a rigorous evaluation. The majority of sexual violence prevention strategies in the evaluation literature are brief, psycho-educational programs focused on increasing knowledge or changing attitudes, none of which have shown evidence of effectiveness on sexually violent behavior using a rigorous evaluation design. Based on evaluation studies included in the current review, only three primary prevention strategies have demonstrated significant effects on sexually violent behavior in a rigorous outcome evaluation: *Safe Dates* (Foshee et al., 2004); *Shifting Boundaries* (building-level intervention only, Taylor, Stein, Woods, Mumford, & Forum, 2011); and funding associated with the 1994 U.S. *Violence Against Women Act* (VAWA; Boba & Lilley, 2009). The dearth of effective prevention strategies available to date may reflect a lack of fit between the design of many of the existing programs and the principles of effective prevention identified by Nation et al. (2003).

DeKeseredy, W.S. (2011). *Violence Against Women: Myths, Facts, Controversies*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

In *Violence Against Women*, award-winning author Walter S. DeKeseredy offers a passionate but well-documented sociological overview of a sobering problem. He starts by outlining the scope of the challenge and debunks current attempts to label intimate violence as gender neutral. He then lays bare the structural practices that sustain this violence, leading to a discussion of long- and short-term policies to address the issue. DeKeseredy includes an examination of male complicity and demonstrates how boys and men can change their roles. Throughout, he responds to myths that dismiss threats to

women's health and safety and provides an impassioned call to action for women, men, and policymakers.

DeKeseredy, W.S., and M. D. Schwartz, M.D. (2013). *Male Peer Support and Violence Against Women: The History & Verification of a Theory*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.

In 1988, Walter S. DeKeseredy announced Male Peer Support (MPS) Theory, which popularized the notion that certain all-male peer groups encourage, justify, and support the abuse of women. In 1993, DeKeseredy and Martin D. Schwartz modified and expanded MPS Theory. Today, after twenty-five years of research, numerous studies from a diverse range of fields and practitioners support the original claim, providing a powerful explanation for the mechanism that underlies much of North America's violence against women. This book provides a history of the theory, traces its development and uses over a quarter century, and offers an update on Internet-generated abuse.

DeKeseredy, W. S., Schwartz, M. D., and S. Alvi. (2000). "The role of profeminist men in dealing with woman abuse on the Canadian college campus." *Violence Against Women* 6 (9): 918-935.

Stopping woman abuse on the North American college campus has not been very successful thus far. There is a major backlash, where students, faculty, and administrators too often either feel that the problem is not very significant or support the patriarchal rights of men. Programs begun by many campuses have not worked very well, partially because they depend on women to police the actions of men and partially because so few men come under formal social control that most offenders know that they can get away with their actions. Building on empirical research that suggests that male peer support is the most important factor on whether a male will be abusive, the authors suggest ways in which profeminist men can begin to tilt the balance against male aggression. This can include shaming or working with bullies or those who are abusive, protesting pornography, and involving oneself with education programs and/or support groups.

"Developing a Response to Sexual Violence: A Resource Guide For Ontario's Colleges and Universities." 2013. Ottawa: Ontario's Women's Directorate. http://www.citizenship.gov.on.ca/owd/english/ending-violence/campus_guide.shtml

Downing-Matibag, T. M., and B. Geisinger. (2009) "Hooking Up and Sexual Risk Taking Among College Students: A Health Belief Model Perspective." *Qualitative Health Research* 19 (9): 1196-1209.

"Hooking up" with friends, strangers, and acquaintances is a popular way for college students to experience sexual intimacy without investing in relationships. Because hooking up often occurs in situations in which prophylactics against sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are not available or in which students' judgment is impaired, it can involve risky behaviours that compromise student health. As such, in-depth studies of the factors related to sexual risk taking during hook-ups are needed, to advance preventive research and programming. Based on semi-structured interviews with 71 college students about their hooking-up experiences, the findings of this study demonstrate that the Health Belief Model can serve as a useful framework for understanding sexual risk taking during hooking up, and offers suggestions for sexual risk-prevention programs on college campuses. The results demonstrate why students' assessments of their own and their peers' susceptibility to STIs are often misinformed. The findings also show how situational characteristics, such as spontaneity, undermine students' sexual self-efficacy.

Edelman, L. B. et al. (2011). "When Organizations Rule: Judicial Deference to Institutionalized Employment Structures." *American Journal of Sociology* 117 (3): 888-954.

This article offers a theoretical and empirical analysis of *legal endogeneity* – a subtle yet powerful process through which institutionalized organizational structures and practices influence judicial conceptions of legality and compliance. We argue that, irrespective of their effectiveness, organizational structures such as grievance procedures, anti-harassment policies, evaluation procedures, and formal hiring procedures become symbolic indicia of compliance with anti-discrimination laws, first within organizations but eventually in the judicial realm as well. As organizational structures become increasingly institutionalized, lawyers and judges become more likely to associate them with rationality and fairness. Legal endogeneity has observable manifestations: judges increasingly refer to organizational structures in their opinions, find them relevant to determinations of legal liability, and ultimately defer to those structures by inferring nondiscrimination from their presence or discrimination from their absence. We test legal endogeneity theory using a quantitative content analysis of a random sample of 1024 federal employment discrimination decisions from 1965-1999. We find that legal endogeneity has increased over time. Judicial deference to organizational structures appeared first in the district courts and later in the circuit courts. Deference is most likely where plaintiffs lack social and economic clout and where the legal theory put forward by the parties requires judges to rule on organizational attributes that are not directly observable. We suggest that legal endogeneity weakens the impact of law as judges increasingly understand organizational structures as indicators of legal governance even though those structures are often ineffective or discriminatory.

Edelman, L. B. et al. (1999). *The Endogeneity of Legal Regulation: Grievance Procedures as Rational Myth.* *American Journal of Sociology* 105 (2): 406-454.

Most accounts of organizations and law treat law as largely exogenous and emphasize organizations' responses to law. This study proposes a model of endogeneity among organizations, the professions, and legal institutions. It suggests that organizations and the professions strive to construct rational responses to law, enabled by "rational myths" or stories about appropriate solutions that are themselves modeled after the public legal order. Courts, in turn, recognize and legitimate organizational structures that mimic the legal form, thus conferring legal and market benefits upon organizational structures that began as gestures of compliance. Thus, market rationality can follow from rationalized myths: the professions promote a particular compliance strategy, organizations adopt this strategy to reduce costs and symbolize compliance, and courts adjust judicial constructions of fairness to include these emerging organizational practices. To illustrate this model, a case study of equal employment opportunity (EEO) grievance procedures is presented in this article.

Edelman, L. B. (1992). "Legal Ambiguity and Organizational Structures: The Expansion of Due Processes in the American Workplace." *American Journal of Sociology* 97 (6): 1531-1576.

Laws that regulate the employment relation tend to set forth broad and often ambiguous principles that give organizations wide latitude to construct the meaning of compliance in a way that responds to both environmental demands and managerial interests. Organizations respond initially by elaborating their formal structures to create visible symbols of compliance. As organizations construct and institutionalize forms of compliance with laws, they mediate the impact of those laws on society. The author uses data from a nationwide survey of 346 organizations to develop models of the creation and institutionalization of organizationally constructed symbols of compliance following the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

Edwards, K. M., Moynihan, M. M. et al. (2015). "Campus Community Readiness to Engage Measure: Its Utility for Campus Violence Prevention Initiatives—Preliminary Psychometrics." *Violence and Gender* 2 (4): 214-224.

The researchers present preliminary psychometric information on a recently developed measure—the Campus Community Readiness to Engage Measure (CCREM)—which was developed as a tool for campuses to determine their readiness to address sexual assault (SA) and relationship abuse (RA). Participants were 353 community leaders and administrators at 131 colleges and universities across New England. Factor analytic results demonstrated that the CCREM had three factors for both SA and RA: denial (the campus community is unwilling to acknowledge that SA and RA are issues for the community), initiation (the campus community is beginning to create efforts to address SA and RA and some community members are involved), and sustainability (the campus has high levels of engagement from community members and longstanding efforts to address SA and RA). Whereas there was fair to moderate agreement among raters within the same community on the sustainability and initiation subscales, there was poor to fair agreement among raters within the same community on the denial subscale. Although additional measurement development research is needed, preliminary data suggest that the CCREM may be useful to campus communities in helping to initiate prevention initiatives and implement services related to SA and RA.

Ehrhart, J. K., and B. R. Sandler. (1985). "Campus Gang Rape: Party Games? Project on the Status and Education of Women." Washington: Association of American Colleges.

The phenomenon of gang rape as it sometimes occurs on college campuses is described, with attention to causes, impacts on the victim and other students, responses the college should take, and prevention. Consideration is given to the role of alcohol, drugs, and pornography in fraternity gang rape; successful model programs for rape prevention activities; and practical recommendations for policies and procedures to deal with fraternity gang rape. The recommended actions can be taken prior to or after acquaintance gang rape is reported. The recommendations cover: institutional responsibility to the victim, the investigation of criminal conduct, disciplinary procedures for individuals, disciplinary procedures for the fraternity, legal responsibilities of the college, and publicity. Suggestions for prevention, which are useful in dealing with stranger rape and date rape as well, address: official policy statements; raising awareness of gang rape issues through programs for students; involving men more fully in rape awareness programs; involving faculty, administrators, and staff; data collection; using the media; campus social life; security; and community relations. Myths and realities about rape and results of a Ms. Magazine study are summarized. A resource list covers publications, videotapes, and organizations.

Fabiano, P., Perkins, W., Berkowitz, A., Linkenbach, E., and C. Stark. (2003). "Engaging Men as Social Justice Allies in Ending Violence Against Women: Evidence for a Social Norms Approach." *Journal of American College Health* 52 (3): 105-112.

The field of sexual assault prevention is shifting attention to educational interventions that address the role of men in ending violence against women. Recent studies document the often-misperceived norms men hold about other men's endorsement of rape-supportive attitudes and behaviors. The authors provide further evidence supporting the design of population-based social norms interventions to prevent sexual assault. Data from this study suggest that men underestimate the importance that most men and women place on consent and willingness of most men to intervene against sexual violence. In addition, men's personal adherence to only consensual activity and their willingness to act as women's allies are strongly influenced by their perceptions of other men's and women's norms. These findings support the proposition that accurate normative data, which counters the misperception of rape-supportive

environments, can be a critical part of comprehensive campus efforts to catalyze and support men's development as women's social justice allies in preventing sexual violence against women.

Fedina, L., Holmes, J. L., and B. L. Backes. (February 22, 2016). *Campus Sexual Assault: A Systematic Review of Prevalence Research From 2000 to 2015. Trauma, Violence, Abuse. (Published Online).*

Sexual assault is a pervasive problem on university and college campuses in the United States that has garnered growing national attention, particularly in the past year. This is the first study to systematically review and synthesize prevalence findings from studies on campus sexual assault (CSA) published since 2000 (n. 34). The range of prevalence findings for specific forms of sexual victimization on college campuses (i.e., forcible rape, unwanted sexual contact, incapacitated rape, sexual coercion, and studies' broad definitions of CSA/rape) is provided, and methodological strengths and limitations in the empirical body of research on CSA are discussed. Prevalence findings, research design, methodology, sampling techniques, and measures, including the forms of sexual victimization measured, are presented and evaluated across studies. Findings suggest that unwanted sexual contact appears to be most prevalent on college campuses, including sexual coercion, followed by incapacitated rape, and completed or attempted forcible rape. Additionally, several studies measured broad constructs of sexual assault that typically include combined forms of college-based sexual victimization (i.e., forcible completed or attempted rape, unwanted sexual contact, and/or sexual coercion). Extensive variability exists within findings for each type of sexual victimization measured, including those that broadly measure sexual assault, which is largely explained by differences in sampling strategies and overall study designs as well as measures of sexual assault used in studies. Implications for findings and recommendations for future research on the prevalence of college-based sexual victimization are provided.

Fisher, B. S., Daigle, L. E., and F. T. Cullen. (2008). "Rape Against Women: What Can Research Offer to Guide the Development of Prevention Programs and Risk Reduction Interventions?" *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice* 24 (2): 163-177.

Although a pervasive problem that confronts females of all races and ages, studies show that some women are more likely to be rape victims than are others. Research reveals that certain behavioral and situational factors increase the risk of rape. To be most effective at reducing victimization, rape prevention programs and risk reduction interventions should target these behavioral and situational factors. A growing understanding of the relationships among these factors is evident, but to date what works to reduce vulnerability to rape remains somewhat obscure because of methodological weaknesses inherent in the limited number of published evaluations. Based on the current body of research, the authors offer suggestions regarding who should be targeted and what content should be included in rape prevention programs and risk reduction interventions to effectively reduce rape and its negative consequences.

Fisher, B.S., H.M. Karjane, F.T. Cullen, K.R. Blevins, Santana, S. A., and L.E. Daigle. 2007. "Reporting Sexual Assault and the Clery Act: Situating Findings from the National Campus Sexual Assault Policy Study within College Women's Experiences." In *Campus Crime: Legal, Social, and Policy Perspectives*, 65–86. Springfield: Charles C. Thomas Publisher Ltd.

Fisher, B. S., Daigle, L. E., and F. T. Cullen. (2010). *Unsafe in the Ivory Tower: The Sexual Victimization of College Women*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

This book examines the nature and dimensions of a salient social problem—the sexual victimization of female college students today, and how women respond when they are, in fact, sexually victimized. The authors discuss the research that scholars have conducted to illuminate the origins and extent of this controversial issue as well as what can be done to prevent it. Students and other interested readers

learn about the nature of victimization while simultaneously gaining an understanding of the ways in which criminologists, victimologists, and social scientists conduct research that informs theory and policy debates.

Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., and M. G. Turner, M. G. (2000). "The Sexual Victimization of College Women." Washington: U.S. Department of Justice.

The National College Women Sexual Victimization (NCVS) study attempted to build on and surmount the limitations of existing research on the sexual victimization of college students. In addition to the study of sexual victimization, the study investigated how rape estimates that use the two-stage process of behaviorally specific questions and incident reports compared with estimates drawn from survey responses. The study results were based on a telephone survey of a randomly selected national sample of 4,446 college women in 1996. Twelve types of sexual victimization, from completed rape through stalking and verbal forms of sexual victimization, were studied. Survey responses suggest that many students encounter sexist and harassing comments and that many have a good chance of being stalked or enduring some form of coerced sexual contact. During any given academic year, 2.8% of women will experience a completed or attempted rape. Study results also show that a methodology that uses behaviorally specific screen questions in combination with an incident report yields considerably higher estimates of completed, attempted, and threatened rape than are found using the telephone methodology of NCVS. Most sexual victimization occurred when college women were alone with a man they know, at night, and in the privacy of a residence. Several factors appeared to increase the likelihood of being victimized.

Fisher, B. S., Daigle, L. E., Cullen, F. T., and M. G. Turner. (2003). "Reporting sexual victimization to the police and others results from a national-level study of college women." *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 30 (1): 6-38.

Beginning with Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski's pathbreaking study, the sexual victimization of female college students has emerged as salient research and policy concern. Building on this earlier work, we used a national, random sample of 4,446 female college students to focus on an issue of continuing importance: the level and determinants of victims' willingness to report their sexual victimization. The analysis revealed that although few incidents—including rapes—are reported to the police and/or to campus authorities, a high proportion are disclosed to someone else (mainly to friends). Incidents were more likely to be reported to the police when they had characteristics that made them more "believable" (e.g., presence of a weapon or assailant who was a stranger). The use of alcohol and/or drugs by offenders and/or victims had a unique effect, causing students to be more likely to disclose their victimization to friends but not to campus authorities. The implications of the findings for extant debates and for future research are also explored.

Flack, W. F., Kimble, M. O., Campbell, B. E., Hopper, A. B., Petercă, O., and E. J. Heller. (2015). "Sexual Assault Victimization Among Female Undergraduates During Study Abroad A Single Campus Survey Study." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 30 (20): 3453-3466.

Almost all research on sexual assault victimization among undergraduate university students pertains to incidents that occur on domestic college and university campuses. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the prevalence of sexual assault victimization and related factors among undergraduates in the context of study-abroad programs. Two hundred eight female students (52% response rate) from a small university in the northeastern United States who had recently studied abroad responded to an

online survey containing measures of sexual assault, posttraumatic stress responses (PSR), and alcohol consumption. Almost 19% of the respondents indicated one or more types of sexual assault victimization. Approximately 17% reported non-consensual sexual touching, 7% attempted rape, 4% rape, with 9% reporting attempted rape or rape. As in domestic studies, victimization in this sample was related positively to alcohol consumption and PSR. Use of force was the most frequently reported perpetrator tactic. In sum, the high rates of sexual assault victimization reported by this sample during study abroad replicate previous findings. This context requires further attention from sexual assault researchers, especially given the increasing numbers of university students engaging in study abroad, and from campus support personnel who may be unaware of the likelihood of assault in this context.

Flack, W. F. et. al. (2008). ““The Red Zone”: Temporal Risk for Unwanted Sex Among College Students.” *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 23 (9): 1177-1196.

The “red zone” usually refers to the first few weeks of the first semester at college, when female students are believed to be at greatest risk for experiencing unwanted sex. We tested this notion using data from a survey study of 207 first- and second-year students (121 women, 84 men) at a small, liberal arts university. Results demonstrated only one significant elevation in incidence rates of first- and second-year women’s unwanted sexual experiences (sexual touching, attempted and completed anal, oral, and vaginal sex), between the end of the first month and fall break (mid-October) during the second year at school. Previous research and local information about the relevant behaviors of sorority and fraternity members is discussed in light of these findings to provide heuristic material for further empirical testing. Because risk may involve both temporal and situational factors, systematic collection and dissemination of local data are recommended.

Fleck-Henderson, A. 2012. “Beyond Title IX: Guidelines for Preventing and Responding to Gender-Based Violence in Higher Education.” San Francisco. <https://www.futureswithoutviolence.org/userfiles/file/PublicCommunications/beyondtitleIXfinal.pdf>

Forst, L. S., Lightfoot, J. T., and A. Burrichter. (1996). “Familiarity with Sexual Assault and Its Relationship to the Effectiveness of Acquaintance Rape Prevention Programs.” *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice* 12 (1): 28-44.

This study examined the effectiveness of two rape prevention programs on rape-supportive beliefs among college students. The effectiveness was examined in terms of whether or not the students knew someone who had been sexually assaulted, knew someone who had committed a sexual assault, or were themselves a victim of sexual assault. The participants were divided into three groups. One group participated in a didactic rape prevention program involving primarily lecture and video instruction. The second group participated in an experiential rape prevention program utilizing improvisational theater. The third group was the control group. The 55 participants completed two attitude scales developed by Burt (1980): Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (ASB) and Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA). They then participated in their workshop and took the attitude scales again as a post-treatment test Two weeks later, the participants took a follow-up post-treatment test using the same attitude scales. Participants who had been victims of sexual assault scored significantly lower than non-victims in the ASB and RMA across all groups. It was also found that participants who had any previous experience with sexual assault, such as familiarity with a victim or an offender, scored significantly lower in rape-supportive beliefs after participating in the didactic program than participants who had no previous experience with sexual assault.

Foubert, J. D., Godin, E. E., and J. L. Tatum. (2010). "In Their Own Words: Sophomore College Men Describe Attitude and Behavior Changes Resulting From a Rape Prevention Program 2 Years After Their Participation." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 25 (12): 2237-2257.

The study conducted involved assessing students from a Southeastern public university during two academic years, after their participation in an all-male sexual assault peer education program. The study findings revealed that 79% of 184 college men reported attitude change, behavior change, or both. Furthermore, a multistage inductive analysis revealed that after seeing The Men's Program, men intervened to prevent rapes from happening. Participants also modified their behavior to avoid committing sexual assault when they or a potential partner were under the influence of alcohol. Implications for future research were discussed.

Foubert, J. D., Newberry, J. T., and J. L. Tatum. (2008). "Behavior Differences Seven Months Later: Effects of a Rape Prevention Program." *NASPA Journal* 44 (4): 728-749.

First-year men at a midsized public university either saw a rape prevention program or were in a control group and were asked to complete attitude and behavior surveys at the beginning and end of an academic year. Participants were also asked whether they joined fraternities during that year. With 90% of first-year men participating throughout the duration of the study, results showed that men who joined fraternities during the year and had seen a rape prevention program at the beginning of the academic year were significantly less likely to commit a sexually coercive act during the year than control group men who joined fraternities. Long-term attitude change was also associated with program participation. Results are discussed regarding effective program strategies for educating fraternity men about rape on college campuses.

Foubert, J. D., and E. A. Cowell. (2004). "Perceptions of a Rape Prevention Program by Fraternity Men and Male Student Athletes: Powerful Effects and Implications for Changing Behavior." *NASPA Journal* 42 (1): 1-20.

The purpose of this qualitative inquiry was to determine fraternity men and student athletes' perceptions of a commonly used rape-prevention program. Participants saw "The Men's Program" and then participated in 60–90 minute focus groups assessing whether their attitudes and behavior would change, what about the program led to that change, and what improvements they recommended. After seeing this peer education program that included a video describing a male-on-male rape experience, participants reported increased empathy with rape survivors, an increased ability to help survivors recover, and several areas where they planned to change their behavior. Areas of planned change included behavior in intimate encounters and responding to survivors by believing their stories. Participants suggested a stronger emphasis on alcohol and consent and a less intense plea to help change social norms. Several implications for student affairs generalists and rape prevention programmers are discussed.

Franklin, C. A. (2010). "The Effect of Victim Attitudes and Behaviors on Sexual Assault Victimization Severity: An Examination of University Women." *Women & Criminal Justice* 20 (3): 239-262.

The current study investigates a number of theoretically relevant victim characteristics to determine their impact on sexual assault victimization severity. Ordinary least squares regression analysis of survey responses from a sample of 204 university women indicated significant relationships between many of the variables of interest and increases in victimization severity. In particular, risk-taking behavior, delayed victim response strategies to sexual risk, increased number of lifetime sexual partners, and more frequent exposure to pornographic media significantly correlated with increasingly more severe forms of sexual assault. Future research directions and policy implications are discussed. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

“Gender-Based Analysis: Perception Report.” 2013. Ottawa: OCTEVAW. <http://www.octevaw-cocvff.ca/sites/default/files/OCTEVAW-Needs-Assessment.pdf>

Gerrits, B., and R. Runyon. 2015. **“We Believe in a Campus Free of Sexual Violence: Lessons from Campus Sexual Violence Prevention Leaders.”** Kingston: OPIRG. <http://opirgkingston.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/We-Believe-Report-In-A-Campus-Free-Of-Sexual-Violence.pdf>.

Gidycz, C. A., and C. M. Dardis. (2014). **“Feminist Self-Defense and Resistance Training for College Students: A Critical Review and Recommendations for the Future.”** *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 14 (4): 322-333.

There remains resistance to feminist self-defense and resistance training programming for women, despite (a) documented effectiveness of rape resistance strategies in avoiding rape, (b) consistently high rates of sexual victimization on college campuses, and (c) limited evidence of lasting change in sexual assault perpetration reduction within existing men’s prevention programs. The current article seeks to discuss (1) the rationale for feminist self-defense and resistance training for women, (2) key components of feminist self-defense and resistance training, (3) barriers to its implementation, (4) outcomes of self-defense and resistance training programming, and (5) recommendations for future work. Such suggestions include increasing funding for large-scale self-defense and rape resistance outcome research to examine program effectiveness. Specifically, outcome research that examines the role of contextual factors (e.g., alcohol use) and women’s victimization histories is needed. Finally, self-defense training and resistance training should be combined with bystander intervention and men’s programs with the goal of providing synergistic effects on rape reduction.

Gidycz, C. A., Orchowski, L. M., and A. D. Berkowitz. (2011). **“Preventing Sexual Aggression Among College Men: An Evaluation of a Social Norms and Bystander Intervention Program.”** *Violence Against Women* 17 (6): 720-742.

Men and women living in randomly selected 1st-year dormitories participated in tailored single-sex sexual assault prevention or risk-reduction programs, respectively. An evaluation of the men’s project is presented ($N = 635$). The program incorporated social norms and bystander intervention education and had an impact on self-reported sexual aggression and an effect on men’s perceptions that their peers would intervene when they encountered inappropriate behaviour in others. Relative to the control group, participants also reported less reinforcement for engaging in sexually aggressive behaviour, reported fewer associations with sexually aggressive peers, and indicated less exposure to sexually explicit media.

Gillum, T. L. (2014). **“Reconceptualizing Prevention of Violence Against Women on College Campuses: Response to Victoria Banyard’s Actualizing the Potential of Primary Prevention: A Research Agenda.”** *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 15 (4): 352-357.

Research is clear that violence against college women is a problem that warrants alternative prevention approaches to addressing and reducing its prevalence and creating safer campuses for women and men. Banyard’s presentation gave us food for thought as we consider what such novel approaches may look like. New and innovative approaches that are multifaceted, comprehensive, and informed by theory are key. The ecological model can inform our understanding of the issue, the risk and protective factors associated, and the design and implementation of prevention efforts. It is critically important to engage college students in these efforts to create interventions that are culturally appropriate for college students. We must also meet students where they are, utilizing social marketing campaigns and capitalizing on social media and the use of communication technologies. Together, such efforts will facilitate our ultimate goal of reducing, if not eliminating, violence against women on college campuses.

Gonzales, A. R., Schofield, R. B., and G. R. Schmitt. (2005). "Sexual Assault on Campus: What Colleges and Universities Doing About It?" Washington: National Institute of Justice.

"It's Never Okay: An action Plan to Stop Sexual Violence and Harassment." (2015). Ottawa: Government of Ontario. <http://docs.files.ontario.ca/documents/4136/mi-2003-svhap-report-en-for-tagging-final-2-up-s.pdf>

Gottlieb, I. (2008). *Sexual violence prevention on college campus as a Clery Act requirement: Perceptions from the field. California: University of Southern California*

In the past decade violence on college campuses and, specifically, sexual violence have been widely recognized as a significant and persistent problem. Multiple studies have been conducted on the prevalence, incidence, causes, and effects of this type of violence nationwide. This problem also has been addressed through national education policy and legislation. The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act has been a major event in this policy and a separate target of research on its own. However, no studies up to date have comprehensively studied what colleges do to meet the requirements of the Clery Act and to reduce crime on their respective campuses. This study analyzed student affairs professionals' awareness and perceptions of existing sexual violence prevention programs. It was sought to determine patterns in the professionals' perceptions based on the respondents' gender, years in the field, and other relevant characteristics. The study was guided by two main research questions: (1) What sexual violence prevention programs do student affairs professionals perceive as most effective? and (2) Is there any pattern in student affairs professionals' perceptions of violence prevention programs, based on their gender, years in the field, professional level, unit in which they work, and size, type, and geographic location of the institution and perceptions of violence on campus as a problem? A nationwide web-based survey was used to conduct this study. The results indicated that orientation for incoming students, self-defense programs, rallies/speak-outs, and distribution of brochures and other promotional materials were perceived to be most effective for sexual violence prevention on campus. Additionally, participants with less work experience, employed in entry-level positions at 2-year, commuter, and smaller-sized institutions demonstrated a greater preference for more traditional risk reduction and mass-printed information distribution programs than did their counterparts employed at larger residential and 4-year colleges, who had more professional experience and/or authority. The results present important implications for violence-related education and the types of colleges that need targeted funding to provide such an education, as well as for improving institutions' efforts in violence and crime prevention.

