

REPORTING REALITIES: ARE THE CLERY ACT AND OTHER FEDERAL POLICIES
FAILING WOMEN AT INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION?

by

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ABSTRACT

Violence against women attending institutions of higher education has been called a significant problem by both researchers and federal policymakers. The primary goal of this study was to determine if trends in the institutional reporting of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses reflect any changes resulting from the implementation of federal guidelines, policies, and legislation. The study also examined profiles of institutions that (1) fail to complete Clery Act reporting as federally mandated and (2) report data in a systematic way, therefore, results can be compared with the actual rates of violence against women discovered from national campus climate surveys and federally funded research studies. Finally, the study examined how specific institution and enrollment characteristics affected the number of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses reported.

The sample for this study included all public and private not-for-profit institutions of higher education that are mandated to report annual Clery Act crime statistics. Information on criminal offenses for 3,759 institutions (with data spanned over 17 years, 2001-2017) and information on VAWA offenses for 3,736 institutions (with data spanned over 4 years, 2014-2017) were examined.

Some of the main findings include that forcible sex offenses reporting has been on an upward trend regionally and nationally since 2009. There is also an overall upward trend nationally and regionally in the reporting of VAWA offenses. Institution characteristics, such as control, level, size, and degree of urbanization, appear to play a significant role in the average numbers of reported forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses. All these offenses are more frequently reported when the enrollment consists of higher percentages of women, Asians, students under the age of 25, and graduate students.

Implications from the study include changes to Clery Act reporting policies, ideas for implementation of the best practice of campus climate surveys, and the call for additional federal support to institutions that appear to experience reporting challenges.

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DEDICATION

My research is dedicated to the victims of sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. I see you. I hear you. I believe you. I hope that one day, in the very near future, reporting and seeking help will never feel useless or unsafe.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Sexual violence has been prominently featured in national headlines with news coverage involving high-profile cases with celebrities, athletes, and politicians as well as incidents involving college and university students (Chavez, 2018; Najmabadi, 2020; NBC News, 2020; The Associated Press, 2019; Vox, 2019). What is more, due to the percentage of women who are and will be victimized in this way, sexual violence is considered a public health crisis in the United States (Sinozich & Langton, 2014; Sutherland, Fantasia, & Hutchinson, 2016).

Additionally, violence against women attending institutions of higher education has been called a significant problem by both researchers and federal policymakers (Eisenberg, Lust, Hannan, & Porta, 2016; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; The White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault [WHTF], 2014; U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights [U.S. DOE, OCR], 2011). Violence against women includes rape, acquaintance rape, sexual assault, fondling, domestic violence, dating violence, intimate partner violence, stalking (U.S. DOE, 2014; U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation [U.S. DOJ, FBI], 2014), or more generally as any unwanted sexual experience (Kimble, Neacsiu, Flack, & Horner, 2008).

Of these, sexual assault, which is defined as any nonconsensual sexual act prohibited by federal, tribal, or state law, including when the victim lacks the capacity to provide consent (20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)), is considered a critical concern as numerous in-depth studies have estimated, and subsequently confirmed, that one-in-five women will be the victim of sexual assault while attending an institution of higher education (American College Health Association, 2012; Anderson & Clement, 2015; Black et al., 2011; Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009; Edwards,

2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005; Suzuki, 2013; U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). Through meta-analysis research, Muehlenhard, Peterson, Humphreys, and Jozkowski (2017) investigated the one-in-five prevalence rate to establish if it was an accurate statement. Muehlenhard and colleagues (2017) considered four studies (Cantor et al., 2015; Krebs, Lindquist, & Barrick, 2011; Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, & Peterson, 2016; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2009), which they determined to have comparable representative samples, consistent terminology definitions, behaviorally specific questions, and a concentration on women's experiences since entering college. The researchers concluded that the one-in-five number is a reasonably accurate average across undergraduate college campuses. Additionally, women ages 18-24 are three-times more likely than women in general to experience any of these acts of sexual violence (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Coker, Follingstad, Bush, and Fisher (2016) found high rates of interpersonal violence among women ages 18-24 regardless of college enrollment.

There are fewer officially reported statistics available regarding domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking on college campuses. These three categories may also be referred to as intimate partner violence (U.S. DOJ, National Institute of Justice [NIJ], 2007). The Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), a landmark federal law protecting women by providing extensive requirements to improve the criminal justice response to sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking, was amended in 2013 (U.S. DOE, 2014). Specifically, Section 304 of VAWA amended the Clery Act, a federal law that requires college and university administrators to record campus crime statistics and safety policies, by adding these three additional reportable crimes, among others (U.S. DOE, 2014; U.S. DOE, 2016). Until 2014, the Clery Act did not require higher education administrators to track incidents of domestic violence,

dating violence, and stalking. Consequently, there are only four years of officially reported institution data currently available in these categories.

These VAWA specific crime statistics are both relevant and important as they are also considered forms of violence against women that occur on college campuses. Of students who indicated they were in a relationship while attending a college or university, 10% reported being a victim of intimate partner violence (Cantor et al., 2015). In addition, 4.2% of students reported specifically experiencing stalking (Cantor et al., 2015). Looking at the U.S. total population of women, one-in-six will experience stalking in her lifetime with 60% of these victims having been stalked by intimate partners (Smith et al., 2017).

The magnitude of this problem facing college women, and the impact of federal guidelines, policies, and legislation, are difficult to comprehend given the limitations of official reporting and the underreporting of incidents of violence against women (Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, & Lu, 1998; Nicoletti, Spencer-Thomas, & Bollinger, 2010) as well as the lack of recent and relevant research regarding reported institution statistics of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. Self-reported data on rape and sexual assault provide insight on the extent and nature of sexual crimes that many times go unreported to police and are therefore undercounted and not represented in official law enforcement statistics (Krebs et al., 2016). Researchers and federal policymakers acknowledge that sexual assault may be the largest unreported violent crime in the United States (Harrell et al., 2009; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2002).

Campus climate surveys are one way to help uncover unreported crimes, such as acts of violence against women, as well as assess the response by the institution to such acts of violence (Beres, Treharne, & Stojanov, 2019; Cantor et al., 2020; Wood, Sulley, Kammer-Kerwick, Follingstad, & Busch-Armendariz, 2017). Data gathered from the Association of American

Universities (AAU) Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Assault and Sexual Misconduct found that undergraduate women, as well as those students who identify as transgender or questioning, are at the highest risk for sexual violence (Cantor et al., 2015; Gialopsos, 2017). These populations experienced 23.1% and 24.1%, respectively, of unwanted sexual experiences that involved incapacitation or physical force since enrolling in their institutions (Cantor et al., 2015; Gialopsos, 2017). Such data collected through campus climate surveys would still not be captured as official institutional incidents as required by the Clery Act. These surveys also catalog issues and concerns with reporting sexual violence, intimate partner violence, and unwanted sexual experiences by providing an expansive and usually anonymous method in which students can report their experiences (Cantalupo, 2014).

Comparatively, the official Clery Act reports are difficult to use because they are not reflective of the behaviors of sexual assault and violence that actually occur as indicated in national and institutional climate surveys (Cantor et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2020; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Krebs et al., 2016; WHTF, 2014). For example, when considering the one-in-five estimate pulled from research, less than 5% of rapes or attempted rapes are officially reported to campus officials or law enforcement (20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)), and, as reported by Sinozich and Langton (2014), 80% of sexual assaults among college women were not reported between 1995-2013.

Further, sexual violence continues to be underreported. College women who are raped by someone they know are less likely to report the incident to the police than are college women raped by strangers (Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, & Turner, 2003). As such, less than 10% of student sexual violence cases are ever reported to university administrators or the police (Krebs et al., 2016). For comparison, at the national level, an estimated 23% of sexual violence cases are

reported to the police (U.S. DOJ, Office of Justice Programs [OJP], 2017). Researchers generally have found that victims are more likely to report to the police when incidents have characteristics that make them more believable, such as the use of a weapon, receipt of an injury, or perpetration by a stranger (Fisher et al., 2003; Thompson, Sitterle, Clay, & Kingree, 2007).

According to the Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs (2017), there was no significant change in the rates of sexual violence for both women and men from 2006 to 2015, which is surprising considering the changes to federal and state guidelines, policies, and legislation. Additionally, for the 21 institutions of higher education that participated in both the 2015 and 2019 AAU Campus Climate Survey on Sexual Assault and Sexual Misconduct, the rate of nonconsensual sexual experiences through physical force or the inability to provide consent increased for undergraduate women from 2015 to 2019 by three percentage points to 26.4% (Cantor et al., 2020). Over the past 20 years, the efforts surrounding sexual assault prevention and response have not significantly improved (DeGue et al., 2014; Edwards, 2009; WHTF, 2014). In particular, more research is needed regarding violence against women at institutions of higher education, especially in the areas of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. For example, acknowledging that more information is needed, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) has worked to develop a 20-year research agenda (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2016b). Since 1993, the NIJ has funded more than 200 studies on intimate partner violence, the majority of which has focused on violence against women (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2016b).

Another concern about crime statistics involving sexual assault, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking is the gender divide present within the data. While men also experience sexual assault, it is documented as occurring less frequently than women (Banyard, Ward, Cohn, & Plante, 2007; Breiding et al., 2014). It is estimated that over their lifetime, 1.4% to 2% of men

will have been raped (Black et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2017; U.S. DOJ, OJP, 2017); however, the vast majority of rape victims are women (Rennison, 2002; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006; Smith et al., 2017). Among undergraduate students, one study found that 5.4% of men experience rape or sexual assault (Cantor et al., 2015). There are additional barriers and taboos facing men who are victims of sexual violence (Sable et al., 2006) that would require its own study.

The issue of sexual violence against men is not something to ignore and is not something that I suggest is irrelevant. However, for the purpose of my study, Clery Act data will be used, which does not delineate between women and men or female and male victims. Clery Act mandated reporting does not include the gender or sex of the victim reporting the incident. In my study, analyzed cases were assumed to be women or female victims since there are so few cases of men being the victim of sexual assault or intimate partner violence. The main story of victims at institutions of higher education becomes a woman story.

Problem Statement

Students should be able to attend college free from experiencing sexual harassment or sexual violence. This promise was articulated almost 50 years ago through Title IX of the Education Amendments (1972), which explicitly prohibits sex discrimination in any educational institution or program receiving federal funding. Despite the existence of Title IX as well as the additional protections afforded to students by the federal Clery Act and other federal, state, and local laws, sexual harassment and sexual violence still interfere with the education of too many students. Experiences of this nature profoundly impact a student's ability to focus on their academic goals and can, therefore, diminish their equal access to educational opportunities (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014; Tremblay et al., 2008). Research substantiates that victimization

can have lasting psychological and emotional implications for students (Gardella et al., 2015; Harrell et al., 2009). This problem is particularly pressing for college women.

The importance of understanding the prevalence, incidence, and characteristics of rape and sexual assault is widely recognized; however, there remains a definitional ambiguity of rape and sexual assault incidents that can make accurately measuring them challenging for researchers (Krebs et al., 2016). The prevalence of campus sexual assault and intimate partner violence is also hard to quantify due to the number of aforementioned mediating factors. However, college and university officials have a legal and moral responsibility to accurately monitor, disclose, and diligently respond to sexual harassment, sexual assault, and intimate partner violence.

The problem is that data reported by higher education administrators through the Annual Security Report (ASR), as required by the federal government through the Clery Act, may not reflect the true nature of what is happening on college campuses and against college students regarding acts of sexual violence against college women, especially when considering evidence of data inaccuracy and missing information. In addition, there is a gap in the literature and research regarding federal policy implementation in general and its impact on Clery Act data reporting in particular in the categories of sexual assault and VAWA reportable crimes.