Greenson, M. R., and R. Campbell. (2013). "Sexual Assault Response Teams (SARTs): An Empirical Review of Their Effectiveness and Challenges to Successful Implementation." *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 14 (2): 83-95.

Historically, the response of the legal, medical, and mental health/advocacy systems to sexual assault has been inadequate and uncoordinated. To address this problem, communities have developed coordinated sexual assault response teams (SARTs) to address these problems. SARTs are community-level interventions that seek to build positive relationships and increase collaboration among sexual assault responders. SARTs hope to improve both the community response to sexual assault victims and the processing of sexual assault cases through the criminal justice system. This article has three aims: to summarize the historical development of SARTs in the United States, to review the empirical literature on SARTs' effectiveness at improving multidisciplinary relationships, legal outcomes, and victims' help-seeking experiences; and to review the empirical literature on the challenges SARTs face, which may hamper their effectiveness. Findings suggest that SARTs are a promising practice, but face many

challenges; further methodologically rigorous research is needed to more fully understand these interventions. Implications for policy, practice, and future research are discussed.

Grimmett, J., McCool, A., and C. Alzuru. (2015). "Guidance for Creating College and University Domestic Violence, Dating Violence, Stalking, and Sexual Violence Prevention and Intervention Programs and Policies for Students." Durham: North Carolina Coalition Against Domestic Violence. http://nccadv.org/images/pdfs/NCCADV_Model_College-University-IPV-Stalking-SV_Policy.pdf

This document, the Guidance, is one of two documents prepared by the North Carolina Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCCADV) and serves as a general guide for colleges and universities as they develop their domestic violence, dating violence, stalking, and sexual violence policies. The Template is the second document, a supplement to the Guidance, and includes a recommended layout and language for the policy itself. Institutions are at varying stages of their policy development. These documents are comprehensive and therefore will serve institutions differently. Institutions that are at the beginning stages may be more likely to adopt the entire template, whereas institutions that have recently written or updated their policies may be more likely to view these documents as additional guidance and/or suggestions.

Gross, A. M., Winslett, A., Roberts, M., and C. L. Gohm. (2006). "An examination of sexual violence against college women." *Violence Against Women* 12 (3): 288-300.

This investigation examined college women's experiences with unwanted sexual contact. Participants completed a questionnaire assessing the incidence of various types of forced sexual contact the women had experienced since enrolling in college. Demographic and situational variables associated with these incidents of sexual violence were also obtained. It was observed that since enrolling in college, 27% of the sample had experienced unwanted sexual contact ranging from kissing and petting to oral, anal, or vaginal intercourse. Type of sexual violence, perpetrator characteristics, and racial differences regarding types of unwanted sexual contact were examined. The implications of the data are discussed.

Gunraj, A., Wandio, C., Abdullah, S., Komiotis, W., Marshall, P., Mustachi, J., Rahim, C., and T. Witelson. (2014). "Sexual assault policies on campus: A discussion paper." Toronto, Ontario: METRAC Action on Violence.

Harrison, J., G. Lafrenière, and L. S. Hallman. 2015. "University Campuses Ending Gendered Violence Final Report & Recommendations." Waterloo: Wilfred Laurier University. http://www.sascwr.org/files/www/change_project/The_Change_Project_Laurier_Final_Report_01_09.pdf

Holcomb, D. R., Savage, M. P., Seehafer, R., and D. M. Waalkes. (2002). "A mixed-gender date rape prevention intervention targeting freshmen college athletes." *College Student Journal* 36 (2): 165-179.

This paper describes the evaluation of a mixed-gender workshop given to all freshman athletes from a large eastern university. A randomized post-test only experimental design was used to compare the date rape attitudes of freshman athletes who were exposed to a mixed-gender date rape workshop (n = 56) with those of athletes who were not exposed (n = 85). A previously validated instrument, the 25 item Date Rape Attitudes Survey (DRAS) was used as the criterion measure. Three hypotheses were tested with the following results: (1) men athletes reported attitudes that were more tolerant of date rape than those reported by women athletes (i.e., the men were more likely to condone date rape), (2) freshmen athletes in the control group reported attitudes that were more tolerant of date rape than those reported by athletes in the treatment group. The third hypothesis which was tested but not supported was that men athletes did not exhibit a greater program effect than women athletes. Finally,

the authors discuss implications of the study and offer recommendations for future date rape prevention programs.

Hollander, J. A. (2014). "Does Self-Defense Training Prevent Sexual Violence Against Women?" *Violence Against Women* 20 (3): 252-269.

Self-defense classes are offered across the nation as a strategy for reducing women's vulnerability to sexual assault. Yet there has been little systematic research assessing the effectiveness of these classes. In this article, I use data from a mixed methods study of a 10-week, university-based, feminist self-defense class to examine the effectiveness of self-defense training over a 1-year follow-up period. My analyses indicate that women who participate in self-defense training are less likely to experience sexual assault and are more confident in their ability to effectively resist assault than similar women who have not taken such a class.

Holmes, D. (2006). "Redressing the Balance: Canadian University Programs in Support of Aboriginal Students." Ottawa: Association of the Universities and Colleges of Canada.

Hong, L. (2000). "Toward a Transformed Approach to Prevention: Breaking the Link Between Masculinity and Violence." *Journal of American College Health* 48 (6): 269-279.

Men are disproportionately overrepresented among both perpetrators and victims of violent crime. Scholars from the men's studies movement have documented a clear link between socialization into stereotypical norms of hegemonic masculinity and an increased risk for experiencing violence. Despite this evidence, most campus prevention programs fail to recognize the link between men and violence and use only traditional approaches to violence prevention. The most that on-campus prevention programs provide are self-defense seminars for potential female victims of rape and general campus safety measures. In this article, the author describes a comprehensive, transformed approach to violence prevention. Data from a year-long case study of Men Against Violence, a peer education organization at a large university in the South, demonstrate the feasibility of meaningfully expanding male students' conceptions of manhood and appropriate gender roles and, thus, reducing the likelihood of men's engaging in sexually or physically violent behavior.

Humphrey, S. E., and A. S. Kahn. (2000). "Fraternities, Athletic Teams, and Rape." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 15 (12): 1313-1322.

This study examined the relationship between sexual assault and membership in high-risk fraternities and athletic teams. Although past research has identified fraternities and athletic teams as high-risk groups for sexual assault, the findings have been inconclusive. Based on student perceptions, we separated fraternities and athletic teams into high-risk and low-risk groups. A survey of 182 male students, including those who were members of three fraternities and five athletic teams as well as nonmembers, indicated that the high-risk groups scored significantly higher than the low-risk groups on measures of sexual aggression, hostility toward women, and male peer support endorsing sexual aggression. These findings showed that some fraternity or athletic team members are more likely to commit sexual assault than males in the general student population, but this is not true for all such groups. The results help explain inconsistencies reported by previous researchers.

"Improving the Police Response to Sexual Assault. Washington: Police Executive Research Forum." 2012. Washington: Police Executive Research Forum. http://www.policeforum.org/assets/docs/Critical_Issues_Series/improving%20the%20police%20response%20to%20sexual%20assault%202012.pdf

Intons-Peterson, M. J., Roskos-Ewoldsen, B., Thomas, L., Shirley, M., and D. Blut. (1989). "Will Educational Materials Reduce Negative Effects of Exposure to Sexual Violence?" *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology* 8 (3): 256-275.

To study the effects of information designed to dissociate violence from sexuality on attitudes toward sexual violence, we constructed two brief films about the importance of concern for one's sexual partner and about the impact of rape on its victims. Both films were intended to modify mechanisms hypothesized to underlie associations between violence and sexuality by increasing sensitivity toward violent behavior and reducing aggressive tendencies associated with sexual cues. One of these films, or no informational film, was presented before showing one third of each group a commercial film that depicted sexual violence, nonviolent sexuality, or nonviolent, nonsexual material. Compared to the unbriefed group, the briefed groups showed a significant decline in beliefs in rape myths. They also reported greater empathy toward an alleged victim of rape, a greater tendency to find the accused assailant guilty, greater sensitivity to filmed violence against women, and greater physiological-emotional repulsion to filmed violence.

Karjane, H. K., Fisher, B. S., and F. T. Cullen. (1999). *Campus sexual assault: How America's institutions of higher education respond*. Newton, MA: Education Development Center, Inc. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/196676.pdf>

On November 1, 1999, the National Institute of Justice awarded a grant to Education Development Center, Inc., and its partners (University of Cincinnati and Police Executive Research Forum) to carry out a Congressionally mandated study of the responses of institutions of higher education (IHEs) to reports of campus sexual assaults.

Karp, D. R., Shackford-Bradley, J., Wilson, R. J., and K. M. Williamsen. (2016). "CAMPUS PRISM: A Report on Promoting Restorative Initiative for Sexual Misconduct on College Campuses." New York: Saratoga Springs.

Restorative justice (RJ) encompasses a range of processes, programs, practices, and policies as well as a philosophical perspective that offers a new approach to addressing the problem of sexual and gender-based misconduct on college campuses. A restorative approach is responsive to individual incidents of misconduct as well as to the broader cultural contexts that support such behaviour by offering non-adversarial options for prevention education, resolution, and pathways to safe and accountable reintegration. RJ offers interventions that focus on understanding the harm caused, how to repair harm, how to prevent its reoccurrence, and how to ensure safe communities. RJ offers a way to support survivors to heal from the trauma of victimization, while creating a space for offenders to be accountable for their actions and take steps to reduce their risk of reoffending. Restorative interventions are also used for community building to establish appropriate standards of sexual conduct on campus, reduce fear, and counteract the hostile climate often characterized as "rape culture." The Campus PRISM Project (Promoting Restorative Initiatives for Sexual Misconduct) includes an international team of researchers and practitioners who are deeply invested in reducing sexual and gender-based violence by exploring how a restorative approach may provide more healing and better accountability. The Project is coordinated by the Skidmore College Project on Restorative Justice.

Kaukinen, C. (2014). "Dating Violence Among College Students: The Risk and Protective Factors." *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 15 (4): 283-296.

The research review synthesizes the knowledge base on risk and protective factors for dating violence while highlighting its relevance to violence against college women. In particular, the review highlights the personal, family, relationship, and behavioral factors that heighten the risk of dating violence victimization and perpetration while also noting the methodological limitations of the current body of

empirical research and identifying directions for future academic work. Researchers have identified the correlation between risky health and behavioral factors and dating violence, most often modeling these as part of the etiology of dating violence among college students. Less often have scholars explored these as co-occurring risk factors. This approach to dating violence may be used to develop meaningful and impactful interventions to reduce the incidence and prevalence of college dating violence while also addressing the other health risk behaviors that impact academic success and place students' well-being at risk.

“Key Recommendations – McMaster Project: It’s Time to End Violence Against Women on Campus.” 2014. Hamilton: Sexual Assault Centre of Hamilton & Area & YWCA Hamilton.

Kinney, L. M., Bruns, E. J., Bradley, P., Dantzler, J., and M. D. Weist. (2008). “Sexual Assault Training of Law Enforcement Officers.” *Women & Criminal Justice* 18 (3): 81–100.

The importance of proper response to victims of sexual abuse or assault has been well documented. However, despite their prominence as responders, little research has been conducted on training law enforcement officials to conduct this aspect of their jobs effectively. We describe results of a statewide survey of the adequacy of law enforcement officers' preparation to respond to victims of sexual assault. Results revealed a significant need for greater training on the topic, as well as a number of potential positive impacts of additional training and education, including feelings of better preparation, greater collaboration with external resources, more likelihood of victim participation in investigation, and more cases being brought to prosecution. Based on the results, we present a model of proposed benefits of additional training for police officers in sexual assault.

Koss, M., Wilgus, J., and K. Williamsen. (2014). “Campus sexual misconduct: restorative justice approaches to enhance compliance with title ix guidance.” *Violence, Trauma & Abuse* 15 (2): 242-257.

Under the recent guidance in the Dear Colleague Letter [DCL] issued by the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights, institutions of higher education are responsible for addressing at least 42 types of sexual behavior with the goals of eliminating misconduct, preventing its recurrence, and remedying its effects. The DCL mandates a quasi-criminal justice, investigative and judicial response to sexual misconduct that is too narrow for the scope of sexual misconduct and the desired outcomes of institutional response. DCL guidance permits the use of restorative justice in student sexual misconduct cases in at least four ways: as a resolution process, as a victim impact process, as a sanctioning process, and as a reintegration process. Restorative justice resolution has been implemented for sexual misconduct with evidence of feasibility, safety, and justice satisfaction among participants. When implemented appropriately and effectively, restorative justice processes support the shared interest of victim survivors, institutions, the Office for Civil Rights, and student conduct professionals. Introducing innovative methods is a process that must be approached incrementally and be informed by the setting and its resources.

Koss, M., and M. Achilles. (2008). *Restorative Justice Responses to Sexual Assault*. VAWNet.org: National Resource Center on Violence Against Women. http://www.vawnet.org/assoc_files_vawnet/ar_restorativejustice.pdf

Koss, M. P. (1992). “The under detection of rape: Methodological choices influence incidence estimates.” *Journal of social issues* 48 (1): 61-75.

This paper discusses the extent of rape in the U.S. today, including a critical analysis of federal and independent sources of incidence data. Rape incidence estimates derived from the National Crime Survey (NCS) are flawed because of measurement methods that undermine full disclosure of

victimization. Conclusions include (a) the incidence of rape is much higher than federal statistics suggest, but data are insufficient to resolve whether an epidemic is underway, (b) acquaintance rape is far more common than documented in crime surveys, and (c) improvement in rape detection is promised by the proposed revisions in the NCS.

Koss, M. P., Gidycz, C. A., and N. Wisniewski. (1987). "The scope of rape: incidence and prevalence of sexual aggression and victimization in a national sample of higher education students." *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 55 (2): 162.

Because of inadequacies in the methods used to measure sexual assault, national crime statistics, criminal victimization studies, convictions, or incarceration rates fail to reflect the true scope of rape. Studies that have avoided the limitations of these methods have revealed very high rates of overt rape and lesser degrees of sexual aggression. The goal of the present study was to extend previous work to a national basis. The Sexual Experiences Survey was administered to a national sample of 6,159 women and men enrolled in 32 institutions representative of the diversity of higher education settings across the United States. Women's reports of experiencing and men's reports of perpetrating rape, attempted rape, sexual coercion, and sexual contact were obtained, including both the rates of prevalence since age 14 and of incidence during the previous year. The findings support published assertions of high rates of rape and other forms of sexual aggression among large normal populations. Although the results are limited in generalizability to postsecondary students, this group represents 26% of all persons aged 18–24 in the United States.

Krakauer, John. (2015). *Missoula: Rape and the justice system in a college town*. New York: Doubleday.

Krebs, C. P., Lindquist, C. H., Crosby, C., Boyd, C., and Y. Bogan. (2011). "The Sexual Assault of Undergraduate Women at Historically Black Colleges and Universities." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26 (18): 3640-3666.

Although research has shown that undergraduate women are at high risk for experiencing sexual assault, little research has been conducted with undergraduate women who are attending a historically Black college or university (HBCU). The purpose of this research is to document the prevalence of different types of sexual assault among undergraduate women at HBCUs and make comparisons to data collected from undergraduate women at non-HBCUs. Data on sexual assault victimization were collected from 3,951 undergraduate women at HBCUs using a cross-sectional, web-based survey. These data are compared to data collected from 5,446 undergraduate women at non-HBCUs using the same research methods. Findings indicate that approximately 9.7% of undergraduate women at HBCUs report experiencing a completed sexual assault since entering college. This rate is considerably lower than the comparable rate obtained from undergraduate women at non-HBCUs (13.7%). This difference seems to be associated with differences in alcohol-use frequency. Perhaps undergraduate women at HBCUs drink alcohol much less frequently and are thus less likely to be sexually assaulted when they are incapacitated and unable to provide consent. Alcohol use frequency, while controlling for other factors, seems to have an independent association with the likelihood of an undergraduate woman being sexually assaulted. The implications for the creation and delivery of sexual assault risk reduction and prevention policies and programs are discussed.

Krebs, C. P., Lindquist, C. H., Warner, T. D., Fisher, B. S., and S. L. Martin. (2009). "College women's experiences with physically forced, alcohol-or other drug-enabled, and drug-facilitated sexual assault before and since entering college." *Journal of American College Health* 57 (6): 639-649.

Research has shown associations between college women's alcohol and/or drug consumption and the risk of sexual assault, but few studies have measured the various means by which sexual assault is achieved. Participants: The authors' Campus Sexual Assault Study obtained self-report data from a random sample of undergraduate women (N = 5,446). The authors collected data on sexual assault victimization by using a cross-sectional, Web-based survey, and they conducted analyses assessing the role of substance use. The authors also compared victimizations before and during college, and across years of study. Findings indicate that almost 20% of undergraduate women experienced some type of completed sexual assault since entering college. Most sexual assaults occurred after women voluntarily consumed alcohol, whereas few occurred after women had been given a drug without their knowledge or consent. Conclusions: The authors discuss implications for campus sexual assault prevention programs, including the need for integrated substance

Krebs, C. P., Lindquist, C. H., Warner, T. D., Fisher, B. S., and S. L. Martin. (2007). "The Campus Sexual Assault (CSA) Study." Washington: National Institute of Justice.

Sexual assault is a public health and public safety problem with far-reaching implications. Although a substantial body of research on sexual assault exists, additional data are needed to help document the current magnitude of the problem, the extent to which certain subpopulations are impacted, the consequences and reporting (or non-reporting) of victimization incidents, and strategies for preventing and reducing the risk of sexual assault and effectively responding to victims. One subpopulation that is often believed to be at elevated risk for sexual assault is college students. RTI International (RTI) was funded by the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) to conduct the Campus Sexual Assault (CSA) Study, which is a study of various types of sexual assault experienced by university students.

Kress, V. E., Shepherd, J. B., Anderson, R. I., Petuch, A. J., Nolan, J. M., and D. Thiemeke. (2006). "Evaluation of the Impact of a Coeducational Sexual Assault Prevention Program on College Students' Rape Myth Attitudes." *Journal of College Counseling* 9 (2): 148-157.

The authors examined the impact of a mandatory, coeducational sexual assault prevention program on college freshmen's rape myth attitudes. Data from 174 college freshmen required to attend the program indicated that, regardless of gender, the proposed sexual assault prevention program significantly decreased participants' rape myth acceptance attitudes. Implications of the findings for college counselors and directions for future research are discussed.

Kress, V. E. W. (2003). "Responding to sexual assault victims: considerations for college counselors." *Journal of College Counseling* 6 (2): 124-133.

College counselors need to be informed of effective interventions when counseling students who have been sexually assaulted. This article applies research and theory from the general literature on counseling sexual assault victims to college counselors' work with this population. An overview of the effects of sexual assault is followed by specific implications for counseling students who have been sexually assaulted.

Lalonde, J. S. (2014). "From Reaction to Preventing: Addressing Sexual Violence on Campus by Engaging Community Partners." Ottawa: University of Ottawa.
<https://www.uottawa.ca/president/sites/www.uottawa.ca.president/files/task-force-report-appendix-1-from-reacting-to-preventing.pdf>

Langdon, T. (2012). *Violence and Accessibility: Increasing Safety for Women with Disabilities on Campus*. Toronto: Springtide Resources.

Langer, L. M., Warheit, G. L., and L. P. McDonald. (2001). "Correlates and predictors of risky sexual practices among a multi-racial/ethnic sample of university students." *Social Behaviour and Personality* 29 (2): 133-144.

This research identifies the correlates and predictors of risky sexual behaviors among an ethnically diverse multiethnic sample of college students attending a large state university in the southeastern U.S. (N=338). Nine risk and five protective factors served as independent predictive factors in the analyses. The dependent variable was scores on a risky sexual behaviors scale. Six of the nine risk factors and four of the five protective factors were significantly correlated with scores on the risky sexual behaviors scale. Regression analyses identified six significant predictors of risky sexual practices: number of partners in last six months; religious values; condom attitudes; age at first sex; bingeing on alcohol; and residential locus. These terms explained 29.4% of the total variance in risky sexual behavior scores. Implications for prevention programs and future research are noted.

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, L., Foubert, J. D., Brasfield, H. M., Hill, B., and S. Shelley-Tremblay. (2011). "The Men's Program: Does It Impact College Men's Self-Reported Bystander Efficacy and Willingness to Intervene?" *Violence Against Women* 17 (6): 743-759.

This study considered whether a rape prevention program could reduce men's rape myth acceptance, enhance the perceived effectiveness of college men's bystander behaviour, and increase men's willingness to intervene as bystanders in potentially dangerous situations. As predicted, college men who experienced The Men's Program significantly increased their self-reported willingness to help as a bystander and their perceived bystander efficacy in comparison to college men who experienced the comparison condition. Men's Program participants also significantly decreased their self-reported rape myth acceptance in comparison with comparison condition participants. The college policy and rape prevention program planning implications of these findings are discussed.

Levenson, J. S., and D. D'Amora. (2007). "Social Policies Designed to Prevent Sexual Violence: The Emperor's New Clothes?" *Criminal Justice Policy Review* 18 (2) 168-199.

Sex crimes provoke fear and anger among citizens, leading to the development of social policies designed to prevent sexual violence. The most common policies passed in recent years have included sex offender registration, community notification (Megan's Law), residence restrictions, civil commitment, and electronic monitoring. This article reviews the history of current sexual offender policies, their development, and their implementation. These policies do not appear to be evidence based in their development and implementation because they are founded largely on myths rather than on facts. Little empirical investigation has been conducted to evaluate sex offender policies, but extant research does not suggest that these policies achieve their goals of preventing sex crimes, protecting children, or increasing public safety. The authors make recommendations for more effective legislative solutions, including enlisting media in the promulgation of evidence-based information, creating policies that use risk assessment strategies to identify high risk offenders, and facilitating a more efficient distribution of resources that reserves the most intensive restrictions and interventions for the most dangerous offenders.

Levin, S. 2016. "Sexual Harassment Training May Have Reverse Effect, Research Suggests." *The Guardian*, May 2. http://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2016/may/02/sexual-harassment-training-failing-women?CMP=share_btn_fb

Levin, S. 2016. "UC Berkeley students to file state sexual harassment complaint against professor." *The Guardian*, April 10. <http://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2016/apr/10/uc-berkeley-students-professor-sexual-harassment-complaint>

Levin, S. 2016. "Disturbing details of sexual harassment scandal at UC Berkeley revealed in files," *The Guardian*, April 7. <http://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2016/apr/06/uc-berkeley-staff-sexual-harassment-scandal>

Lichty, L.F., Campbell, R., and J. Schuiteman. (2008). "Developing a university-wide institutional response to sexual assault and relationship violence." *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community* 36 (1): 5-22.

This article presents a process case study for developing a university-wide response to sexual assault and relationship violence. Following Kelly's (1988) approach to prevention work in community-settings, we began our work with in-depth ecological reconnaissance to understand our local context. Our case study described the processes used to develop an inclusive task force, conduct an environmental scan, and carry out a quantitative-qualitative needs assessment. Our processes for developing an institutional response for both direct services interventions and prevention are discussed in the context of Kelly's (1966, 1968, 2006) ecological principles of interdependence and cycling of resources.

Lindquist, C.H., Crosby, C.M., Barrick, K., Krebs, C.P., and B. J. Settles-Reaves, B. J. (2016). "Disclosure of sexual assault experiences among undergraduate women at historically black colleges and universities." *Journal of American College Health*, April 26. (Published online).

To document the sexual assault disclosure experiences of Historically Black College or University (HBCU) students. Participants 3,951 female, undergraduate students at four HBCUs. Methods: All women at the participating schools were recruited in November 2008 to participate in a Web-based survey including both closed- and open-ended questions. Survey data were weighted for nonresponse bias. The majority of sexual assault survivors disclosed their experience to someone close to them, but disclosure to formal supports, particularly law enforcement agencies, was extremely rare. Non-reporters had concerns about the seriousness of the incident and their privacy. On the basis of qualitative data, strategies identified by students to increasing reporting included more education and awareness about sexual assault, more survivor services and alternative mechanisms for reporting, and better strategies for protecting the confidentiality of survivors. Official sexual assault victimization data are of limited utility in conveying the extent of sexual assault among HBCU students and efforts to increase reporting, such as peer education and enhanced confidentiality procedures, are needed.

Linz, D., Wilson, B. J., and E. Donnerstein. (1992). "Sexual Violence in the Mass Media: Legal Solutions, Warnings, and Mitigation Through Education." *Journal of Social Issues* 48 (1): 145-171.

Depictions of sexual violence in the media can promote antisocial attitudes and behaviour. Three approaches to the problem of sexual violence in the media are explored: (a) legal restrictions, (b) informational labeling, and (c) formal education. It is premature to advocate legal restrictions since existing research leaves too many questions unanswered. Informational labeling is not a viable solution because of problems inherent in the most widely used scheme, including the basic assumption that ratings should be based on what is offensive to parents rather than on what is assumed to be or known to be "harmful" to viewers. Research on educational interventions designed to mitigate the effects of exposure to sexual violence is discussed, and several promising procedures are identified.

Lippy, C. and S. DeGue. (2016). "Exploring Alcohol Policy Approaches to Prevent Sexual Violence Perpetration." *Trauma, Violence and Abuse* 17 (1): 26-42.

Sexual violence continues to be a significant public health problem worldwide with serious consequences for individuals and communities. The implementation of prevention strategies that address risk and protective factors for sexual violence at the community level are important components of a comprehensive approach, but few such strategies have been identified or evaluated. The current review explores one potential opportunity for preventing sexual violence perpetration at the community level: alcohol policy. Alcohol policy has the potential to impact sexual violence perpetration through the direct effects of excessive alcohol consumption on behavior or through the impact of alcohol and alcohol outlets on social organization within communities. Policies affecting alcohol pricing, sale time, outlet density, drinking environment, marketing, and college environment are reviewed to identify existing evidence of impact on rates of sexual violence or related outcomes, including risk factors and related health behaviors. Several policy areas with initial evidence of an association with sexual violence outcomes were identified, including policies affecting alcohol pricing, alcohol outlet density, barroom management, sexist content in alcohol marketing, and policies banning alcohol on campus and in substance-free dorms. We identify other policy areas with evidence of an impact on related outcomes and risk factors that may also hold potential as a preventative approach for sexual violence perpetration. Evidence from the current review suggests that alcohol policy may represent one promising avenue for the prevention of sexual violence perpetration at the community level, but additional research is needed to directly examine effects on sexual violence outcomes.