Federal Context of the Clery Act

There are several federal guidelines, policies, and legislation that directly address holding administrators responsible for reducing and ultimately eliminating violence against women at institutions of higher education, which will be addressed in the literature and policy review. However, it is important to give some immediate context of the federal climate over the last several years to help understand the scope of my study and the availability of reporting data.

White House Response to Violence Against Women

Sexual misconduct has been an issue at institutions of higher education for many years. Researchers have noted the substantial nature of this problem for over 30 years. As a result, the federal government, including White House administrations, increased its involvement.

Obama administration (2009-2017). For many in higher education, President Barack Obama represented the proactive movement towards addressing sexual assault and intimate partner violence issues (The White House Council on Women and Girls [WHC], 2016). The White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault was created in 2014 under Obama's leadership, and it was given the charge to strengthen institutional compliance under Title IX while providing institutions with tools to better respond to rape and sexual assault. The task force created guidelines and expectations along with preventative programming ideas to reduce and eventually eliminate violence against women attending college. The guidelines included: (1) a more detailed explanation on the meaning of sexual violence under Title IX as well as the steps that should be taken by administrators once an act of violence has been reported (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011); (2) the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) would publicly release all campus investigations that the office conducted; and (3) the "It's On Us" campaign was introduced on college campuses to educate campus constituents through prevention education in the three main areas of bystander intervention, consent education, and survivor support (Somanader, 2014).

These actions addressed sexual violence and intimate partner violence and created pathways for the prevention and elimination of such violence from happening. Relating to institutional compliance, most notable in these steps during President Obama's tenure was the April 4, 2011 Dear Colleague Letter (2011 DCL), which guided a new era of Title IX

enforcement for college and university administrators. The literature and policy review section goes into more detail with this seminal piece of guidance.

Trump administration (2017-present). President Donald Trump's administration has taken steps to remove the Obama administration's guidance on Title IX and sexual violence prevention. One of the first actions taken by the Secretary of Education, Betsy DeVos, was to officially rescind the seminal 2011 DCL through the September 22, 2017 Dear Colleague Letter (2017 DCL) (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2017a). In the 2017 DCL, the U.S. Department of Education (U.S. DOE) stated it was moving forward in developing new federal guidelines for institutions of higher education (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2017a). These new regulations were listed in a Notice of Proposed Rulemaking on November 16, 2018 (2018 NPR).

Today, almost 10 years after the 2011 DCL, higher education administrators find themselves in the center of a shift as the U.S. DOE moves towards enforcing a new and different approach to Title IX compliance. After an 18-month process, which included the solicitation and review of public comments following the release of the 2018 NPR, the Trump administration published final guidelines on May 6, 2020. The new regulations outlined how higher education officials should address complaints of sexual assault and sexual misconduct (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020). The new regulations are scheduled to go into effect on August 14, 2020, and all college and university administrators are required to comply.

Enhanced Enforcement of Title IX

Few issues have dominated U.S. higher education in the way that Title IX has during the enhanced enforcement period. The enhanced enforcement of Title IX is the time period starting with the issuance of the OCR's 2011 DCL to the present day. During this period, university administrators were held accountable to Title IX compliance through state and federal

guidelines, policies, and legislation. The topics of sexual assault, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking, in addition to the OCR's efforts to address student-on-student harassment, are pressing issues for higher education administrators. The OCR's increased enforcement and national media attention to a series of egregious university cases have placed pressure on administrators to do more for their students and campus communities. The Obama administration succeeded in calling national attention to the issue of violence against women, especially sexual violence.

Clery Act reporting. The Clery Act requires officials at institutions of higher education to release statistics for reported crimes based on to whom the crimes were reported, where the crimes occurred, the types of crimes that were reported, and the year in which the crimes were reported (U.S. DOE, 2016). It is important to emphasize that research on the issue of violence against women depends on data availability through the U.S. DOE and enforcement of Clery Act reporting through federal legislation and policies. Type of reporting and accuracy of data are also key to understanding the reality of women's experiences on college campuses.

Geography. Clery Act reporting requirements are specified by the geographical location of the crime (U.S. DOE, 2016). The policy requires disclosure of crimes that occur in the following areas: on campus, on public property within or immediately adjacent to the campus, and on or in non-campus buildings or properties that the institution owns or controls (U.S. DOE, 2002; U.S. DOE, 2016). Because of this stipulation in the law, the law can be confusing to consumers such as potential and current students and their families. While an incident might be considered a reportable crime, it will not be included in an institution's officially reported numbers if it does not occur in a Clery Act geographical area.

Reportable crimes. Not all crimes are required to be reported. Clery Act reportable crimes are categorized into four groups: criminal offenses, hate crimes, VAWA offenses (domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking), and arrests and referrals for disciplinary action (U.S. DOE, 2002). Geographical location and reportable crimes are two elements used to determine if a reported crime should be included in an institution's official crime statistics (20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)). Clery Act expectations are the same for every institution, regardless of institution type or size.

Purpose of the Study

The issue under investigation, assuming that the statistic of one-in-five college women will be the victim of sexual assault remains static, is to determine whether official reports of incidents of violence against women is portraying the true nature of the problem. A primary issue in preventing violence against women at institutions of higher education is capturing accurate data. The disparity between what is reported to campus officials and large-scale national survey data is problematic. It is indicative of real and perceived barriers to students reporting their experiences compounded with ineffective federal reporting guidelines. One way to fully understand if higher education administrators are making a cultural change regarding violence against women is to have reliable data to compare across years and across institutions.

The purpose of my study was to examine Clery Act data reporting over time and in relation to institution and enrollment characteristics in the categories of violent criminal offenses, specifically forcible sex offenses (rape, fondling) and VAWA offenses, which includes domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. Murder/non-negligent manslaughter (murder) and aggravated assault were the only additional offenses analyzed from the criminal offenses dataset as these are considered violent crimes and, in this way, are consistent with forcible sex offenses

and VAWA offenses¹. I also explored whether federal guidelines, policies, and legislation may have led to better and more accurate data collection through Clery Act reporting and discussed whether official reports of incidents of violence against college women is reflecting the true nature of the problem.

Research Questions

The following five research questions guided my study:

RQ 1: Are there differences by institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) when comparing institutions of higher education in the United States with systemic *missing* data on Clery Act reporting of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) and institutions with *complete* reporting of Clery Act data, between 2001-2017?

RQ 2: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2001-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

RQ 3: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2014-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of VAWA offenses (e.g., domestic violence, dating violence, stalking) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

¹ Other categories of criminal offenses were not considered for my study because they fall outside the scope of violent crimes and violence against women: manslaughter by negligence, robbery, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson; hate crimes; and arrests and referrals for disciplinary action.

RQ 4: Are there any differences in the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017) by specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization)?

RQ 5: What is the relative contribution of specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) and enrollment characteristics (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, student classification, Pell grants awarded) on the average number of forcible sex offenses and of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017)?

Method

This is a quantitative study based on the secondary data analysis of several databases obtained from the U.S. DOE (Campus Safety and Security online portal) and from the National Center for Education Statistics (Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System [IPEDS]). I collected available years of Clery Act statistics of criminal offenses and VAWA offenses and prepared several datafiles for analysis. The 2017 institutional factors extracted from IPEDS were also included in the datafiles. The analysis was conducted with SPSS 26 software and included descriptive and inferential statistics.

Theoretical Framework

The two established theoretical frameworks guiding my study are Astin's (1962, 1970, 1993) input-environment-output (I-E-O) model as well as Tetlock's (1985) accountability theory. Astin (1962, 1970, 1993) emphasized the importance that inputs (I) play in identifying how environments (E) influence outcomes (O). Astin's I-E-O model is a resourceful model to consider how differing inputs and specific outcomes are mediated by particular environments. I

employed the I-E-O model as a lens to interpret the reporting of specific offenses by institutions with different characteristics (i.e., institutions rather than individuals are the object of my investigation).

Additionally, higher education administrators, as representatives of the institution, need to be held accountable for the ways in which federal guidelines, policies, and legislation are interpreted and implemented on their campuses. Tetlock's (1985) accountability theory, often used in management and social psychology, can help to explain how federal guidelines, policies, and legislation regarding violence against women on college campuses are being addressed by institutions from an accountability perspective. Accountability helps to connect social systems together (Frink & Klimoski, 2004), so if institutions (through individuals, such as policymakers and university officials), were not held answerable to federal decisions, there would not be shared expectations or even a basis for social order and a safe campus culture. Utilizing these two frameworks to develop a new model will provide a unique way in which to analyze how policies related to violence against women are implemented at institutions of higher education through the first step of reporting practices.

Definitions of Key Terms

Several key terms are mentioned and referenced throughout my study. The following definitions are used to help the reader better understand what is discussed throughout my study.

Aggravated Assault

This criminal offenses category is defined as an unlawful attack of a person by another person for the specific purpose of inflicting severe bodily injury (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Annual Security Report (ASR)

The ASR is a mandatory reporting requirement as outlined in the Clery Act. The ASR includes, among many items, information on reported institution crime statistics, including rape, fondling, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking at institutions of higher education (Fisher & Sloan, 2013).

Compliance

Gregory and Janosik (2013) define compliance as the ability for higher education administrators to follow, understand, and implement the many legal requirements of the Clery Act.

Crime Definitions

The Handbook for Campus Safety and Security Reporting: 2016 Edition, which is the most updated publication from the U.S. DOE that defines Clery Act reporting guidelines, uses definitions from the Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI) Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program (34 CFR 668.46(c)(7)) and from the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) (U.S. DOE, 2014). Clery Act reportable crime definitions are modeled after the FBI UCR and not state laws (Cantalupo, 2011; Wood et al., 2017).

Dating Violence

This VAWA offenses category is classified as any violence committed by an individual who is currently or has previously been in a romantic or intimate relationship with the victim (U.S. DOE, 2016). Additionally, dating violence also includes, but is not limited to, sexual or physical abuse or the threat of such abuse (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Domestic Violence

This VAWA offenses category is defined as any violence committed by a current or former spouse or intimate partner of the victim or by a person with whom the victim shares a child in common (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Fondling

The definition of fondling is the touching of the private body parts of another individual for the purpose of sexual gratification without the consent of the victim (U.S. DOE, 2016). This includes when the victim is unable to give consent (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2015) define IPV as instances in which individuals are physically, verbally, psychologically, emotionally, and/or sexually harmed by a current or former romantic partner or spouse. IPV may also refer to domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2007).

Murder/Non-negligent Manslaughter (Murder)

This criminal offenses category is defined as any death caused by injuries received in a fight, assault, or during a crime (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Office for Civil Rights (OCR)

The OCR is the part of the U.S. DOE that is responsible for ensuring access to educational programs and activities by enforcing several federal civil rights laws that prohibit discrimination (U.S. DOE, 2020a). This enforcement applies to institutions of higher education that receive Title IV funding.

Rape/Acquaintance Rape

This criminal act is described as “the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus, with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without

the consent of the victim” (U.S. DOE, 2016, pp. 3-6). The UCR program outlines a narrow definition of rape, and state laws delineate broader behaviors to not only define rape but also sexual assault, including both completed and attempted acts of such violence (Wood et al., 2017).

Sexual Assault

The definition of sexual assault is any sexual act directed against another individual, without consent of the victim, including instances where the victim is unable to give consent (U.S. DOE, 2016). It is an offense that meets the definitions of rape or fondling (forcible sex offenses) (U.S. DOE, 2016). The FBI (2014) additionally describes sexual assault as any type of sexual behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the victim.