Littleton, H. (2014). "Interpersonal Violence on College Campuses: Understanding Risk Factors and Working to Find Solutions." *Trauma, Violence & Abuse* 15 (4) 297-303.

This commentary discusses the contributions of Drs. Antonia Abbey and Catherine Kaukinen to our understanding of risk factors for sexual and physical aggression among college students. Major contributions of their work are outlined. These include Abbey's contributions to our understanding of trajectories of sexually aggressive behavior among college men, risk factors for engaging in sexual aggression among men, and the role of alcohol in sexual aggression. In addition, Kaukinen's work has increased our understanding of the frequency of violence in college dating relationships as well as the association of violent relationships with health risk behaviors. Directions for future research are also outlined including a need to identify trajectories of violence risk as well as a need to understand the complex interrelationships among health risk behaviors and interpersonal violence. Finally, implications for practice and university policy are discussed, including a focus on the development of effective preventive strategies and proactive responses to violence.

Lonsway, K. A., Banyard, V. L., Berkowitz, A. D., Gidycz, C. A., and J. T. Katz. (2009). *Rape Prevention and Risk Reduction: Review of the Research Literature for Practitioners*. Harrisburg: VAWnet, a project of the National Resource Center on Domestic Violence/Pennsylvania Coalition Against Domestic Violence.

Preliminary research suggests that partner violence is a problem among lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, and questioning (LGBTQ) college youth. However, there is no study to date with college youth on the factors associated with perpetration of same-sex partner violence, which is needed to inform prevention efforts specific to this population. Thus, the purpose of the current study was to assess how facets of minority stress (i.e., sexual-orientation- related victimization, sexual minority stigma, internalized homonegativity, sexual identity concealment) relate to physical, sexual, and psychological partner violence perpetration among LGBTQ college youth (N = 391; 49 % identified as men; 72 % Caucasian; M age: 20.77 years). At the bivariate level, physical perpetration was related to identity concealment and internalized homonegativity; sexual perpetration was related to internalized

homonegativity; and psychological perpetration was related to sexual-orientation-related victimization. However, at the multivariate level (after controlling for concurrent victimization), psychological perpetration was unrelated to minority stress variables, whereas physical and sexual perpetration were both related to internalized homonegativity; physical perpetration was also related to identity concealment. These results underscore the utility of understanding partner violence among LGBTQ youth through a minority stress framework. Moreover, the current study highlights the need for a better understanding of factors that mediate and moderate the relationship between minority stress and partner violence perpetration among LGBTQ youth in order to inform prevention and intervention efforts.

Lonsway, K. A., Welch, S., and L. F. Fitzgerald. (2001). "Police training in sexual assault response process, outcomes, and elements of change." *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 28 (6): 695-730.

This study evaluates an experimental training program at a Midwestern police academy. In Study 1, one class of police recruits participated in a typical training protocol, and two classes attended the experimental program. Outcomes were compared with quantitative measures and qualitative analysis of performance in a simulated sexual assault interview. In Study 2, outcomes were assessed (a) before the experimental program, (b) after classroom instruction but before a simulated interview, (c) after classroom instruction and a simulated interview, and (d) after classroom instruction and two simulated interviews. Results suggest that specialized training is effective in improving behavioral performance but not cognitive or attitudinal outcomes. The conclusions highlight the importance of behaviorally focused training and evaluation.

Lord, V. B., AND G. Rassel. (2000). "Law enforcement's response to sexual assault: A comparative study of nine counties in North Carolina." *Women & Criminal Justice* 11 (1): 67-88.

After the major reforms of sexual assault laws between 1960 and 1975, a number of studies examined the changes in sexual assault reports to the police and the prosecution of these cases; however, little research has studied changes in law enforcement investigative procedures of sexual assault cases. This study examines the processes used in the investigation of sexual assault cases by police and sheriff departments in nine counties of North Carolina. The procedures of these departments are compared with a set of new practices identified as effective by Epstein and Langenbahn (1994). These practices, or reforms, include specialized sexual assault investigative units, in-house victim/witness advocates, acceptance of anonymous reports from victims who do not wish to prosecute, written procedures, multiple inter-views, confidentiality of the victim from the media, specialized training for investigators as well as patrol officers, and specific criteria for the selection of investigators. The law enforcement departments examined in the current study vary in their implementation of the reforms advocated by Epstein and Langenbahn. The relationships between specific characteristics of the departments and the community and the variation in implementation are not significant; however, the departments' association with the rape crisis centers in their communities is significantly related to the existence of written procedures, a specialized unit, and the use of blind reports. Sexual assault to some degree continues to focus on the issue of consent and the victims' behavior, but there does appear to be an increase in officers' sensitivity to victims' needs.

MacDonald, N. et. al. (1990). "High-Risk STD/HIV Behavior Among College Students." *JAMA* 263 (23): 3155-3159.

The current sexually transmitted disease (STD) epidemic in adolescents has led to concern about the potential for spread of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). In 1988, a total of 5514 students in first-year community college and university classrooms across Canada were surveyed to assess STD/HIV-related knowledge, attitudes, and risk behavior. The students' mean age was 19.7 years; the male-to-

female ratio was 1:1.4. Students knew more about HIV/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome than other STDs. Of the 74.3% of the men and 68.9% of the women who were coitally active, 14.3% of the men and 18.6% of the women had participated in anal intercourse and 5.5% reported a previous STD. Only 24.8% of the men and 15.6% of the women always used a condom during sexual intercourse. Among the 21.3% of the men and 8.6% of the women with 10 or more partners, regular condom use was reported in only 21% and 7.5%, respectively. In this subgroup, anal intercourse was practiced by 26.9% of the men and 34.8% of the women, and previous STD was reported by 10.6% and 24.2%, respectively. Factors associated with not using a condom included number of sexual partners, embarrassment about condom purchase, difficulty discussing condom use with a partner, use of oral contraceptives, insufficient knowledge of HIV/STDs, and the belief that condoms interfere with sexual pleasure. These factors are potentially amenable to change. Effective, behaviorally focused educational programs are needed to improve condom use and reduce STD/HIV risk.

Majury, D. et al. 2015. "Centre for Research & Education on Violence Against Women and Children: Annual Report 2014-2015."

http://www.learningtoendabuse.ca/sites/default/files/2014-2015_Annual_Report_final.pdf.

McMahon, S., Postmus, J. L., Warrener, C., Plummer, S., and R. Schwartz. (2013). "Evaluating the Effect of a Specialized MSW Course on Violence Against Women." *Journal of Social Work Education* 49 (2): 307-320.

In recent years, there has been an increased call to refine social work curricula to better prepare social workers to enter the field with the skills necessary to effectively respond to the needs of survivors of domestic violence and sexual assault. This study's purpose is to present the results of an evaluation of a newly developed, specialized social work course on violence against women to determine whether it positively impacts MSW students' attitudes, beliefs, and professional efficacy as compared to other courses. This study provides a description of the specialized course and presents the results of a quasi-experimental evaluation of the course with 179 graduating social work students. The study concludes with implications for social work educators and researchers.

McMahon, S., and V. Banyard. (2011). "When Can I help? A Conceptual Framework for the Prevention of Sexual Violence Through Bystander Intervention." *Trauma, Violence, Abuse* 13 (1): 3-14.

The bystander intervention approach is gaining popularity as a means for engaging communities in sexual assault prevention, especially on college campuses. Many bystander programs are teaching community members how to intervene without first assisting them to identify the full range of opportunities when they can intervene. In this article, the authors review the literature on sexual violence bystander intervention and present a conceptual framework that lays out a continuum of bystander opportunities ranging from reactive situations after an assault has occurred, to situations before an assault has occurred (posing high to low risk to victims), as well as proactive situations where no risk to the victim is present. The implications of this typology are discussed in the context of program development, evaluation, and further research.

McMahon, S., Postmus J.L., Warrener, C., and R. A. Koenick. (2014). "SCREAM (Students Challenging Realities and Educating Against Myths) theater utilizing peer education theater for the primary prevention of sexual violence on college campuses." *Journal of College Student Development* 55 (1): 78-85.

Mohipp, C., and C. Y. Senn. (2008). "Graduate Students' Perceptions of Contrapower Sexual Harassment." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 23 (9): 1258-1276.

This study compared the perceptions of 172 graduate students to traditional versus contrapower sexual harassment. Graduate students are a unique sample due to their dual role as a student and a teacher. After controlling for attitudes toward feminism and sexual harassment, participants viewed contrapower sexual harassment as less indicative of sexual harassment than traditional sexual harassment. Those with teaching experience perceived the scenarios provided as more indicative of sexual harassment than participants without teaching experience, and this effect was magnified for males. These findings suggest that people take sexual harassment less seriously in contrapower sexual harassment than in traditional sexual harassment. Furthermore, it is possible that teaching experience makes graduate students more aware of the complicated power differentials involved in classroom settings.

Morrison, S., Hardison, J., Mathew, A., and J. O'Neil. (2004). *An Evidence-Based Review of Sexual Assault Preventive Intervention Programs, 1990-2003*. Research Triangle Park: RTI International.

This study was an evidence-based review of sexual assault preventive intervention (SAPI) programs. A total of 67 publications including articles, government reports, and book chapters (excluding dissertations) representing 59 studies met the inclusion criteria and were included in the data abstraction process. In order to be included in the review, the resource had to be an English-language publication, published between 1990 and June 2003, of a SAPI evaluation of a primary or secondary preventive intervention program that targeted people who were adolescent-age or older, and which included outcome measures and a pre-test/post-test or between-group differences design. The findings for the article reviews are presented in evidence tables, for the general population in Part 1 and the evidence tables for individuals with disabilities in Part 2.

Morse, A., Sponsler, B. A., and M. Fulton. (2015). *State Legislative Developments on Campus Sexual Violence: Issues in the Context of Safety*. NASPA Student Affairs in Higher Education. https://www.naspa.org/images/uploads/main/ECS_NASPA_BRIEF_DOWNLOAD3.pdf

In recent years, the effort put forth by colleges and universities to prevent and address incidents of campus sexual violence has come under increased public scrutiny. Fueling concern about the prevalence of campus sexual violence are two recent national surveys reporting that one in five females, one in 20 males, and one in four transgender students experience sexual violence after enrolling in college (Cantor et al., 2015; DiJulio, Norton, Craighill, Clement, & Brodie, 2015). These surveys follow a litany of media reports on alleged incidents of sexual violence on campuses across the United States. The national visibility of campus sexual violence has turned this issue into a top priority for policy action among lawmakers at both the state and federal levels (see "White House Response to Campus Sexual Assault" sidebar). Against a backdrop of existing federal law and regulation, calls have been made for new state policy action to shape how postsecondary institutions address campus crime in general and campus sexual violence in particular. In 2014, the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR; 2014) published responses to frequently asked questions related to its 2011 dear colleague letter (OCR, 2011) on Title IX (1972) and sexual violence. Additionally, in 2015, the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary Education (OPE) published a dear colleague letter summarizing the final regulatory amendments to the Clery Act (1990) and the Violence Against Women Act (1994) that took effect on July 1, 2015. These documents have significantly influenced how campuses create an environment that supports survivors of sexual violence and establish processes that handle allegations of sexual violence with fairness and equity for all parties involved.

“Moving Beyond Blue Lights and Buddy Systems: A National Study of Student Anti-Rape Activists.”
2013. New York: SAFER. http://www.safercampus.org/download_file/view/3

SAFER (Students Active For Ending Rape) is a national organization that fights sexual violence and rape culture by empowering student-led campaigns to reform college sexual assault policies. As an organization dedicated to providing students with the resources and support to combat campus sexual violence, we deemed it important to gain a more in-depth understanding of the experiences and needs of current student anti-sexual assault/rape activists. To that end, SAFER’s Board of Directors conducted a study of college/university students working to address campus sexual violence (hereafter “student activists”). Findings from this study will inform SAFER’s strategic planning as we determine how to best support student activists in their efforts to address sexual violence, and specifically to reform their campus sexual assault policy. We also hope that by providing important information about the activities and perspectives of student activists, these findings will be useful to the broader anti-sexual violence movement. The study examined students’ activities, priorities, perceptions, and needs related to various efforts to address campus sexual violence, with a specific focus on campus policies. Students also reported on their school’s efforts to address rape and sexual assault. This study had two components: 1) online survey of current student anti- rape/sexual assault activists nationwide 2) focus groups with student activists. This study was guided by three main questions: What types of activities are student anti-rape/sexual assault activists engaging in? What are student activists’ perspectives on efforts taken by their school to address sexual violence? What are student activists’ interests and experiences in reforming campus sexual assault policy?

Newton-Taylor, B., Dewit, D., and L. Gliksman. (1998). “Prevalence and factors associated with physical and sexual assault of female university students in Ontario.” *Health Care for Women International* 19 (2): 155-164.

This survey examined the prevalence of physical and sexual assault of female university students and the factors associated with it. Over 3642 female students from 6 universities across Ontario were included in the survey. Of the samples, 24% females were reported being physically assaulted and 15% reported being sexually assaulted in the previous year. About 32% female university students reported being victims of at least one type of assault. Several factors were associated with assault. In the logistic regression analysis, two demographic variables contributed in understanding the factors associated with assault. Single females were 1.76 times more likely to experience assault than married, separated, divorced, or widowed ones. Women who reported being assaulted were frequent users of illicit drugs, were alcohol drinkers, had eating disorders, higher levels of stress, and harmful stress responses. The disadvantages of this study are that valuable information was limited and survey was restricted to the year prior to study. However, this survey was able to present the prevalence rates of assault and the initial examination of the factors associated with assault.

“Not alone: the first report of the White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault.”
2014. Washington: White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault.
<https://www.notalone.gov/assets/report.pdf>

NSVRS. (2015). It is on Us – Sex without Consent Isn’t Sex. It’s Rape, Online:
http://genprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/31155358/Consent-Discussion-Guide_Updated.pdf

“OCUFA and CAUT submission regarding Bill 132, Sexual Violence and Harassment Action Plan Act.”
2016. Ottawa: Ontario Confederation of University Faculty Associations (OCUFA)&Canadian

Association of University Teachers (CAUT). <http://ocufa.on.ca/assets/OCUFA-and-CAUT-Bill-132-Submission-January-22-2016-FINAL-.pdf>

O’Leary, A. et. al. (1992). “Predictors of Safer Sex on the College Campus: A Social Cognitive Theory Analysis.” *Journal of American College Health* 40 (6): 254-263.

In April and May 1989, the authors surveyed a sample of students enrolled on four college campuses in New Jersey concerning their HIV transmission-related behavior, knowledge, and a variety of conceptual variables taken primarily from social cognitive theory that were thought to be potentially predictive of safer sexual behavior. Analyses of sexually active, unmarried students' responses indicated that men expected more negative outcomes of condom use and were more likely to have sexual intercourse while under the influence of alcohol or other drugs, whereas women reported higher perceived self-efficacy to practice safer sex. Regression analyses indicated that, among the factors assessed, stronger perceptions of self-efficacy to engage in safer behavior, expecting fewer negative outcomes of condom use, and less frequency of sex in conjunction with alcohol or other drug use significantly predicted safer sexual behavior. Enhanced self-efficacy to discuss personal history with a new partner was associated with a greater number of risky encounters. Implications of these findings for intervention efforts with students are discussed.

Oliver, M., Langan, D., and R. Godderis. (2015). “Confronting Rape Culture and Resisting to Anti-Violence Discourse.” Waterloo: Wilfred Laurier University. https://legacy.wlu.ca/docsnpubs_detail.php?grp_id=2465&doc_id=62296

Orchowski, L. M., and C. A. Gidycz (2012). “To Whom Do College Women Confide Following Sexual Assault? A Prospective Study of Predictors of Sexual Assault Disclosure and Social Reactions.” *Violence Against Women* 18 (3): 264-288.

A prospective methodology was used to explore predictors of sexual assault disclosure among college women, identify who women tell about sexual victimization, and examine the responses of informal support providers ($N = 374$). Women most often confided in a female peer. Increased coping via seeking emotional support, strong attachments, and high tendency to disclose stressful information predicted adolescent sexual assault disclosure and disclosure over the 7-month interim. Less acquaintance with the perpetrator predicted disclosure over the follow-up, including experiences of revictimization. Victim and perpetrator alcohol use at the time of the assault also predicted disclosure over the follow-up. Implications are presented.

Orges, A., Banyard, V., and M. Moynihan. (2008). “Clarifying consent: primary prevention of sexual assault on a college campus.” *Journal of Prevention & Intervention in the Community* 36 (1-2): 75-88.

Although more universities are developing policies for students regarding consent for sexual behavior in response to the problem of sexual violence on campus, many students seem either unaware of these policies or what they mean for actual behavior. Policies are only as effective as peoples' understanding and use of them. The current study aimed to evaluate the utility of a prevention education program focused on teaching students about consent. Two hundred and twenty undergraduates, composing a control group, a shorter treatment group, and a longer one, participated in the study. The findings showed the greatest knowledge gain for participants in the longer treatment group that included a discussion of the policy and participation in an activity dealing with its implications. Implications and future research directions are discussed.

Page, A. D. (2010). "True Colors: Police Officers and Rape Myth Acceptance." *Feminist Criminology* 5 (4): 315–334.

Institutionally, significant advancements in rape law reform have occurred. Culturally, police officers sometimes fail to adopt these changes. A survey designed to assess acceptance of rape myths was administered to 891 police officers in two southeastern states. The study found that the majority of police officers view the overall crime of rape as a serious one, however, approximately 6% provided sexist feedback that supports rape myths. These findings indicate that more work is needed in altering the attitudes of police officers.

Page, A. D. (2007). "Behind the blue line: Investigating police officers' attitudes toward rape". *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology* 22 (1): 22-32.

The current study contributes to what is known about police officers' attitudes toward rape. A survey was administered to 891 sworn police officers in two states in the southeastern United States. The surveys were designed to assess police officers' acceptance of rape myths. It was hypothesized that police officers would be accepting of rape myths, which are inherently misogynistic. Attitudes toward rape were expected to vary according to educational attainment and experience with rape investigations, such that higher levels of education and more experience with rape investigations would lead to the rejection of rape myths. There was a significant difference in the acceptance of rape myths with varying levels of educational attainment and experience with rape investigations.

Parks, K. A., Hsieh, Y. P., Taggart, C., and C. M. Bradizza. (2014). "A longitudinal analysis of drinking and victimization in college women: is there a reciprocal relationship?" *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors* 28 (4): 943.

The purpose of the current study was to assess the relationship between drinking and severe physical and sexual victimization in a sample of 989 college women over 5 years. Participants completed a Web-based survey each fall semester, beginning as first-time incoming freshman, and continuing each year for 5 years. The survey was comprehensive in assessing drinking, victimization, and relevant covariates. Women were followed whether they remained at university or not. Prior year same type of severe victimization predicted current year victimization, both severe physical and sexual. However, prior year drinking did not predict current year severe victimization. Prior year severe sexual victimization predicted current year drinking. Our findings of a longitudinal relationship between severe sexual victimization and subsequent increases in drinking suggests that college women may be drinking to cope with negative sequelae that they experience as a result of the victimization. We did not find the same longitudinal relationship between drinking and severe physical or sexual victimization, suggesting that a reciprocal relationship does not exist between drinking and victimization among college women. We did find that severe sexual victimization decreased across college, suggesting that the year prior to and the first year of college may be a critical period for intervening to reduce risk for severe victimization

Parsons, J. T. et. al. (2000). "Perceptions of the benefits and costs associated with condom use and unprotected sex among late adolescent college students." *Journal of Adolescence* 23 (4): 377-391.

To assess the differential effects of the perceived benefits and costs associated with both condom use and unprotected sex on sexual risk behaviors, data were collected from 704 ethnically diverse male and female sexually experienced late adolescent college students (aged 17–25). Perceived benefits and costs for condom use and perceived benefits and costs for unprotected sex were measured separately through an anonymous self-report survey. In addition, participants completed measures of self-efficacy for practicing safer sex and temptation for unsafe sex in various situations, and three measures of sexual risk-taking (stage of change for condom use, consistency of condom use during the past month, and whether or not a condom was used for the last act of intercourse). Univariate analyses indicated that

benefits and costs of condom use, benefits of unprotected sex, self-efficacy and situational temptation were all related to sexual risk-taking. Gender differences were identified, with females reporting more benefits of condom use and costs of unprotected sex, fewer benefits of unprotected sex and costs of condom use, greater self-efficacy for practicing safer sex, and less situational temptation for unsafe sex. Multivariate analyses indicated that sexual risk behaviors were most related to situational temptation, self-efficacy for safer sex, and perceived benefits of unprotected sex. The results suggest that, among late adolescents, perceived benefits of the unhealthy behavior (unprotected sex) were better determinants of sexual risk-taking than were perceived benefits (or costs) associated with the healthy behavior (condom use). Perceived costs associated with unprotected sex were unrelated to sexual behaviors. These findings support previous work identifying adolescents as more driven by their perceptions of the positive benefits associated with risky behaviors, rather than knowledge of the costs or dangers involved in risk-taking.

Paul, E. L., McManus, B., and A. Hayes. (2000). “Hookups”: Characteristics and correlates of college students' spontaneous and anonymous sexual experiences.” *The Journal of Sex Research* 37 (1): 76-88.

This study focused on a specific risky practice common among contemporary college students: the hookup. Hookups are defined as a sexual encounter which may or may not include sexual intercourse, usually occurring on only one occasion between two people who are strangers or brief acquaintances. The aim of this study was to determine the relative importance of a variety of social and psychological predictors in understanding differences among undergraduate students who had never hooked up, those who had hooked up without sexual intercourse, and those who had hooked up with sexual intercourse. Analyses revealed that, as predicted, social, individual, and relational psychological variables helped to explain the variance among college students' varied hookup experiences. By examining the full range of sexual involvement characteristic of the casual sexual phenomenon of hooking up within a multivariate model, we were able to achieve a more differentiated understanding of college students' casual sexual experimentation.

Peterson, K., Sharps, P., Banyard, V., Kaukinen, C., Gross, D., Decker, M., and J. Campbell. (2016). “An evaluation of two dating violence prevention programs on college campus.” *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, March 13. (Published Online).

Dating violence is a serious and prevalent public health problem that is associated with numerous negative physical and psychological health outcomes, and yet there has been limited evaluation of prevention programs on college campuses. A recent innovation in campus prevention focuses on mobilizing bystanders to take action. To date, bystander programs have mainly been compared with no treatment control groups raising questions about what value is added to dating violence prevention by focusing on bystanders. This study compared a single 90-min bystander education program for dating violence prevention with a traditional awareness education program, as well as with a no education control group. Using a quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test design with follow-up at 2 months, a sample of predominately freshmen college students was randomized to either the bystander ($n = 369$) or traditional awareness ($n = 376$) dating violence education program. A non-randomized control group of freshmen students who did not receive any education were also surveyed ($n = 224$). Students completed measures of attitudes, including rape myth acceptance, bystander efficacy, and intent to help as well as behavioral measures related to bystander action and victimization. Results showed that the bystander education program was more effective at changing attitudes, beliefs, efficacy, intentions, and self-reported behaviors compared with the traditional awareness education program. Both programs were significantly more effective than no education. The findings of this study have important implications for future dating violence prevention educational programming, emphasizing the value of bystander education programs for primary dating violence prevention among college students.

Pitts, M., and Q. Rahman. (2001). "Which Behaviors Constitute "Having Sex" Among University Students in the UK?" *Achieves of Sexual Behavior* 30 (2): 169-176.

The aim of this study was to establish which behaviors were considered to constitute sexual relations and to compare a group of undergraduates in the UK with a group in the US. An opportunistic sample of 190 female and 124 male UK undergraduate university students was surveyed by questionnaire. The main outcome measure was percentage of responses to 11 different behaviors believed to constitute "having sex." The majority of respondents regarded having sex as involving penile–vaginal and penile–anal intercourse. One-third of respondents regarded oral–genital contact as having sex, around 17% regarded touching genitals, whilst 6% regarded oral or other touching of breasts and nipples as constituting having sex. There were significant gender- and age-related differences in responses. These findings broadly support the findings of an earlier US study. It is clear that British students hold divergent opinions about which behaviors do and do not constitute having sex. The age-related trends merit further exploration. Any studies of sex-related behaviors need to specify precisely which are encompassed by the terms used.

"Pocket Guide for Police Response to Sexual Assault." New York: New York State Coalition Against Sexual Assault.

<https://ovc.ncjrs.gov/sartkit/tools/lawenforcement/Pocket%20Guide%20for%20Police%20Response%20to%20Sexual%20Assault.pdf.pdf>

Postmus, J. L. (ed.) (2013). *Sexual Violence and Abuse: An Encyclopaedia of Prevention, Impacts, and Recovery*. Oxford: ABC-CLIO.

Potter S.J., Banyard V.L., Stapleton J.G., Demers J.M., Edwards K.M., and M. M. Moynihan. (2015). "It is not Just the What but the How: Informing Students About Campus Policies and Resources – How They Get the Message Matters." New Hampshire: Prevention Innovations Research Centre.

Potter, R.H., Krider, J.E., and P. M. McMahon. (2000). "Examining elements of campus sexual violence policies: Is deterrence or health promotion favored?" *Violence Against Women* 6 (12): 1345-1362.

Criminal justice and public health are two perspectives from which one may view the promulgation of sexual violence. The public health model focuses on prevention through health promotion in contrast to a criminal justice analysis based primarily on deterrence. Because each has a unique focus, policies may have different implications and outcomes. This study subjects campus sexual violence policies to analysis from public health and criminal justice perspectives. Campus sexual violence policies were obtained from a sample of one hundred United States colleges and universities in 1998. The study presents a descriptive analysis of sexual violence prevention programs and dissemination of knowledge about the policies, and examined data on actual policies utilizing content analytic techniques. Overall, deterrence-based prevention efforts were the most common element, followed by risk or opportunity-reduction approaches. Finally the report discussed implications for campus sexual violence prevention efforts of merging the public health and criminal justice approaches.

"Preventing and Reducing Violence Against Young Women on Post-Secondary Campuses: A Best Practices Guide Based on University of Toronto Mississauga (UTM) and Interim Place's CampUS Safety Project." 2014. Toronto: University of Toronto Mississauga.

<https://www.utm.utoronto.ca/health/sites/files/health/public/shared/pdfs/Best%20Practices%20Guide%20Preventing%20and%20Reducing%20VAYW%20on%20Postsecondary%20Campuses.pdf>

“Preventing Violence against Women at St. Francis Xavier University Project: Policies & Procedures Guide.” 2014. Antigonish: St. Francis Xavier University. <http://www.gaelstream.stfx.ca/cdm/ref/collection/stfxdocs/id/377>

“Promoting a Culture of Safety, Respect and Consent at Saint Mary’s University and Beyond.” 2013. Halifax: St. Mary’s University. <http://www.smu.ca/webfiles/PresidentsCouncilReport-2013.pdf> .