Sexual Harassment

Unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature such as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and/or physical or verbal conduct of a sexual nature is considered sexual harassment (Bursik & Gefter, 2011). Starting August 14, 2020, the definition will become narrower by needing to meet the entire standard that unwelcome conduct is "so severe, pervasive, and objectively offensive" that it denies a person equal access to an institution's education programs or activities (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020). An action could also be considered sexual harassment if a reasonable person would agree (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020).

Sexual Misconduct

This is a broad term that encompasses any unwelcome behavior of a sexual nature that is committed without consent or by force, intimidation, or coercion (U.S. DOE, 2016). Examples include, but are not limited to, sexual assault and sexual harassment (U.S. DOE, 2016; Wies, 2015). Several studies recommend using the term sexual misconduct when conducting research

on unwanted sexual experiences (Burn, 2009; Koss, 2011; Krivoshey, Adkins, Hayes, Nemeth, & Klein, 2013).

Sexual Violence

According to the CDC (2015), sexual violence is an unwanted sexual act that is committed or attempted, either through verbal or physical force, without freely given consent of the victim. This includes sexual harassment, sexual assault, pressuring or intimidating an individual for sexual contact, violence during sexual contact, and rape (CDC, 2015). Explained another way, sexual violence describes physical acts perpetrated against a person's will or where a person is incapable of giving consent due to the victim's use of drugs or alcohol (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2014). Sexual violence can sometimes be used interchangeably with sexual assault, depending on the researcher.

Sex Offenses – Forcible

This was a Clery Act criminal offenses reportable category until 2013, which included rape, sodomy, sexual assault with an object, and fondling. With the reauthorization of VAWA in 2013, reporting forcible sex offenses changed from the category “sex offenses – forcible” to the categories of “rape” and “fondling” (U.S. DOE, 2014).

Stalking

This VAWA offenses category is described as the behaviors of an individual who engages in conduct directed at a specific person that would cause a reasonable person to fear for their personal safety or the safety of others or endure substantial emotional distress (U.S. DOE, 2016).

Victim/Survivor

There is debate among scholars and practitioners about whether to use the term “victim” or “survivor” when studying or working with individuals who have experienced sexual violence or intimate partner violence. Current literature uses both terms. Since my study is a quantitative study where federal terminology is referenced, the term victim will be used.

Violence Against Women

This Clery Act category includes the reporting of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. Sexual assault is included by the FBI as a Clery Act criminal offense through the reporting of rape and fondling, while the other three categories were recently added to the Clery Act through a VAWA reauthorization. For the purpose of my study, this term is defined as any unwanted sexual experience or act of sexual violence, including rape and attempted rape, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking that occurs in the life of a woman while she is part of a college community, regardless of where the violence occurred.

Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study

Violence against women attending institutions of higher education is a pervasive issue; however, little research has been done on whether federal guidelines, policies, and legislation have led to better and more accurate data collection through Clery Act reporting. Additionally, there is a gap in research pertaining to domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking at colleges and universities. My study is significant because it will provide a unique perspective in analyzing higher education institutions’ Clery Act reporting as well as help policymakers make data-informed decisions related to policy that is aimed at reducing violence against women on college campuses. It will help government officials hold higher education administrators accountable for accurately reporting criminal and VAWA offenses and creating the necessary programs and services to meet the needs of students.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND POLICY

This review of literature and policy is organized to reflect a synthesis of research on violence against women nationally and at institutions of higher education as well as federal policy implementation that has had an impact and influence on the Clery Act evolution, implementation, and reporting of acts of violence against women. Included is a brief overview of the history of social movements impacting higher education, which includes some of the social movements that impacted public opinion and legislation. Exploring violence against women through national surveys as well as through studies examining college women's experiences helps to lay the groundwork for the federal government's response to this issue. Federal guidelines, policies, and legislation related to violence against women that have had an impact in how university administrators respond to the requirements of Clery Act reporting are also outlined. Finally, Astin's (1962, 1970, 1993) input-environment-output (I-E-O) model and Tetlock's (1985) accountability theory are introduced as theoretical frameworks to discuss violence against women at institutions of higher education.

Brief History of Social Movements Impacting Higher Education

Violence against women attending institutions of higher education is nothing new. In the United States, sexual violence has been an issue since the beginning of formalized higher education (Sloan & Fisher, 2011). While examples of this have been uncovered as far back as the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in written documentation by students (Sloan & Fisher, 2011), social movements and research on the topic did not really begin until the twentieth century.

Research about sexual misconduct at institutions of higher education began in the 1950s with one of the earliest studies in 1957 by Kirkpatrick and Kanin where they examined college women's reports of men's aggressiveness in relationships (Jessup-Anger, Lopez, & Koss, 2018). Among Kirkpatrick and Kanin's (1957) findings was that more than 25% of women participants reported attempted or completed sexual assaults. Like present-day findings, the women in the study did not officially report the incidents.

Although sexual misconduct on college campuses is not new, the understanding of violence against women as a social and health concern is fairly recent, due in large part to the feminist movements and ideological shifts in the 1970s (Bevacqua, 2000) as well as the continued ideological shifts into the 1980s and 1990s (Chasteen, 2001). There was increased awareness of sexual misconduct on postsecondary campuses because of the second-wave feminist movement in the 1970s (Bevacqua, 2000; Jessup-Anger et al., 2018). College women came together to discuss their experiences and recognized that they shared similar stories of sexual harassment and sexual assault. During this time, Susan Brownmiller's (1975) *Against Our Will: Men, Women, and Rape* helped the public better understand that unwanted sexual experiences were acts of aggression, violence, and power.

The Victim's Rights Movement of the 1970s was influential in bringing attention to how society viewed victims of crime, including violence against women (Johnson, 2015; Young & Stein, 2004). The movement worked in recognizing the voice of victims. Advocates and activists raised concerns about antiquated laws in addition to how sexual assault victims were treated during investigations and court proceedings (Best, 1999; Johnson, 2015).

The Rape Reform Movement from 1970 to 2000 was a result of society's increased awareness of rape and the advocacy for victims' rights (Carnigella, 2009). This influential social

movement redefined the way rape was conceptualized. The momentum for advocacy regarding violence against women continued into the 1980s and 1990s. Similar to the Victim's Rights Movement, two of the areas in which victims and advocates were still expressing concern was the treatment of victims by the courts as well as through public scrutiny (Carnigella, 2009; Sloan & Fisher, 2011). They believed rape was a violation of civil rights and should, therefore, be considered a discrimination crime against women (Best, 1999; Carnigella, 2009). This idea laid some of the groundwork for Title IX enforcement on college campuses. Their goal was to influence policymakers through policy formation, research, social movements, and advocacy efforts.

The primary goal of the Rape Reform Movement, also known as the Anti-Rape Movement, was to change the persecution of rape victims to the prosecution of rape perpetrators (Carnigella, 2009). Rape reform laws during this time changed the standards and conditions used in rape cases (Carnigella, 2009; Sloan & Fisher, 2011). However, despite the progress made towards educating individuals about violence against women, especially sexual assault, and the steps needed to address the issue, acquaintance rape without the use of force by the perpetrator as well as resistance by the victim was still not considered an assault (Cairney, 1995; *Commonwealth v. Berkowitz*, 1992). This is important to note as acquaintance rape is a type of rape most common among college students (Cairney, 1995).

As anti-rape activism spread throughout the United States in the late 1980s and early 1990s, institutions of higher education began to provide programs and services to support victims (Jessup-Anger et al., 2018; Mosteller, 1997). Activists wanted to educate the public that the behavior of rape did not require the use of force. Instead, the act of rape was defined by any penetration that occurred after a woman refused to have sex. "No means no" then became the

motto for the anti-rape movement (Anderson, 2016). These social awareness campaigns affected change. For example, most state laws were updated to exclude the use of force as part of the legal definition of rape (Anderson, 2016; Cairney, 1995). One activist program that became popular on college campuses and in communities alike were “Take Back the Night” rallies and marches that promoted the creation of safe communities and respectful relationships (Greensite, 2003).

The Victim’s Rights and Rape Reform Movements were successful with increasing the public’s awareness of violence against women (LaFree, 1989; McMahon, 2011) as well as challenging traditional interpretations of rape (Chasteen, 2001). It was helpful in formulating policy and legal changes to specifically address violence against women happening at institutions of higher education (Anderson, 2016). In addition, the wide range of institutional responses to sexual violence was an impetus for much of the federal and congressional guidance that followed (Jessup-Anger et al., 2018).

There is not much data concerning violence against women on college campuses prior to the passage of the Clery Act in 1990. Prior to the Clery Act, the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) program maintained by the FBI was the only official database tracking campus crime statistics (Cockey, Sherrill, & Cave, 1989). Reporting was voluntary, with only about 10% to 15% of institutions of higher education participating (Cockey, Sherrill, & Cave, 1989). Therefore, this was not a reliable source to examine and understand the reality of crime at colleges and universities.

As previously discussed, sexual violence has been framed within the feminist framework. Therefore, most sexual violence and intimate partner violence research has focused on women and female victims (Graham, 2006; Mezey & King, 2000; Weiss, 2010). The majority of the

literature on the topic of sexual misconduct in higher education focuses on sexual violence against women. This is, undoubtedly, reflective of the data that indicate an overwhelming majority of cases involve women as the victim. Men, though, have also been subject to sexual violence; however, little research has been done to investigate the trends of sexual assault against college men.

Research on Violence Against Women

While many studies and reports indicate that violence against women is a pervasive problem, there are ranges in the estimated prevalence. For example, studies of college samples quantified sexual assault at 21% to 42% among women (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002; Fisher et al., 2000; Gross, Winslett, Roberts, & Gohm, 2006; Harrell et al., 2009; Kalof, 2000; Synovitz & Byrne, 1998; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). It is often difficult to compare rates and percentages across studies because of differences in definitions of key terminology, methodology, and data collection parameters. For instance, regarding the lack of standardized definitions of different types of violence against women, Acierno, Resnick, and Kilpatrick (1997) note that depending on the study, rape can be defined differently. One study might narrowly define rape as forced vaginal intercourse without consent, another study might include the phrasing of forced penetration of any kind, and yet another study might describe rape as any unforced penetration while the victim is under the influence of drugs or alcohol (Acierno et al., 1997). Another example has been the gradual recognition and inclusion of acquaintance rape as a specific category of rape (Fisher, Cullen, & Daigle, 2005; Harrell et al., 2009).

The definitional differences can be attributed to the different sponsors or even fields of study, in that government agencies tend to use more narrow definitions as compared with the broader definitions used by the public health field (Harrell et al., 2009). Therefore, use of

particular terminology can have implications for the study and resulting measurement of violence against women. While the lexicon has evolved, there is still the issue as to whether these definitions are relevant to the victim. For example, while many incidents meet the legal definition of sexual assault, some victims may not describe their experience as such (Harrell et al., 2009).

Additionally, there are also methodology and data collection issues. The way in which data is collected, whether it is directly from individuals or from records, is an important consideration (Desai & Saltzman, 2001; Fisher & Cullen, 2000; Harrell et al., 2009). The procedures used to obtain the information as well as the time period being studied also need to be determined (Desai & Saltzman, 2001; Fisher & Cullen, 2000; Harrell et al., 2009). Moreover, data collected through official reporting channels, such as law enforcement or the Clery Act, are further confounded because relatively few rape victims, for instance, officially report their victimization (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Harrell et al., 2009; Karjane et al., 2002).