“Rape and Sexual Assault: A Renewed Call to Action.” 2014. Washington: White House Council on Women and Girls. https://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/sexual_assault_report_1-21-14.pdf

“Reconstructing Norms: A Curriculum to Educate College Campuses about Sexual Assault Prevention.” 2012. Charleston: West Virginia Foundation for Rape Information and Services. <http://www.fris.org/Resources/PDFs/Books/ReconstructingNorms-2012.pdf>

Many people regard American colleges as centers of higher learning, friendly interpersonal socialization, career training, liberal thought and athletic achievement. But institutions of higher education are by no means crime-free. Women face a high risk of sexual assault. Rape and sexual assault are the two most common violent crimes committed on American college campuses today (Finn, 1995; Fisher et al., 1995; Sampson, 2002). College campuses host large concentrations of young women who are at greater risk for rape and other forms of sexual assault than women in the general population (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000). Among college students nationwide, nearly 25 percent of women reported experiencing completed or attempted rapes (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000). Many of these assaults involve alcohol. In fact, the majority of campus sexual assaults involve alcohol consumption, by either or both the victims and perpetrators (Abbey, 2002; Abbey et al., 1996; Koss et al., 1987; Presley et al., 1997; as cited in Mohler-Kuo et al., 2004). Drinking by college students aged 18 to 24 is correlated with 97,000 cases of sexual assault each year (Hingson et al., 2002). Sexual assault is a critical issue for all college and university campuses. Sexual assault does not just affect individual students, but the entire campus community. Campus violence impacts students, staff and faculty in many ways. Victims may feel they need to leave school either by dropping out or taking a leave of absence. Remaining in school after an assault, victims may have problems concentrating, studying and attending classes. They may fear running into the person(s) who perpetrated the violent act, so they may avoid academic and social activities. College life may become so stressful that they develop clinical symptoms of trauma or anxiety. Sexual violence compromises the integrity of the safe, welcoming environment that campuses are supposed to provide, impinging on the academic and social success of all students. Supporting a comprehensive institutional approach to address sexual assault ensures that all members of the campus community have access to the education and employment they seek. When appropriate services are provided to victims, the emotional, physical and psychological effects are mitigated and retention rates are increased. Thus, institutions of higher education can best serve members of their community by ensuring timely access to appropriate services and creating an environment intolerant of sexual assault. Colleges and universities can best accomplish these goals by supporting and implementing sexual assault prevention and education programs designed to inform and reduce the risk of sexual assault.

Rennison, C. M., and L. A. Addington. (2014). “Violence Against College Women A Review to Identify Limitations in Defining the Problem and Inform Future Research.” *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 15 (3): 159-169.

Over the past 25 years, our understanding about violence against college women has greatly expanded, but it has been concentrated in particular areas. As a result, despite this increased attention, significant gaps in our knowledge still exist. One is a failure to take stock in how “violence” is defined and assess

whether its current use adequately covers the variety of risks to which college women are exposed. We identify limitations in how the current literature operationalizes violence against college women and illustrate how addressing these limitations can inform and advance the field by identifying new patterns and correlates. We also propose a research agenda to explicitly examine the definition and scope of “violence” as considered in the study of college women.

Rennison, C. M. (2002). *“Rape and Sexual Assault: Reporting to Police and Medical Attention, 1992-2000.”* Washington: U.S. Department of Justice.

“Report of Concordia’s Sexual Assault Policy Review Working Group.” 2015. Montreal: Concordia University. <https://www.concordia.ca/content/dam/concordia/now/docs/FINAL-en-report-sexual-assault-policy-review-working-group-august-2015.pdf>.

“Report of the Task Force on Misogyny, Sexism and Homophobia in Dalhousie University Faculty of Dentistry.” 2015. Halifax: Dalhousie University. <https://www.dal.ca/content/dam/dalhousie/pdf/cultureofrespect/DalhousieDentistry-TaskForceReport-June2015.pdf>

“Report of the Task Force on Respect and Equality: Ending Sexual Violence at the University of Ottawa.” 2015. Ottawa: University of Ottawa. <https://www.uottawa.ca/president/sites/www.uottawa.ca.president/files/report-of-the-task-force-on-respect-and-equality.pdf> .

“Review of Policies, Practices and Protocols Related to Sexual Assault at Ryerson University.” 2015. Toronto: Ryerson University. http://www.ryerson.ca/content/dam/provost/pdfs/Final%20Draft_Sexual%20assault%20review.pdf

“Review of the University of Alberta’s Response to Sexual Assault.” 2016. Edmonton: University of Alberta. <http://www.deanofstudents.ualberta.ca/CampusResources/~media/deanofstudents/Documents/Reports/UofASexualAssaultReview.pdf>

Ricardo, C., M. Eads, and G. Barker. 2011. “Engaging Boys and Men in the Prevention of Sexual Violence. Sexual Violence Research Initiative and Promundo.” Pretoria.

Rigakos, G. S. 2013. “Campus Special Constables in Ontario.” Ottawa: Ontario Association of College and University Security Administrators. <http://security.mcmaster.ca/documents/Special%20Constable%20Report.pdf>

Rigakos, George S. 1995. “Constructing the Symbolic Complainant: Police Subculture and the Nonenforcement of Protection Orders for Battered Women.” *Violence and Victims* 10 (3): 227–47.

Rothman, E., and J. Silverman. (2007). “The Effect of a College Sexual Assault Prevention Program on First-year Students' Victimization Rates.” *Journal of American College Health* 55 (5): 283-290.

Sable, M. R., Danis, F., Mauzy, D. L., and S. K. Gallagher. (2006). "Barriers to reporting sexual assault for women and men: Perspectives of college students." *Journal of American College Health* 55 (3): 157-162.

The authors asked college students to rate the importance of a list of barriers to reporting rape and sexual assault among male and female victims. The authors' findings indicate that barriers prevalent 30 years ago, prior to efforts by the rape reform movement, continue to be considered important among college men and women. The barriers rated as the most important were (1) shame, guilt, embarrassment, not wanting friends and family to know; (2) concerns about confidentiality; and (3) fear of not being believed. Both genders perceived a fear of being judged as gay as an important barrier for male victims of sexual assault or rape and fear of retaliation by the perpetrator to be an important barrier for female victims.

Safko, E. D. (2016). "Are Campus Sexual Assault Tribunals Fair?: The Need for Judicial Review and Additional Due Process Protections in Light of New Case Law." *Fordham Law Review* 84 (5): 2289-2333.

The pervasiveness of sexual assault on college and university campuses and the schools' failures to take sexual assault seriously have resulted in recent reforms to college campus disciplinary proceedings. The federal government has largely prompted this wave of reform through Title IX, requiring schools to employ particular policies and procedures for investigating and adjudicating sexual assault as a condition of receiving federal funds. Although the federal government's mandates may be properly motivated, these reforms are criticized because they encourage schools to enact procedures that are heavily stacked against those accused of sexual assault. Consequently, students alleging that they have been wrongfully held responsible for sexual assault violations due to flawed disciplinary procedures have brought lawsuits against their schools. Recent case law demonstrates that some schools, in an attempt to comply with Title IX, have employed procedures that are fundamentally unfair to accused students. This Note considers the interests involved in campus investigatory and adjudicatory systems through an analysis of recent cases and the procedural flaws that have emerged. It further evaluates procedural protections that would strike a better balance between the interests of the accusers, the accused, and the schools. In conclusion, this Note argues that in light of the recent case law, more meaningful judicial review and additional due process protections are necessary for accused students.

Santovec, M. L. (2011). "Reducing Barriers to Students Reporting Sexual Assaults." *Women in Higher Education* 20 (7): 7-8. <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/whe.10211/full>

Scholly, K. et. al. (2005). "Using Social Norms Theory to Explain Perceptions and Sexual Health Behaviors of Undergraduate College Students: An Exploratory Study." *Journal of American College Health* 53 (4): 159-166.

The authors and associates conducted a social norms-based intervention targeting high-risk sexual behaviors among undergraduate students at 4 college campuses. Social norms theory predicts that widely held misperceptions may encourage risky behavior in a misguided attempt to conform to perceived norms and that information correcting these misperceptions will lead to a decrease in such behaviors. Students overestimated their peers' levels of sexual activity, numbers of partners, incidence of sexually transmitted infections, and rates of unintended pregnancies, but underestimated rates of condom use. Rates of HIV test taking, however, were accurately estimated. Although some components of sexual risk behaviors lend themselves well to social norms-based interventions, others, specifically inconsistent condom use and avoiding HIV tests, do not. Although no changes in reported beliefs or practices were apparent at the end of a 9-month intervention period, longer or modified interventions may be needed to make a fair assessment of the efficacy of this approach.

Schwartz, M.D., and W. S. DeKeseredy. (1997). *Sexual Assault on the College Campus: The Role of Male Peer Support*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

The book highlights the difficulties inherent in researching a topic as sensitive as sexual assault on college campuses and discusses such issues as the best way to word questions for potential or actual sexual assault victims and perpetrators, problems with various sampling strategies, and effects of using different types of statistical analysis techniques. The authors examine theoretical complexities involved in trying to explain sexual assault of women on college campuses and emphasize the multidimensional nature of the sexual assault problem. Book chapters specifically address what constitutes sexual assault, the incidence and prevalence of campus sexual assault, reasons why sexual assault victims are often not taken seriously, male peer support theories of sexual assault, the impact of growing up in a rape-supportive culture, factors associated with male peer support for campus sexual assault, and sexual assault prevention and policy implications. A case history of a 20-year-old junior college student is appended.

Schwartz, M.D., and W. S. DeKeseredy. (1998). *Woman Abuse on Campus: Results from the Canadian National Survey*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

The disturbing prevalence of campus sexual assault shatters any illusion that post-secondary schools anywhere in North America are sanctuaries from the real world. Through an accessible overview of the recent Canadian National Survey on Woman Abuse in Dating Relationships, authors Walter S. DeKeseredy and Martin D. Schwartz expose a "hidden campus curriculum" that exists to maintain gender inequalities. Sexist messages, both subtle and implicit, not only foster an atmosphere of fear and insecurity but also serve as a powerful means of social control. Providing a wake-up call to North American college campuses, The book opens up the doors for change by examining the incidence and prevalence of woman abuse in courtship, the reaction against women's use of self-defense, factors that increase the risk of dating abuse, and education and awareness programs that respond to the problem. In order to influence policy changes, students, faculty, and administrators as well as other professionals will need to work together to inform not only themselves but others about the problem. As a tool to increase awareness and provide critical study findings, The Hidden Curriculum is an ideal supplementary text for courses in gender studies, criminology/criminal justice, sociology, social work, counseling/clinical psychology, family studies, education, and public health.

Schwartz, M.D., DeKeseredy, W.S, Tait, D., and S. Alvi. (2001). "Male peer support and a feminist routine activities theory: Understanding sexual assault on the college campus." *Justice Quarterly* 18 (3): 623-649.

Routine activities theorists traditionally have assumed offenders' motivation and victims' suitability from demographic correlates, and have done little to study effective guardianship. In this paper we ask questions directly of male date rape offenders to test the proposal that male peer support provides motivation; we ask lifestyle questions directly of both female victims and male offenders; and we discuss the extent to which abusive peers eliminate guardianship. Data from the Canadian National Survey support routine activities theory, and show that men who drink two or more times a week and have male peers who support both emotional violence and physical violence are nearly 10 times as likely to admit to being sexual aggressors as men who have none of these three traits.

Senn, C. et al. (2015). "Efficacy of a Sexual Assault Resistance Program for University Women." *New England Journal of Medicine* 372 (24): 2326-2335.

Young women attending university are at substantial risk for being sexually assaulted, primarily by male acquaintances, but effective strategies to reduce this risk remain elusive. We randomly assigned first-

year female students at three universities in Canada to the Enhanced Assess, Acknowledge, Act Sexual Assault Resistance program (resistance group) or to a session providing access to brochures on sexual assault, as was common university practice (control group). The resistance program consists of four 3-hour units in which information is provided and skills are taught and practiced, with the goal of being able to assess risk from acquaintances, overcome emotional barriers in acknowledging danger, and engage in effective verbal and physical self-defense. The primary outcome was completed rape, as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey–Short Form Victimization, during 1 year of follow-up. A total of 451 women were assigned to the resistance group and 442 women to the control group. Of the women assigned to the resistance group, 91% attended at least three of the four units. The 1-year risk of completed rape was significantly lower in the resistance group than in the control group (5.2% vs. 9.8%; relative risk reduction, 46.3% [95% confidence interval, 6.8 to 69.1]; $P = 0.02$). The 1-year risk of attempted rape was also significantly lower in the resistance group (3.4% vs. 9.3%, $P < 0.001$). A rigorously designed and executed sexual assault resistance program was successful in decreasing the occurrence of rape, attempted rape, and other forms of victimization among first-year university women.

Senn, C. Y. et al. (2014). "Sexual violence in the lives of first-year university women in Canada: no improvements in the 21st century." *BMC Women's Health* 14 (136): 1-8.

Summarizes the frequency, type, and context of sexual assault in a large sample of first-year university women at three Canadian universities. As part of a randomized controlled trial assessing the efficacy of a sexual assault resistance education program, baseline data were collected from women between ages of 17 and 24 using computerized surveys. Participants' experience with sexual victimization since the age of 14 years was assessed using the Sexual Experiences Survey–Short Form Victimization (SES-SFV). Among 899 first-year university women (mean age = 18.5 years), 58.7% (95% CI: 55.4%, 62.0%) had experienced one or more forms of victimization since the age of 14 years, 35.0% (95% CI: 31.9%, 38.3%) had experienced at least one completed or attempted rape, and 23.5% (95% CI: 20.7%, 26.4%) had been raped. Among the 211 rape victims, 46.4% (95% CI: 39.7%, 53.2%) had experienced more than one type of assault (oral, vaginal, anal) in a single incident or across multiple incidents. More than three-quarters (79.6%; 95% CI: 74.2%, 85.1%) of the rapes occurred while women were incapacitated by alcohol or drugs. One-third (33.3%) of women had previous self-defence training, but few (4.0%) had previous sexual assault education. Findings from the first large Canadian study of university women since the 1990s indicate that a large proportion of women arrive on campuses with histories of sexual victimization, and they are generally unprepared for the perpetrators they may face during their academic years. There is an urgent need for effective rape prevention programs on university campuses.

Senn, C. Y., Gee, S. S., and J. Thake. (2012). "Emancipatory Sexuality Education and Sexual Assault Resistance: Does the Former Enhance the Latter?" *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 35 (1): 72-91.

The current study examined whether adding emancipatory sexuality education, which encourages the exploration of women's own sexual values and desires, to a sexual assault resistance program would improve women's resistance to sexual assault by known men. The participants were 214 first-year university students. A randomized experimental design evaluated the effectiveness of a basic and sexuality enhanced version of a sexual assault resistance program against a no-program control. Both programs, compared to the control group, increased women's perception of their own risk, their confidence that they could defend themselves if attacked, and their use of more effective methods of self-defense in hypothetical situations of acquaintance sexual assault. Effects were maintained from 3 to 6 months after program completion. No significant reductions in completed sexual assault were found. The sexuality enhanced program was superior in several areas, particularly risk detection and initiation of sexual activity, which may be important to women's integration of the program's content to their

lives. Future research will need to strengthen and continue to evaluate the promising programs for women which now exist. Until effective programming for men on campus is developed and implemented widely, our best hope to improve the health and safety of female students lays in comprehensive women-only multi-unit sexual assault resistance education.

Sheehy, E., and D. Gilbert. 2015. "Responding to Sexual Assault on Campus: What Can Canadian Universities Learn from US Law and Policy." Ottawa Faculty of Law Working Paper 2015-26.

Our starting point is that universities should provide avenues of redress for women who experience sexual violence and that these cannot simply be absorbed into pre-existing disciplinary codes and sexual harassment policies. Canadian governments have the power to impose uniform reporting and disciplinary procedures on universities, but in the absence of national or provincial standards, best practices should be identified for such policies. We first turn to a brief discussion of the legal context in which Canadian post-secondary institutions operate, particularly federalism, provincial human rights codes, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, and tort law. Second we describe the legal context in which US universities and colleges sit: Title IX, the Clery Act, the Obama Task Force and its 2014 Report, and the ongoing investigations and litigation arising from federal regulation. Third we look at what Canadian institutions might learn from the US experience specifically on the issues around reporting obligations, disciplinary measures, and protections for women who report sexual violence.

"Shifting the Paradigm: Primary Prevention of Sexual Violence." 2008. Linthicum: American College Health Association (ACHM).

Siegel, D., Klein, D. I., and K. Roghmann. (1999). Sexual behavior, contraception, and risk among college students. *Journal of Adolescent Health* 25 (5): 336-343.

Purpose: To characterize the differences and similarities among college freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors regarding their sexual behavior including contraception choices and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) risk. Methods: A 41-item sexual behavior questionnaire designed for this study was administered to a convenience sample ($N = 797$) of a college population. Results: Levels of sexual activity were found to be comparable to other college-based surveys. Notable trends included an increased level of oral contraceptive use among partners reported by seniors, as compared to freshmen, without a corresponding increase in condom use; an increased reliance among seniors, as compared to freshmen, on women to provide contraception; and a low level of self or partner HIV testing either before or after initiating sexual intercourse. Gender differences also revealed greater partner relationship duration, intensity, and communication prior to initiating sexual intercourse among women versus men ($p \leq .001$). Conclusions: Sexual behavior among college students differs across the 4 years with regard to rates of intercourse, contraception choice, and responsibility, as well as HIV testing and partner trust. University- and college-based health care programs should address sexual behavior with an awareness of the differences that exist in the four cohorts of students.

Sleath, E., and R. Bull. (2012). "Comparing Rape Victim and Perpetrator Blaming in a Police Officer Sample: Differences Between Police Officers With and Without Special Training." *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 39 (5): 646-665.

This study compared victim blaming and perpetrator blaming in a sample of police officers ($N = 123$), comparing the responses of police officers specially trained to deal with rape victims with those who had not received this training. Victim blaming was significantly predicted by rape myth acceptance and belief in a just world but not by gender role. For perpetrator blaming, significant differences were found for gender role, but no significant relationship was found with rape myth acceptance or belief in a just world. There were no significant differences between officers who were specially trained and those who

were not in terms of victim blaming, but there were significant differences in relation to perpetrator blaming. No relationships were found between police experience (measured as years of service) and victim blaming or perpetrator blaming. These findings are discussed in the context of previous victim and perpetrator blaming research and the real-world implications for criminal justice systems.

Smith, G. M., and L. M. Gomez. (2013). "Effective implementation of the Institutional Response to Sexual Misconduct under Title IX and Related Guidance." Washington: The National Association of College and University Attorneys. http://www.higheredcompliance.org/resources/resources/05D_13-06-38.pdf

Most of us grew up knowing Title IX as the law that leveled the playing field for young women. Our children, born decades after Congress enacted the law in 1972, will grow up knowing Title IX as the law that leveled the playing field for victims of sexual harassment and violence on college campuses. Through Title IX, colleges and universities are tackling sexual misconduct and changing the conversation around how we identify, respond to and prevent acts of sexual misconduct.

Spohn, C., and K. Tellis. (2012). "The Criminal Justice System's Response to Sexual Violence." *Violence Against Women* 18 (2): 169-182.

The legal reforms of the 1960s and 1970s notwithstanding, sexual assault is a crime characterized by underreporting and case attrition. In this article, the authors synthesize research examining the criminal justice system's response to sexual assault. The authors begin by examining research on the victim's decision to report the crime to the police. This is followed by a discussion of the findings of sexual assault case processing research, with a focus on the criminal justice system's response to aggravated and simple rape and to intimate partner sexual violence. The authors end the article with a discussion of questions that research has yet to adequately answer.

"Successfully Investigating Acquaintance Sexual Assault: A National Training Manual for Law Enforcement." 2001. Washington: NCWP. <http://www.mincava.umn.edu/documents/acquaintsa/participant/allegations.pdf>

Stein, R. E. (2014). "Individual and Structural Opportunities A Cross-National Assessment of Females' Physical and Sexual Assault Victimization." *International Criminal Justice Review* 24 (4): 392-409.

Opportunity theories are suited to cross-national research on victimization that incorporates a multilevel approach. Comparative research on non-lethal victimization often combines several types of violence into a single category of expressive crime. While expressive crimes do indeed share some characteristics, opportunities leading to specific types of victimization may vary. The current research uses the International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) to examine two types of expressive victimization: sexual and physical assault. These data are limited to female victims, as sexual assault in the ICVS is assessed only for females. These data provide a rich source of comparative information on opportunities leading to victimization. Opportunities have been traditionally examined at the individual level through routine activities and lifestyles theories. Opportunity at the structural level of analysis is less commonly employed; however, routine activities theory offers a framework for measuring structural opportunity. The results indicate a multilevel approach of opportunities on victimization is appropriate. Differences in opportunity leading to sexual and physical assault are most evident in the opportunities provided by the development level of the country. The impact of country development on physical assault victimization is moderated by the involvement in leisure activities outside of the home.

Stephens, K. A., and W. H. George. (2009). "Rape prevention with college men: Evaluating risk status." *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 24 (6): 996-1013.

Tamborra, T.L., and F. M. Narchet. (2011). "A university sexual misconduct policy: Prioritizing student victims' voices." *Crime Prevention and Community Safety* 13 (1): 16-33.

This article discusses the creation of a college campus sexual misconduct policy. Major emphasis is placed on the involvement and input of students at all levels of policy creation. In order to elicit student feedback, a survey was administered to 119 students. Survey results revealed that exposure to sexually aggressive experiences were related to the location of the incident and the perpetrator's group affiliation (for example, athletes). Findings also revealed a relationship between the use of intoxicants and experience with sexual aggression. In addition, findings revealed that respondents who had sexually aggressive experiences did not report their experience to on-campus resources. These findings resulted in specific policy changes and recommendations.

Testa, M., and J. Livingston. (2009). "Alcohol consumption and women's vulnerability to sexual victimization: Can reducing women's drinking prevent rape?" *Substance Use & Misuse*, 44 (9-10): 1349-1376.

Before effective prevention interventions can be developed, it is necessary to identify the mechanisms that contribute to the targeted negative outcomes. A review of the literature on women's substance use and sexual victimization points to women's heavy episodic drinking as a proximal risk factor, particularly among college samples. At least half of sexual victimization incidents involve alcohol use and the majority of rapes of college women occur when the victim is too intoxicated to resist ("incapacitated rape"). Despite the importance of women's heavy episodic drinking as being a risk factor, existing rape prevention programs have rarely addressed women's alcohol use and have shown little success in reducing rates of sexual victimization. We argue that given the strength of the association between heavy episodic drinking and sexual victimization among young women, prevention programs targeting drinking may prove more efficacious than programs targeting sexual vulnerability. Applications of existing drinking prevention strategies to reducing women's sexual victimization are discussed.

Tinkler, J. E. (2012). "Resisting the Enforcement of Sexual Harassment Law." *Law and Social Inquiry* 37 (1): 1-24.

Most people in the United States believe that sexual harassment should be illegal and that enforcement is necessary. In spite of such widespread support for anti-harassment regulations, sexual harassment policy training provokes backlash and has been shown to activate traditional gender stereotypes. Using in-depth interviews and participant observations of sexual harassment policy training sessions, this study uncovers the micro-level mechanisms that underlie ambivalence about the enforcement of sexual harassment law. I find that while the different locations of men and women in the status hierarchy lead to different manifestations of resistance, gender stereotypes are used to buttress perceptions that sexual harassment laws threaten norms of interaction and status positions that men and women have an interest in maintaining. The research has implications for understanding the role of law in social change, legal compliance, and the potential/limits of law for reducing inequality.

Tinkler, J. E., Li, Y. E., and S. Mollborn. (2007). "Can Legal Interventions Change Beliefs? The Effect of Exposure to Sexual Harassment Policy on Men's Gender Beliefs." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 70 (4): 480-494.

In spite of the relative success of equal opportunity laws on women's status in the workplace, we know little about the influence of such legal interventions on people's attitudes and beliefs. This paper focuses, in particular, on how sexual harassment policy affects men's beliefs about the gender hierarchy.

We employ an experimental design in which we measure the effect of a policy intervention on men's explicit and implicit gender beliefs. Results show that the sexual harassment policy did not alter explicit gender beliefs. Explicit beliefs changed in a different way, however. Compared to the baseline condition, participants in the policy intervention condition believed that most people think both men and women are lower-status, less competent, and less considerate. The policy intervention also affected implicit gender beliefs. Participants in the policy condition displayed more entrenched male-advantaged gender beliefs compared to the baseline condition. We interpret this as evidence that sexual harassment policies may have the unintended effect of activating unequal gender beliefs, which runs contrary to the policy's equalizing aims. This research also suggests the value of measuring both explicit and implicit gender beliefs.

Triplett, M.R. (2012). "Sexual assault on college campuses: Seeking the appropriate balance between due process and victim protection." *Duke Law Journal* 62: 487- 527.

Peer sexual assault is a significant problem on American college and university campuses. On April 4, 2011, the Office for Civil Rights of the Department of Education sought to address this problem by issuing a new "Dear Colleague Letter" that provided enhanced guidance on how educational institutions should adjudicate such incidents. The letter has the perverse effect of complicating matters further by blurring the already fine line between victim protection and due process for the accused, and it exposes a potential liability trap for educational institutions. This Note explains why the law surrounding victim protection and due process is difficult for institutions to apply and argues that the Department of Education should produce a model judicial policy so that institutions, victims, and accused students will have more certainty in this complicated arena. In furtherance of such a policy, this Note offers specific due-process protections for accused students that should be embraced by educational institutions and the Department of Education alike.

UBC President's Task Force on Gender-based Violence and Aboriginal Stereotypes. (2014). Transforming UBC and developing a culture of equality and accountability: Confronting rape culture and colonialist violence. Vancouver: University of British Columbia.

University of California. (2016). Sexual Violence and Sexual Harassment Policy.

University of Oregon, Sexual Violence Prevention and Education, Online: <https://studentlife.uoregon.edu/prevention>

UW-Madison Promoting Awareness Victim Empowerment. Online: <http://pave-uw.tumblr.com>

Wooten, S. C., and R. W. Mitchell. (Eds.). (2015). *The crisis of campus sexual violence: Critical perspectives on prevention and response*. New York: Routledge.

Yeater, E. A., and W. O'Donohue. (1999). "Sexual Assault Prevention Programs: Current Issues, Future Directions, and the Potential Efficacy of Interventions with Women." *Clinical Psychology Review* 19 (7): 739-771.

Current problems facing the primary prevention of sexual assault are reviewed. Effective sexual assault prevention programs for both males and females have been slow to develop due to the fact that the etiologies of sexual assault have not been identified. This article discusses previous studies in sexual assault prevention programs, methodological and conceptual problems that currently exist in the field, pragmatic difficulties regarding program implementation and evaluation, and recommendations for future re- search with an emphasis on interventions with female participants.