Generally, estimates of violence against women are dependent on how the questions are asked and the types of survey methods used (Fisher, 2009; Fisher & Cullen, 2000; Fisher, Peterson, & Cantor, 2016; Gialopsos, 2017; Koss, 1992; Krebs et al., 2016). Therefore, prevalence measures tend to compare unlike data. Nonetheless, numerous researchers and government agencies claim a consistent sexual assault prevalence rate that one-in-five women will be the victim of sexual assault while attending an institution of higher education (American College Health Association, 2012; Anderson & Clement, 2015; Black et al., 2011; Bradley et al., 2009; Edwards, 2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane et al., 2005; Suzuki, 2013; U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). Furthermore, different populations have different risk and victimization rates, which means that including or omitting particularly marginalized or

vulnerable groups can change results considerably (Cantor et al., 2015; Harrell et al., 2009; Hazen & Soriano, 2007; Kalof, 2000; Wahab & Olson, 2004). The following two sections will present national surveys designed to (1) collect data on violence against women in general and (2) examine college women's experiences in particular that have been highly referenced in the research and literature as well as used by policymakers when addressing violence against women nationally and on university campuses.

National Surveys – All Women

There are generally two approaches to measuring violence against women utilizing surveys. Surveys are found to have either a criminal justice perspective or a public health perspective. The criminal justice perspective measures criminal victimizations whereas the public health approach focuses more broadly on violence against women and the impact that this type of violence has on an individual (Kruttschnitt, Kalsbeek, & House, 2014; U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2016a). The National Crime Victimization Survey is an example of the criminal justice perspective, and the National Women's Study, the National Violence Against Women Survey, and the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey are examples of the public health approach.

National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). The NCVS, developed by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS), is one of the nation's primary sources of information on criminal victimization (U.S. DOJ, OJP, Bureau of Justice Statistics [BJS], 2016). The survey was first conducted in 1973 and has continued annually, with 2018 being the most recent year of available data. Two goals of the survey are to estimate the number and types of crimes not reported to law enforcement and to collect longitudinal data to have year-to-year comparisons. Each year, data are obtained from a nationally representative sample of 160,000 people (U.S. DOJ, OJP, BJS,

2016). The NCVS collects information on aggravated assault and sexual assault, among many criminal victimization categories, both reported and not reported to law enforcement. Survey respondents share demographic information about themselves in addition to whether they were a victim of a crime. For each incident, the NCVS collects details about the crime, whether the crime was reported to law enforcement, reasons the crime was or was not reported, and individual experiences with the criminal justice system (U.S. DOJ, OJP, BJS, 2016).

According to the 2018 NCVS survey results, the number of victims of violent crimes rose from 2.7 million in 2015 to 3.3 million in 2018, an increase of 604,000 victims (Morgan & Oudekerk, 2019). This overall rise was driven by increases in the number of victims of aggravated assault and rape or sexual assault (Morgan & Oudekerk, 2019). Additionally, only 43% of violent victimizations were reported to the police (Morgan & Oudekerk, 2019).

National Women's Study (NWS). The NWS was conducted from 1989-1991 with funding from the National Institute of Drug Abuse. This research was one of the first times in which measures of rape and sexual assault on a national level were produced within the context of public health (Kruttschnitt et al., 2014; U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2016a). The NWS estimated prevalence of attempted and completed sexual assault using a national sample of 4,008 women rather than only estimating the number of incidents of rape as was measured by the NCVS. Through the NWS survey, it was estimated that 683,000 women per year were raped in the United States (Kruttschnitt et al., 2014). This total was five times higher than the number of incidents estimated that same year by the NCVS, and almost seven times the number of incidents summarized by the FBI's UCR program (Kruttschnitt et al., 2014). The NWS was one of the first large, national studies that provided evidence that rape was undercounted on both the NCVS and UCR program.

National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS). There was a continued need to better understand the nature of sexual violence and intimate partner violence. Such understanding should lead to more accurate and reliable data (Starheim, 2019). Surveys that design questions within the context of crime do not necessarily provide applicable and relevant data on respondents' experiences with violence, in part because individuals do not always self-identify as victims of crime (Starheim, 2019). In 1995, to address the gap in research, the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) partnered with the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) on the creation of the NVAWS (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2000).

A total of 8,000 women and 8,005 men were interviewed from 1995 to 1996 (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2000). The survey revealed that violence against women was primarily intimate partner violence. Women experienced more intimate partner violence than men where 22.1% of women respondents, compared with 7.4% of men respondents, shared they were physically assaulted by an intimate partner in their lifetime (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2000). Approximately two-thirds of women who reported being sexually assaulted, physically assaulted, and/or stalked were victimized by an intimate partner (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2000). Additionally, over 50% of the women who were surveyed reported being physically assaulted at some point in their lives (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2000). The NVAWS also found that 3% of the men in the sample reported being a victim of a completed rape or sexual assault in their lifetime (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). Regarding stalking, 8.1% of women respondents and 2.2% of men respondents indicated being stalked at some time in their life (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006).

The NVAWS has been considered a more reliable representation of rates of violence against women compared to other surveys that focus on victimization within the context of crime. One reason for this is because the NVAWS did not depend only on officially reported

offenses as most crimes go unreported (Starheim, 2019). A second reason is because the NVAWS was designed with detailed, behavior specific questions about related experiences. By asking questions that avoid legal terms and instead asking about a perpetrator's specific behaviors, the survey avoided attributing blame or labeling respondents as victims (Starheim, 2019). This survey laid the groundwork for the development of the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey.

National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS). Developed by the CDC in 2010, the NISVS is an ongoing survey that collects the most current and comprehensive national- and state-level data on sexual violence and intimate partner violence among women and men in the United States (Smith et al., 2018). The NISVS collects data that is used to track trends over time to be used to better inform public health action and response. The most recent data available is from 2015 in which interviews were completed by 5,758 women and 4,323 men (Smith et al., 2018).

The results of the survey indicated approximately one in five (an estimated 25.5 million) women in the U.S. reported completed or attempted rape at some point in their lifetime while that number for men was one in 50, for comparison (Smith et al., 2018). Millions of women and men have been stalked at some point in their lifetime, with nearly one in six women and one in 17 men experiencing stalking (Smith et al., 2018). According to the NISVS, across the different types of violence studied, most first-time victimization occurred prior to the age of 25 (Smith et al., 2018).

National Surveys – College Women

College-age women are more likely than women in general to experience sexual misconduct (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). It is important, therefore, to survey and study this

population in more detail. The Sexual Experiences Survey, the National College Women Sexual Victimization Study, the Campus Sexual Assault Study, and the study entitled, “Campus Sexual Assault: How America’s Institutions of Higher Education Respond,” are relevant for the field of higher education as they are designed to examine college women’s experiences with violence against women.

Sexual Experiences Survey (SES). The SES was originally developed and then revised by Mary Koss and colleagues and is considered one of the most widely used measures of campus sexual assault (Davis et al., 2014; Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss et al., 1987; Koss et al., 2007), probably due to its longevity. When Koss and Oros (1982) developed the SES, it broadened the definition of rape to include coercion or harassment. The design of the SES pioneered the use of behaviorally descriptive words regarding sexual assault, rather than relying on potentially stigmatizing labels such as rape, to improve the accuracy of reporting rates (Davis et al., 2014; Koss, 1993). Researchers have found that the use of assessments focused on descriptive behaviors results in reporting rates four to 11 times higher than surveys using less behaviorally specific items (Davis et al., 2014; Fisher, 2009). The SES resulted in quantifying many unreported incidents of sexual misconduct on college campuses (Koss & Oros, 1982).

In 1987, Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski administered the survey to 6,159 college-age women and men from 32 institutions of higher education, which represented diverse higher education settings across the U.S. The landmark national study, the first of its kind, indicated that 27.7% of the 3,187 women in the study reported being a victim of sexual assault (Koss et al., 1987). Men surveyed were asked about perpetrating acts of sexual violence. There have been several versions of the SES since its original publication (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005). Improvements to the revised versions included terminology clarifications, gender neutrality,

greater distinctions between types of unwanted sexual experiences, and improved explanations of alcohol- or drug-involved assaults, among several other changes (Davis et al., 2014).

National College Women Sexual Victimization Study (NCWSV). One way the federal government recognized the importance of having accurate information and data regarding sexual violence on college campuses was through the passage of the Clery Act (20 U.S.C. § 1092). The NCWSV was a direct response to those concerns and the creation of the Clery Act. It was conducted in 1997 with funding from the NIJ (Fisher et al., 2000).

The NCWSV gathered information from a randomly selected national sample of 4,446 women who were attending a two-year or four-year institution of higher education with at least 1,000 students during the fall of 1996 (Fisher et al., 2000). The rates detailed in the report are based on an academic year, not a calendar year. Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) cautioned that forecasting results beyond a study's specific reference period is problematic since it is unknown if the risk of victimization is the same outside the studied period. However, it is very likely that these rates would be higher if the researchers had considered an entire calendar year versus just an academic year (U.S. DOJ, NIJ, 2016a).

Moreover, most victims, nearly 90%, knew the person who sexually victimized them, and the majority of victimizations occurred in a residence (Fisher et al., 2000). Fewer than 5% of completed and attempted rapes were reported to the police (Fisher et al., 2000). Additional questions on stalking uncovered that 13.1% of female students had been stalked since the beginning of the school year (Fisher et al., 2000). Findings suggest the need for additional research on how to better support college women with the lasting psychological and emotional implications caused by the experience of sexual victimization.

Campus Sexual Assault Study (CSA). The CSA was conducted in 2006 with support from the NIJ with the objective to document the prevalence of sexual assault among women attending institutions of higher education in addition to the context, consequences, and reporting of specific types of sexual assault (Krebs et al., 2007). The sample included 5,446 women and 1,375 men who were enrolled at least three-quarter time as undergraduate students during the 2005-2006 academic year at two large public universities (Krebs et al., 2007).

Findings from the study showed that 19%, or 1,073, undergraduate women reported being a victim of attempted or completed sexual assault while in college (Krebs et al., 2007). That percentage increased to 26.3% when looking at women respondents in their senior year of college. Additionally, 7.8% of women were sexually assaulted while incapacitated after voluntarily consuming drugs and/or alcohol (Krebs et al., 2007). Not surprisingly, the CSA uncovered that the prevalence of sexual assault among male college students was substantially lower than for women. For example, a total of 50 men (3.7%) reported being victims of sexual assault since entering college (Krebs et al., 2007).

A primary implication from the CSA was the need to integrate alcohol and drug conversations into violence prevention and risk reduction programming (Krebs et al., 2007). Finally, findings suggested that additional research is needed in several areas including documenting the severity of the issue, understanding the impact on certain minority groups, determining implications of reporting as well as non-reporting of incidents, exploring approaches in the prevention and reduction of sexual assault, and supporting victims through programs and services (Krebs et al., 2007).

Campus sexual assault: How America's institutions of higher education respond. As awareness of violence against women at institutions of higher education grew, researchers began

to investigate institutional responses. Prior to the campus sexual assault institutional response study, there was scarce systematic information that had been publicly available about sexual assault policies, procedures, and programs at colleges and universities. Karjane, Fisher, and Cullen's (2002) campus sexual assault study was mandated by the U.S. Congress to learn more about and to address issues surrounding violence prevention efforts, victim support services, reporting policies, real or perceived barriers to reporting, and student conduct policies to include sanctions (Karjane et al., 2002). With support from the NIJ, a comprehensive, national study was conducted to examine the responses of college and university administrators to campus sexual assault. The national sample was comprised of 2,438 institutions of higher education.

Karjane et al. (2002) studied institutional responses to sexual assault by examining campus codes of conduct and the terminology contained therein, data related to prevalence of sexual violence on campus, and published policies and procedures that covered reporting and resources. Findings indicated there was substantial variation among institutions with the handling of sexual assault (Karjane et al., 2002). Unfortunately, many of these areas remain issues today (Black et al., 2011). The study uncovered that only 36.5% of institutions reported crime statistics in a manner that was fully consistent with the Clery Act (Karjane et al., 2002). Additionally, 97% of universities that had a sexual assault policy did not mention stalking (Karjane et al., 2002).

To compound the issue further, the institutional compliance difficulties with federal guidelines, policies, and legislation has led to inconsistencies in the implementation of prevention programs at some institutions of higher education (Karjane et al., 2005). One key finding was the lack of standard definitions of rape and sexual assault as these definitions varied across institutions and states (Karjane et al., 2005).

Federal Guidelines, Policies, and Legislation

Policymakers identify and gather information about current issues that need to be addressed and then work towards creating a different and hopefully better future through the development of policy (Smith & Larimer, 2017). When creating policy, policymakers must determine how the current issue developed and how earlier attempts at solving the issue or similar issues failed or succeeded. Interpreting and understanding previous policy processes can help influence current policy, through the lens of current concerns, pressures, and priorities (Smith & Larimer, 2017). Policy evaluation can be described as a formal process of assessing what has already taken place to determine future policy priorities (Smith & Larimer, 2017). Conclusions about the success or failure of policies is a matter of perspective. The judgment regarding the failure of a policy could be because an objective was not met; however, perhaps the policy was never designed or intended to meet that particular objective. When it is time to re-evaluate a specific policy, the policy cycle starts again (Perche, 2011).

The federal government acknowledges that violence against women on college campuses is a problem that needs to be addressed. Federal guidelines, policies, and legislation specifically outline that institutions of higher education must comply with certain requirements in order to continue receiving Title IV funding by way of federal financial aid such as Pell grants, Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity grants, and federally funded student loans.

Reviewing federal mandates allows for the examination of “interlocking structural factors, changes over time, and differences across space” (Adelman, 2004, p. 61) when addressing violence against women. Further, this follows the approach that Dobash and Dobash (1983) called for when examining acts of violence against women, which is to situate the problem in historical, institutional, and interactional contexts. Below is a history and summary of

federal guidelines, policies, and legislation that directly impact university administrators in their work addressing violence against women.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX)

Title IX is the foundational federal law from which future guidelines, policies, and legislation addressing violence against women have originated and referenced. The law prohibits sex-based discrimination in educational institutions receiving federal assistance. Initially, the law moved the higher education dialogue to a focus on inequity and addressed gender equity in athletics. In 2001, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) revised the sexual harassment guidelines outlined in Title IX to specifically prohibit sexual harassment that prevents students from pursuing their studies or having access to all institutional activities (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2001). Sexual harassment is a form of sex-based discrimination, and sexual violence and intimate partner violence, in turn, are severe forms of sexual harassment. Responses from campus climate surveys, however, would not be reported under Title IX requirements as collecting anonymous data would not be considered disclosures. This essentially exempts researchers from Title IX reporting requirements.

Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act of 1990 (Clery Act)

Guidelines, policies, and legislation addressing the prevention of and response to violence against women often arise in direct response to specific incidents. The Clery Act is an example of one such statute. The evolution of the Clery Act over a span of almost 30 years has held officials at institutions of higher education accountable to the reporting of violent acts against women, among many other reportable crimes.

The Clery Act (20 U.S.C. § 1092) requires all institutions of higher education receiving Title IV financial assistance programs to disclose campus crime statistics and security information that were reported to campus officials (U.S. DOE, 2016). These crime statistics include rape, fondling, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. Institutions publicly report this information on an annual basis, allowing students, families, staff, and faculty to be better informed consumers about the campus culture and environment they will be joining.

In 1986, freshman Jeanne Clery was raped and murdered in her residence hall room at Lehigh University in Pennsylvania. The incident led to increased attention regarding unreported crimes on college and university campuses across the country. Groundwork for the Clery Act was passed in Pennsylvania in 1988. The College and University Security Act required Pennsylvania colleges and universities to report crime statistics and to provide descriptions of safety and security policies, which also included maintaining an open crime log (Sloan, Fisher, & Cullen, 1997).

Congress then enacted Title II of the Student Right-to-Know and Campus Security Act of 1990 (Sloan et al., 1997). The act required all Title IV eligible institutions of higher education to record campus crime statistics, crime prevention, and safety policies and procedures. The act required institutions to produce reports and subsequent disclosure to current and prospective students and employees. The act has been amended five times since 1990 to include increased safety and reporting procedures.

In 1992, the Campus Sexual Assault Victims' Bill of Rights was created to require institutions of higher education to ensure campus sexual assault victims certain basic rights, such as being informed of their options to notify law enforcement and being notified of counseling

services (Pub. L. No. 102-325, § 486(c), 1992). Additionally, this amendment required institutions to have policies in place to address sexual violence.

Six years later in 1998, the act was officially renamed for Jeanne Clery. The Clery Act eliminated loopholes, mandated daily security crime logs, and expanded reporting requirements to include data for certain off-campus areas (20 U.S.C. § 1092). It also emphasized reporting obligations regarding sexual assault on campus (20 U.S.C. § 1092). The Higher Education Opportunity Act of 2008 widened the Clery Act scope with expanded emergency response and notification requirements as well as annual U.S. DOE reporting on Clery Act compliance, among other provisions (U.S. DOE, 2010).

Finally, in 2013, the VAWA amendments provided wide-ranging requirements to improve the criminal justice response to sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking against women. This included Section 304 of VAWA which intentionally aligned the law with the Clery Act by enforcing reporting requirements to include domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking, among the other reportable incidents (McCallion, 2014). This reauthorization enhanced the relationship between Title IX and the Clery Act and broadened the scope of how higher education administrators would address sexual violence on college campuses.

Violence Against Women Act (VAWA)

The Violence Against Women Act of 1994, with its subsequent reauthorizations in 2000, 2005, and 2013, included programmatic funding among its many provisions. This funding was made available through federal grants to institutions of higher education by means of an extensive application process (U.S. DOE, 2014). As with any grant funding, there are specific and timely eligibility requirements, qualifications, program parameters, deliverables, and

reporting, many of which are tied directly to federal legislation. These funds have helped dozens of institutions of higher education create prevention and educational programming specific to the needs of their campus communities. Overall, this legislation provided federal protections for women to better address the issue of violence against women.

The Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act of 2013, more commonly known as the Campus SaVE Act, was an update to the VAWA amendment of the Clery Act. The Campus SaVE Act increased transparency requirements for institutions of higher education to address and prevent sexual violence on campus to include guaranteeing rights for victims, establishing disciplinary proceedings, and requiring education programs (U.S. DOE, 2014). Among many items, it required the intentional education of students, staff, and faculty at all institutions of higher education on the prevention of rape, acquaintance rape, sexual assault, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (U.S. DOE, 2014).

April 4, 2011 Dear Colleague Letter (2011 DCL)

The 2011 DCL, considered a significant guidance document, was issued by the OCR to assist every college and university to comply with Title IX. The OCR substantially expanded its interpretation of Title IX. It reminded university administrators of Title IX requirements that strictly prohibited sexual harassment, which the OCR indicated also included incidents both on and off campus. The OCR, through the 2011 DCL, announced that sexual assault against women on college campuses had become an epidemic (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). The 2011 DCL reiterated and stressed that sexual assault was a form of sex discrimination, which is prohibited under Title IX, and that institutions must respond promptly and equitably to reports of sexual assault.

The OCR mandated university administrators to adopt sexual assault policies as well as grievance procedures that were easy to understand and widely distributed (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). The OCR endorsed institutionalizing educational prevention programs to include definitions of sexual harassment and sexual violence (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). Through educational programming, students, staff, and faculty would learn to recognize the components of sexual harassment and sexual violence, which could help them move towards creating a campus culture that does not condone or tolerate such behavior. The 2011 DCL also outlined the preponderance of evidence standard for sexual misconduct cases. This allowed administrators to find an individual “responsible” if the evidence presented has a high likelihood of greater weight (or more likely than not) of the evidence pointing to the decision that sexual misconduct occurred. Finally, a Title IX Coordinator position would need to be established to direct such efforts (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011).

September 22, 2017 Dear Colleague Letter (2017 DCL)

The 2017 DCL officially rescinded the seminal 2011 DCL as well as the follow-up guidance outlined in the April 29, 2014 Questions and Answers on Title IX and Sexual Violence. In the 2017 letter, the U.S. DOE stated it was moving forward in developing new Title IX federal guidelines for institutions of higher education (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2017a). While the document, like other Dear Colleague Letters, did not add requirements to applicable law, it was seen as a significant guidance document. Released at the same time, a document covering various questions and answers addressed such topics as an institution’s responsibility to address sexual misconduct, the Clery Act, and interim measures (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2017b).

November 16, 2018 Notice of Proposed Rulemaking (2018 NPR)

The proposed Title IX regulations were listed in the 2018 NPR with a 60-day public comment period that was eventually extended to give more time for individuals and advocacy groups to respond. As a result, an unprecedented number of comments were submitted, totaling more than 124,000 (U.S. DOE, 2020b). The proposed regulations would change Title IX regulatory requirements. Specifically, in order to comply with the new Title IX requirements, institutions would need to address remedies for violations, how students' Constitutional rights would be upheld, a compliance officer in the form of a Title IX Coordinator for each institution, and disseminate a nondiscrimination policy which articulates grievance procedures (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2018).

The proposed regulations would also specify how officials at institutions of higher education must respond to incidents of sexual harassment consistent with Title IX's prohibition against sex discrimination (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2018). A major focus of the proposed regulations was ensuring that due process protections were in place for individuals accused of sexual harassment (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2018).

May 6, 2020 amendments to Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

The most recent federal legislation that directly impacts how higher education administrators will respond to incidents of violence against women is the May 6, 2020 amendments to Title IX. The amendments are the culmination of the processes started with the 2017 DCL and 2018 NPR as initiated by the Trump administration's Secretary of Education, Betsy DeVos. Compliance with the rule is mandatory, not advisory, as with Dear Colleague Letters. The legislation will set the standard for administrative enforcement of Title IX and will force changes in institutional Title IX policies and practices, as outlined in the over 2,000-page

document. The OCR (2020) issued the final rule governing institutions' obligations to investigate sexual harassment and sexual assault complaints under Title IX. As of now, the final rule is effective August 14, 2020; however, litigation challenging the regulation has been filed. There is the potential that federal court injunctions may alter the effective date for all or portions of the regulation.

The final regulations specify how institutions of higher education that receive federal financial assistance covered by Title IX must respond to allegations of sexual harassment consistent with Title IX's prohibition against sex discrimination (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020). Moving forward, alleged student perpetrators of sexual harassment or sexual assault will have added protections, including the presumption that they are not responsible throughout the institution's process, and they will have the right to access all evidence collected against them (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020). The alleged perpetrators can also cross-examine their accusers, and vice versa, during live hearings, although this questioning must be done through a representative, such as a lawyer (U.S. DOE, OCR, 2020).

My study focused on the 2001-2017 period during which accountability toward forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses was influenced by the Clery Act (1990) and the Violence Against Women Act (1994) that prepared the terrain for data collection, as well as the 2011 and 2017 Dear Colleague Letters that directly impacted how higher education administrators would approach their work with violence against women on their campuses. Future research will need to focus on the changes to reporting from 2018 forward, starting with the 2018 Notice of Proposed Rulemaking and the 2020 amendments to Title IX.

Theoretical Framework

Astin's (1962, 1970, 1993) input-environment-output (I-E-O) model and Tetlock's (1985) accountability theory will be explored to propose a new conceptual framework for my research. The two frameworks provide a structure through which I will examine the intersection of policy and institutions regarding the reporting of violence against women on college campuses. I examined criminal offenses and VAWA offenses reporting outcomes based on the input consisting of institution and enrollment characteristics and through the environment in which institutions carry out their activities that is controlled by the implementation of federal mandates. I also assume that the environment, and subsequently the reporting outcomes, are affected by the institution's cyclical relationship with accountability/compliance policies.

Astin's I-E-O Model

The conceptual framework of Astin's (1962, 1970, 1993) I-E-O model considers inputs (I), environment (E), and outcomes (O) and posits that different input variables have a relationship with environment variables that produce a variety of outcomes. Astin's theory evaluates student involvement in college by looking at a student's time in college (e.g., Haber & Komives, 2009; Strayhorn, 2008). Specifically, the theory considers how students change and develop because of being involved in co-curricular opportunities. For my study, I used the I-E-O model as a starting point to explain how the input of institution and enrollment characteristics interplays with the environment of federal mandates to impact the reporting outcomes regarding violence against women on college campuses. Each component will be defined in the context of my study and their relationships explored.

Inputs, environment, and outcomes. Astin used the I-E-O model to see how environments effect student outcomes given students' unique inputs. Figure 2.1 is a visual

representation of Astin's I-E-O model. According to Astin, the college environment has an impact on a student's outcomes as the student moves along Path A and then along Path B (Astin & Antonio, 2012). However, some student inputs will remain unaffected and will not be impacted by attending college, thus moving the student along Path C (Astin & Antonio, 2012). For my study, Path C was not considered as it is the relationship between environment and outcomes that is salient. In applying this model, I considered the institution as the unit of analysis, rather than the individual student, when examining institutional reporting outcomes.

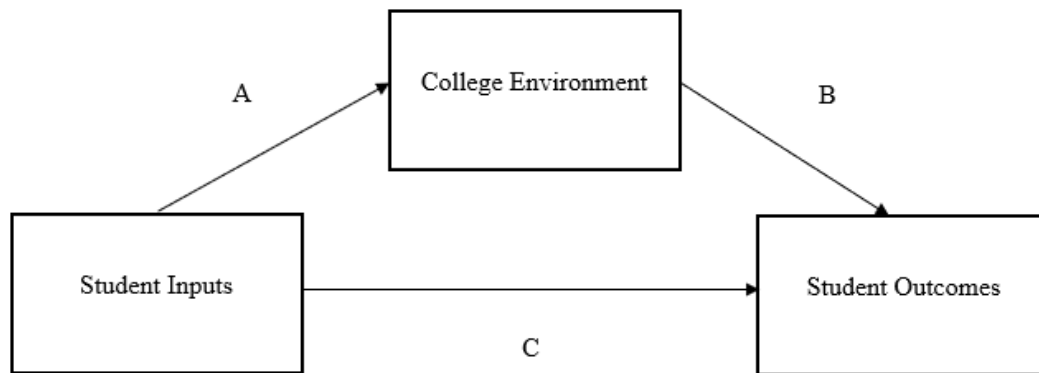


Figure 2.1. Astin's I-E-O Model (Astin & Antonio, 2012)

Accountability Theory

Accountability has been recognized by both researchers and practitioners as a fundamental element in the successful operation of organizations (Ettore, 1992; Tetlock, 1985, 1992). In the case of preventing and addressing violence against women at institutions of higher education, federal guidelines, policies, and legislation have been developed to hold university administrators accountable in their efforts to eliminate sexual misconduct and intimate partner violence from their institutions. Additionally, higher education consumers, which include current and prospective students, students' families, staff, and faculty, hold decisionmakers, as representatives of the institution, accountable for the successful implementation of the federal mandates. Specifically, Frink and Klimoski (2004) called for accountability models that examine

both internal and external conditions, subjective and objective factors, and informal and formal accountability mechanisms.

Input-Environment-Accountability-Outcome Model

By considering both the I-E-O model and accountability theory as frameworks by which to approach the analysis of federal government interventions with institutions of higher education and, in turn, how university officials are held accountable to implement those federal guidelines, policies, and legislation, a resulting model emerges (see Figure 2.2). The components of the I-E-A-O model are presented below.



Figure 2.2. I-E-A-O Model

Inputs. In my study, institution and enrollment characteristics were the inputs. Several institution and enrollment characteristics were considered, which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

Environment. Federal guidelines, policies, and legislation comprised the environment portion of the model as they impact the policies, experiences, and environments that institutions are expected to create and provide to students. The following federal mandates were considered: Title IX, Clery Act, VAWA, 2011 DCL, and 2017 DCL based on which I selected the years of

analysis and in relation to which I interpreted the results. While federal mandates and their possible impact on reporting outcomes are discussed in my study as contributing to the general context, it is unknown through my methods of data collection how campus administrators follow and enact such guidance, but the assumption is that the cyclical nature of accountability and compliance requirements shape the environment of policy at the institutional level.

Accountability. One way to look at accountability is through compliance with federal mandates, and this is the meaning I used for my study. In general, compliance means following guidelines, policies, and legislation. Additionally, compliance describes the goal that administrators must achieve in their efforts to ensure that they are aware of and take steps to comply with relevant federal mandates (Lin, 2016). For example, compliance with the Clery Act is mandatory, not advisory, and thus may have a stronger impact on the response at the institutional level.

Outcomes. In my study, outcomes were the Clery Act reported incidents in the categories of criminal offenses (forcible sex offenses, murder, and aggravated assault) and VAWA offenses (domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking). There may be other outcomes that fit this framework, such as community impact, feelings of safety and security, or student success measures, but each of those outputs is better suited for future studies.

As shown in the I-E-A-O model, the independent variables of institution and enrollment characteristics (inputs) are filtered through federal guidelines, policies, and legislation (environment) and how institution administrators interpret and implement those mandates (accountability/compliance). The environment changes each time a federal mandate is reauthorized, updated, or altered, thus impacting the accountability of university and college officials to implement the new requirements within the timeframe given. The outcomes are Clery

Act data that are the officially reported numbers of criminal offenses and VAWA offenses for institutions of higher education.

Summary

Violence against women at institutions of higher education has been an issue since women started attending colleges and universities. Such violence has been measured, examined, and discussed through institutional reporting data and national surveys resulting in many scholarly studies. As a result of this history of violence and the staggering numbers as reported by researchers, the federal government has levied guidelines, policies, and legislation as an attempt to reduce and ultimately eliminate acts of violence against women. The rates of sexual violence against men highlighted through the various discussed surveys and studies indicate such a small percentage of cases that, for the purpose of my study, all Clery Act data was assumed to be from women making reports. The proposed model of inputs-environment-accountability-outcomes (I-E-A-O) offers a lens to interpret the final results by suggesting the policy cycle, guided by federal mandates and accountability/compliance requirements, creates reporting practices and limitations at the institutional level that control the accuracy of the data outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The overarching question of my study is whether official reports of violence against women at institutions of higher education reflect the actual situation of violent acts experienced by college women. The purpose of my study is to examine Clery Act data reporting over time and in relation to institution and enrollment characteristics in the categories of violent criminal offenses, specifically forcible sex offenses (rape, fondling) and VAWA offenses, which includes domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking and to explore whether federal guidelines, policies, and legislation may have led to better and more accurate data collection through Clery Act reporting. This was an exploratory quantitative study that addressed the following research questions:

RQ 1: Are there differences by institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) when comparing institutions of higher education in the United States with systemic *missing* data on Clery Act reporting of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) and institutions with *complete* reporting of Clery Act data, between 2001-2017?

RQ 2: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2001-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

RQ 3: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2014-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of VAWA offenses (e.g., domestic

violence, dating violence, stalking) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

RQ 4: Are there any differences in the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017) by specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization)?

RQ 5: What is the relative contribution of specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) and enrollment characteristics (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, student classification, Pell grants awarded) on the average number of forcible sex offenses and of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017)?

Data Collection

My study was based on secondary data analysis of databases obtained from the U.S. DOE, specifically from the Campus Safety and Security (CSS) online portal, and from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), specifically the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). Clery Act statistics of criminal offenses from the U.S. DOE are limited to the years 2001 to 2017, and VAWA offenses from the U.S. DOE are limited to the years 2014 to 2017. While institution and enrollment characteristics were available for all years under study from the NCES, information from the most recent year available, 2017, was used across all years of analysis.

Clery Act data for each institution in my study were downloaded in SPSS formats from the CSS online portal over all available years. The data from IPEDS were also downloaded in SPSS formats. Both databases include a matching institution identification number (UNIT_ID),

which allowed for the cleaning, merging, and aggregating of information into two longitudinal comprehensive SPSS datasets, one for criminal offenses and one for VAWA offenses.

Institutions with multiple campuses had a unique campus identification number (CAMPUS_ID). Due to the limitations of the secondary data retrieved for my study, I decided to examine the data at the institution level, not at the campus level, so offenses-related variables were aggregated using the corresponding institution UNIT_ID.

Special permissions and IRB approval were not required as both data sources are not proprietary and are considered public information. There was a reliance on the data reported in each institution’s annual crime statistics. If any institution, for reasons unknown, did not submit data to the U.S. DOE, the year(s) in which they did not report were removed from my study.

Sample

The sample for my study includes all public and private not-for-profit institutions of higher education that are mandated to report annual Clery Act crime statistics to the U.S. DOE. The population to which any analyses will be generalized are the same institutions over the periods of time of data availability. The CSS information provided through institutions’ Clery Act data reporting are essential to my study. Information on criminal offenses for 3,759 institutions (with data spanned over 17 years) and information on VAWA offenses for 3,736 institutions (with data spanned over 4 years) were examined. Table 3.1 presents institution characteristics that were included in the analysis for each study sample.

Table 3.1

Institution Characteristics for Study Samples – Counts and %

Institution Characteristics	Sample Criminal Offenses	Sample VAWA Offenses
Total Institutions	3,759	3,736
Institution Control		
Public	1,957 (52.1%)	1,950 (52.2%)
Private Not-For-Profit	1,802 (47.9%)	1,786 (47.8%)

Table 3.1 (continued)

Institution Characteristics	Sample Criminal Offenses	Sample VAWA Offenses
Institution Level		
4-Year	2,356 (62.7%)	2,343 (62.7%)
2-Year	1,113 (29.6%)	1,109 (29.7%)
< 2-Year	290 (7.7%)	284 (7.6%)
Accreditation Region		
New England	247 (6.6%)	247 (6.6%)
Middle States	745 (19.8%)	740 (19.8%)
North Central	1,231 (32.7%)	1,229 (32.9%)
Southern	987 (26.3%)	979 (26.2%)
Western	348 (9.3%)	341 (9.1%)
Northwest	201 (5.3%)	200 (5.4%)
Institution Size/Enrollment (year 2017)		
Very Small	1,248 (33.2%)	1,226 (32.8%)
Small	922 (24.5%)	921 (24.7%)
Medium	831 (22.1%)	831 (22.2%)
Large/Very Large	758 (20.2%)	758 (20.3%)
Degree of Urbanization		
City	1,618 (43.0%)	1,609 (43.1%)
Suburb	942 (25.1%)	933 (25.0%)
Town	722 (19.2%)	719 (19.2%)
Rural	477 (12.7%)	475 (12.7%)

Variables

A comprehensive list of all variables in my study and their abbreviated codes can be found in Appendix 1. Tables A1, A2, and A3 include variables pulled from the CSS online portal. In this next section, I describe only the variables I used in my study that will be summarized in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Study Variables

Variable	Type	Description
Survey Year	Continuous	2001-2017
Violent Criminal Offenses (2001-2017) (Total numbers regardless of geography)		
Forcible Sex Offenses	Continuous	Enumerated reports of sexual assault, rape, and fondling
Murder	Continuous	Enumerated reports of murder
Aggravated Assault	Continuous	Enumerated reports of aggravated assault

Table 3.2 (continued)

Variable	Type	Description
VAWA Offenses (2014-2017) (Total numbers regardless of geography)		
Domestic Violence	Continuous	Enumerated reports of domestic violence
Dating Violence	Continuous	Enumerated reports of dating violence
Stalking	Continuous	Enumerated reports of stalking
Institution and Enrollment Characteristics (2017)		
Institution Control	2-category	1 = Public 2 = Private not-for-profit
Institution Level	3-category	1 = 4-year 2 = 2-year 3 = < 2-year
Accreditation Region	6-category	1 = New England 2 = Middle States 3 = North Central 4 = Southern 5 = Western 6 = Northwest
Institution Size	4-category	Total enrollment (all campuses) → derive a 4-category variable: (4-year/2-year) 1 = Very small (<1,000/<500) 2 = Small (1,000-2,999/500-1,999) 3 = Medium (3,000-10,000/2,000-5,000) 4 = Large/very large (>10,000/>5,000)
Degree of Urbanization	4-category	1 = City 2 = Suburb 3 = Town 4 = Rural
Enrollment – Gender	Continuous	Percentage of women
Enrollment – Race/Ethnicity	Continuous	Percentage of Asian
	Continuous	Percentage of Black or African American
	Continuous	Percentage of Hispanic
	Continuous	Percentage of White
	Continuous	Percentage of Nonresident Alien
Enrollment – Age	Continuous	Percentage of students under 25 years of age
Enrollment – Classification	Continuous	Percentage of graduate students
Enrollment – Pell Grants Awarded	Continuous	Percentage of Pell Grants awarded to undergraduates

Dependent Variables

Administrators disclose statistics for reported crimes, and they must choose from four Clery Act geographies when reporting the location of the crime. These geographies are labeled as on-campus, on-campus student housing facility, non-campus, and public property. The on-campus category is inclusive of incidents from the on-campus housing category. I did not consider Clery Act geography in my study because it was not salient to my research questions as I was looking at institution data and not the sub-categories of Clery Act geography. Therefore, I combined all Clery Act geography numbers by crime to create new variables. See Appendix 1, Tables A2 and A3 for a listing of aggregated variables, including all geography categories. Murder and aggravated assault were the only additional variables analyzed from the criminal offenses dataset as these are considered violent crimes and in this way are consistent with forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses.

There was a change in the federal reporting of annual crime statistics in 2014 with the reauthorization of VAWA. Prior to 2014, there were two categories to describe sex offenses: forcible and non-forcible. Starting with the first reporting year of 2014, forcible sex offenses (SEX_FORC) was further split into two categories: rape and fondling. Additionally, non-forcible sex offenses were explained as incest and statutory rape. Both incest and statutory rape are outside the scope of the student-on-student sexual assault addressed in my research, so incidents in these two categories or the original category of non-forcible were not included in my study. For the purpose of my study and to use common language across the years under review, forcible sex offenses will be the terminology used (see Appendix 1, Table A2 for a listing of aggregated variables across 2001-2017). This allowed me to compare and look at trends from 2001 to 2017 more accurately.

Independent Variables

Many studies regarding sexual assault at institutions of higher education look at such factors as an institution's party culture (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006; Gialopsos, 2017; Wade, 2017), alcohol use and social norms surrounding alcohol (Abbey, 2011; Fisher et al., 1998; Lawyer, Resnick, Bakanic, Burkett, & Kilpatrick, 2010; Lindo, Siminski, & Swensen, 2018; Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004), fraternities and sororities (Franklin, Bouffard, & Pratt, 2012; Harris & Schmalz, 2016; Martin, 2016; Stotzer & MacCartney, 2016), and athletic program offerings (Beaver, 2019; Martin, 2016; Young, Desmarais, Baldwin, & Chandler, 2017). Few published studies have examined this problem through the contexts of organizational characteristics, enrollment characteristics, and policy implementation, so I hope my study will contribute to this gap in the literature. I believe organizational and contextual institution characteristics are crucial in determining the interpretation and implementation of policies.

There were several institution characteristics available for my study. The institution control, level, and size are particularly employed in reporting and higher education research. The institution size is based on Carnegie classifications for four-year and two-year institutions. The breakdown, looking at four-year and two-year institutions in order, is: very small: <1,000, <500; small: 1,000-2,999; 500-1,999; medium: 3,000-10,000; 2,000-5,000; and large/very large: >10,000, >5,000. In addition, the accreditation region informs the policy context in which institutions operate. The accreditation regions were pulled from the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA, 2020). The degree of urbanization is relevant to the population density surrounding the campus.

Finally, there were five institution-level enrollment characteristics explored in my study. Institution-level demographic information such as percentages of gender, race/ethnicity, age, classification, and Pell Grants awarded helped create variables that were included in my analysis. As my study examined reported acts of violence against women at institutions of higher education, it was important to understand the enrollment breakdown by gender. Knowing percentages of students' ages allowed for important analyses as researchers and federal policymakers cite that women between the ages of 18-24 are most at risk of experiencing sexual violence while in college. To examine institution-level data about students' socioeconomic status, my study utilized the percentage of Pell Grant awards to overall enrollment.

Data Analysis

To address the research questions, I used descriptive and inferential statistics performed with SPSS 26 software. The descriptive analyses included means, frequencies, crosstabulations, and line graphs. The inferential statistics included chi-square tests of association, ANOVA tests, and multiple regression models. Table 3.3 summarizes variables and completed analyses for each research question.

Table 3.3

Summary of Research Questions and Analyses

Research Questions	Variables	Statistical Procedures
RQ 1: Are there differences by institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) when comparing institutions of higher education in the United States with systemic <i>missing</i> data on Clery Act reporting of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) and institutions with <i>complete</i> reporting of Clery Act data, between 2001-2017?	Reporting data status (derived variable based on reporting of violent criminal offenses) Institution characteristics: Control Level Accreditation region Size Degree of urbanization	Crosstabulations Chi-square test of association

Table 3.3 (continued)

Research Questions	Variables	Statistical Procedures
RQ 2: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2001-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) for institutions of higher education in the United States?	Survey year Accreditation region Violent criminal offenses: Forcible sex offenses Murder Aggravated assault	Descriptive statistics Line graphs ANOVA tests
RQ 3: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2014-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of VAWA offenses (e.g., domestic violence, dating violence, stalking) for institutions of higher education in the United States?	Survey year Accreditation region VAWA offenses: Domestic violence Dating violence Stalking	Descriptive statistics Line graphs ANOVA tests
RQ 4: Are there any differences in the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017) by specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization)?	Forcible sex offenses VAWA offenses combined Institution characteristics: Control Level Accreditation region Size Degree of urbanization	Descriptive statistics ANOVA tests Post-hoc comparisons
RQ 5: What is the relative contribution of specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) and enrollment characteristics (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, student classification, Pell grants awarded) on the average number of forcible sex offenses and of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017)?	Forcible sex offenses VAWA offenses combined Institution characteristics: Control Level Accreditation region Size Degree of urbanization Enrollment characteristics: Gender Race/ethnicity Age Student classification Pell grants awarded	Multiple regression models

According to Mertler (2018), the purpose of descriptive analysis is to describe and interpret the status of a population, situation, or phenomenon accurately and systematically. Descriptive statistics are used to organize, summarize, and simplify data (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). A descriptive research design allows for the investigation of one or more variables and is an appropriate choice when the research is aiming to identify frequencies and trends (Leedy &

Omrod, 2013). In my study, descriptive statistics and graphs were used to provide visual representations of the total number of criminal offenses and VAWA offenses over time as well as to identify trends and changes possibly attributed to policy decisions and implementation. Additionally, crosstabulations were used to show the relationship between categorical variables.

To ascertain whether there were differences by institution characteristics between reporting data status (i.e., missing survey years and all survey years), a Pearson chi-square test of association was conducted. This was the optimal statistical procedure to use because frequency data were present for all variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Additionally, chi-square tests are the statistical procedure of choice when both variables are categorical (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Furthermore, with the large sample size, the available sample size per cell was more than five, which met the assumptions to use this method. A *p* value that is less than .05 is evidence of a statistically significant relationship between or among the categorical variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

Line graphs plot a series of related values that help illustrate a change in one variable as a function of another (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). Individual data points are connected by a line, thus highlighting changes between adjacent points and drawing attention to trends in the data. Line graphs can also be used to compare multiple dependent variables by plotting multiple lines on the same graph (Creswell, 2014).

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted to examine whether there were differences among the mean numbers of offenses reported each year, for each of the criminal offenses and VAWA offenses, both nationally and regionally. Additionally, ANOVA tests were conducted to examine whether there were differences in the mean numbers of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined by institution characteristics. Parametric statistics

such as ANOVA tests can be employed for normal distributions to compare means of continuous variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). When appropriate, the ANOVA analyses were followed by post-hoc comparison tests (e.g., Fisher's Least Significant Difference test) to identify which pairs of means were statistically significantly different.

Finally, multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between various predictors (institution characteristics and enrollment characteristics) and two outcome variables: forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined. Multiple regression models show the relationship between one dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). One reason to use regression models in my study was to find out if there is a relationship between two or more variables without expecting to find a causal relationship between them (Creswell, 2014) and to identify which independent variables may have a larger effect on the outcome. A researcher should not conclude that one variable causes the other simply because the two variables are related (Mertler, 2018). For example, showing a correlation between a specific policy and potential outcomes does not necessarily prove that the policy caused those outcomes (Scholotter, Schwerdt, & Woessmann, 2010). In some situations, even when a causal relationship between the two variables is revealed, it could be either unethical or impractical to conduct experimental research that manipulates one of the variables (Creswell, 2014). Since I am using a non-experimental research design, there is no intent to assume causality when examining the relationship between the dependent and independent variables through multiple regression models.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

In this chapter, I will present the findings of my exploratory quantitative study. In the first section, I explored 17 years of data reporting on violent criminal offenses to identify characteristics of colleges and universities with systemic missing Clery Act data. In the next two sections, I investigated national and regional trends in the reporting of violent criminal offenses and VAWA offenses over time. In the next section, I compared the average number of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined over a four-year period of common reporting by institution characteristics. Finally, I explored the relationships between the average number of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined and various institution factors (i.e., institution characteristics and enrollment characteristics) through regression modelling.

As discussed in Chapter 3, the sample for my study included all public and private not-for-profit institutions of higher education that reported Clery Act data in at least one of the categories under review. The criminal offenses categories are forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter (murder), and aggravated assault from the years 2001-2017, and the VAWA offenses are domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking from the years 2014-2017. A total of 3,759 institutions were included in the criminal offenses sample, and a total of 3,736 institutions were included in the VAWA offenses sample. For each type of criminal and VAWA offense, two separate SPSS datafiles were used for analysis: files including all offense instances over time were used to address research questions 2 and 3, and files with aggregated data by survey year were used to address the other three research questions. In addition to data from institutional Clery Act reports, files included the 2017 institution factors from IPEDS. The findings of my study are presented below through each research question.

Research Question 1: Systemic Missing Clery Act Data

When cleaning, merging, and aggregating data obtained from the CSS online portal and IPEDS, it became clear that not every institution submitted criminal offenses and VAWA offenses numbers. Data were either missing for the entire year, in a certain Clery Act geographical reporting area², or in a certain offense category altogether. This was particularly more evident for the criminal offenses data that covered a longer period of time showing possible challenges institutions experienced in implementing federal policies. Reporting campus crime statistics is federally monitored, and compliance is mandatory, so an inquiry into missing reporting data was needed to better understand cases of partial compliance with the law. I used only the criminal offenses information to examine the compliance issue and identify which types of institutions may have had reporting issues.

The following research question was addressed:

RQ 1: Are there differences by institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) when comparing institutions of higher education in the United States with systemic *missing* data on Clery Act reporting of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) and institutions with *complete* reporting of Clery Act data, between 2001-2017?

For analysis, I aggregated the file with all 17 years of offense instances by survey years that allowed me to identify and label institutions with either *missing* or *complete* reporting

² As a reminder, the Clery Act requires disclosure of crimes that occur in the following areas: on campus, on public property within or immediately adjacent to the campus, and on or in non-campus buildings or properties that the institution owns or controls (U.S. DOE, 2002; U.S. DOE, 2016).

among the 3,759 institutions included in the criminal offenses analysis. Overall, 10.1% of all institutions had missing reporting data.

To compare the reporting status distributions by each of the institution characteristics under review (control, level, region, size, and degree of urbanization), I ran a series of crosstabulations. Each analysis was accompanied by a chi-square test of association between reporting status and each of the five institution characteristics. Results are presented in Table 4.1 and then discussed by comparing the distributions for the missing data category with the distributions in the entire sample (i.e., first column and last column in Table 4.1). As shown in Table 4.1, all institution characteristics are highly associated with the reporting status.

Table 4.1

Reporting Data Status by Institution Characteristics – Criminal Offenses (column %)

		Reporting Data Status		All (N=3759)
		Missing (N=381)	Complete (N=3378)	
Institution Control***	Public	31.5%	54.4%	52.1%
	Private not-for-profit	68.5%	45.6%	47.9%
Institution Level***	4-year	59.3%	63.1%	62.7%
	2-year	21.3%	30.6%	29.6%
	< 2-year	19.4%	6.4%	7.7%
Accreditation Region***	New England	5.0%	6.7%	6.6%
	Middle States	21.8%	19.6%	19.8%
	North Central	20.7%	34.1%	32.7%
	Southern	30.7%	25.8%	26.3%
	Western	15.0%	8.6%	9.3%
Institution Size***	Northwest	6.8%	5.2%	5.3%
	Very small	76.9%	28.3%	33.2%
	Small	10.2%	26.1%	24.5%
	Medium	7.3%	23.8%	22.1%
Degree of Urbanization***	Large/very large	5.5%	21.8%	20.2%
	City	47.2%	42.6%	43.0%
	Suburb	31.0%	24.4%	25.1%
	Town	8.9%	20.4%	19.2%
	Rural	12.9%	12.7%	12.7%
ALL		381	3,378	3,759

Chi-square tests: * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

As outlined in Table 4.1, private not-for-profit colleges and universities account for 68.5% of institutions that are missing data, while those same types of institutions only account for 47.9% of the total number of institutions. There is a statistically significant association between the reporting status and institution control as indicated by the chi-square test: $\chi^2 (1, n = 3759) = 71.85, p < .001$.

The level of higher education institutions is also associated with the reporting status. Less-than-two-year institutions make up a disproportionate number of missing data institutions (19.4%) when they only account for 7.7% of all institutions in the sample. There is a statistically significant association between the reporting status and institution level: $\chi^2 (2, n = 3759) = 86.07, p < .001$.

The following analysis is testing the relationship between reporting status and accreditation region. The New England and North Central accreditation regions are the only two regions that have lower percentages of institutions with missing data compared to their percentage representation in the sample. Southern and Western accreditation regions have much larger representations of institutions among the missing data category. For instance, Western region institutions represent 9.3% of the sample, but 15.0% among the missing data institutions. There is a statistically significant association between the reporting status and accreditation region: $\chi^2 (5, n = 3759) = 40.95, p < .001$.

The most shocking result in Table 4.1 is in the discrepancy by institution size. Very small institutions accounted for 76.9% of missing data institutions while they only make up 33.2% of the sample. The association between the reporting status and institution size is statistically significant as indicated by the chi-square test: $\chi^2 (3, n = 3759) = 366.12, p < .001$.

Finally, when comparing reporting status groups by the degree of urbanization, the location of town is the only category that has a lower percentage of missing data institutions when compared to their percentage representation in the sample, with 8.9% versus 19.2%, respectively. Meanwhile, city and suburban located institutions are more likely to be among those missing data reporting. There is a statistically significant association between the reporting status and degree of urbanization as indicated by the chi-square test: $\chi^2(3, n = 3759) = 31.00, p < .001$.

In summary, the data show that institution characteristics are related to the Clery Act reporting data status, and about 10% of higher education institutions appear to have only partially complied with the federal requirement. Private not-for-profit institutions, less-than-2-year institutions, schools located in the Southern and Western accreditation regions, very small institutions, and both city and suburban institutions are more likely to be represented among the institutions that have not fully complied with the Clery Act reporting requirements. While the analyses show a strong relationship between reporting status and institution characteristics, we do not know the cause of these differences. Possible explanations will be explored in Chapter 5.

Research Question 2: Reporting of Violent Criminal Offenses Over Time (2001-2017)

By analyzing available years of criminal offenses Clery Act data, national and regional trends in the average number of offenses were explored. By using secondary data from the CSS online portal, I was able to analyze 17 years of criminal offenses data (2001-2017) from 3,759 institutions.

The following research question was addressed:

RQ 2: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2001-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of violent criminal offenses (e.g., forcible

sex offenses, murder/non-negligent manslaughter, aggravated assault) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

To answer this research question, I ran descriptive statistics of the annual average numbers of the three criminal offenses categories (see Appendix 2, Tables A4 and A5) at the national and regional levels.³ The national average numbers were plotted on a line graph showing the three criminal offenses categories (see Figure 4.1).⁴ The same was done for each criminal offense showing comparatively the six accreditation regions (see Figures 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4). Additionally, One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted to examine whether there were differences among the average number of offenses reported each year, for each of the three criminal offenses, both nationally and regionally.⁵

Figure 4.1 clearly indicates an upward trend in the reporting of forcible sex offenses starting in 2009 and continuing through 2017. In 2017, the average number of forcible sex offenses officially reported by colleges and universities through the Clery Act was 3.15. The reporting of such incidents remained relative consistent prior to 2009, hovering right around one forcible sex offense reported per institution per year. There is a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of forcible sex offenses over time as indicated by the ANOVA test: $F(16, 60669) = 98.605, p < .001$.

The line graph in Figure 4.1 for murder offenses indicates much lower numbers compared to the other criminal offenses. As detailed in Appendix 2 (Figure A1 and Table A4), changes are slightly less consistent with the plotting of murder offenses with the most noticeable

³ Means were calculated across all institutions either nationally or regionally for each year.

⁴ The mean values for murder offenses are very small compared to the other two categories, so it is not easy to explore changes when using the same scale. However, I plotted all means on the same scale because more details are available in Appendix 2, Figure A1 and Table A4.

⁵ For the purpose of my study, additional post-hoc analyses to identify which years were significantly different would have complicated the presentation of results, without bringing relevant information. A visual inspection of the graphs allows to identify specific trends and/or turning points.

trends being the decrease from 2001 to 2003 and the unfortunate spike in 2007 that includes the Virginia Tech shooting. The ANOVA test indicates a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of murder offenses over time: $F(16, 60669) = 5.397, p < .001$.

Finally, aggravated assaults had a downward trend over the 17 years being investigated. The ANOVA test indicates a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of aggravated assaults over time: $F(16, 60669) = 22.642, p < .001$.

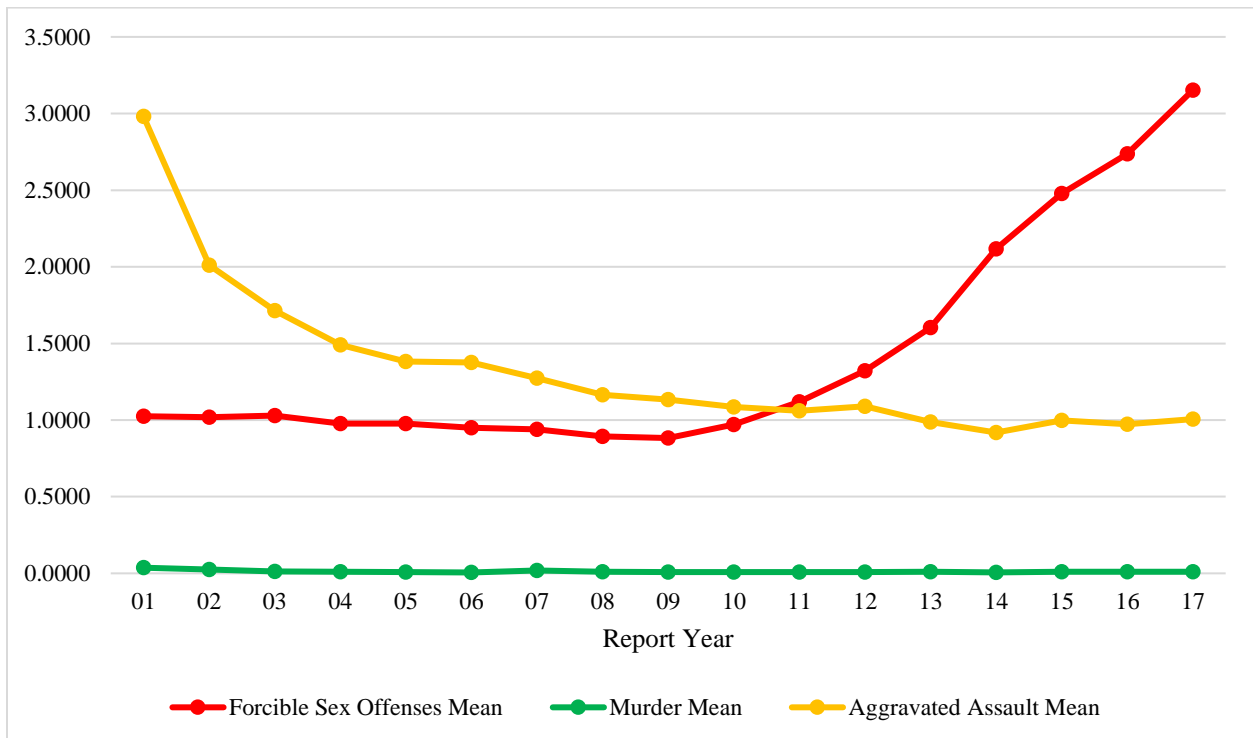


Figure 4.1. Mean Numbers of Criminal Offenses Over Time – National

Based on a visual examination of the line graphs for the three variables over time, there does not seem to be any connection among the occurrence of the three criminal offenses. Any identifiable trend in one variable is not consistent or connected to any trend within the other two variables, except the decrease in aggravated assaults corresponding to a steady pattern for forcible sex offenses between 2001 and 2008, followed by the opposite pattern of steadiness for

aggravated assaults corresponding to an increase in forcible sex offenses between 2009 and 2017.

Like the national trend, Figure 4.2 shows an upward regional trend in the reporting of forcible sex offenses starting in 2009 and continuing through 2017. Institutions in the New England accreditation region have consistently reported more forcible sex offenses than their counterparts in the other five regions. For example, in 2017, New England colleges and universities reported an average of five forcible sex offenses, whereas institutions in the Southern region only reported an average of 2.67 forcible sex offenses. The reporting of such incidents remained relatively consistent for each region prior to 2009, hovering right around two forcible sex offenses reported per institution per year in the New England region and one forcible sex offense reported per institution per year in the other five regions. The one-way ANOVA tests in each of the six accreditation regions indicate statistically significant differences between the average number of forcible sex offenses over time: New England, $F(16, 4041) = 12.858, p < .001$; Middle States, $F(16, 11951) = 23.662, p < .001$; North Central, $F(16, 20297) = 26.049, p < .001$; Southern, $F(16, 15721) = 34.004, p < .001$; Western, $F(16, 5398) = 5.898, p < .001$; and Northwest, $F(16, 3176) = 9.164, p < .001$.

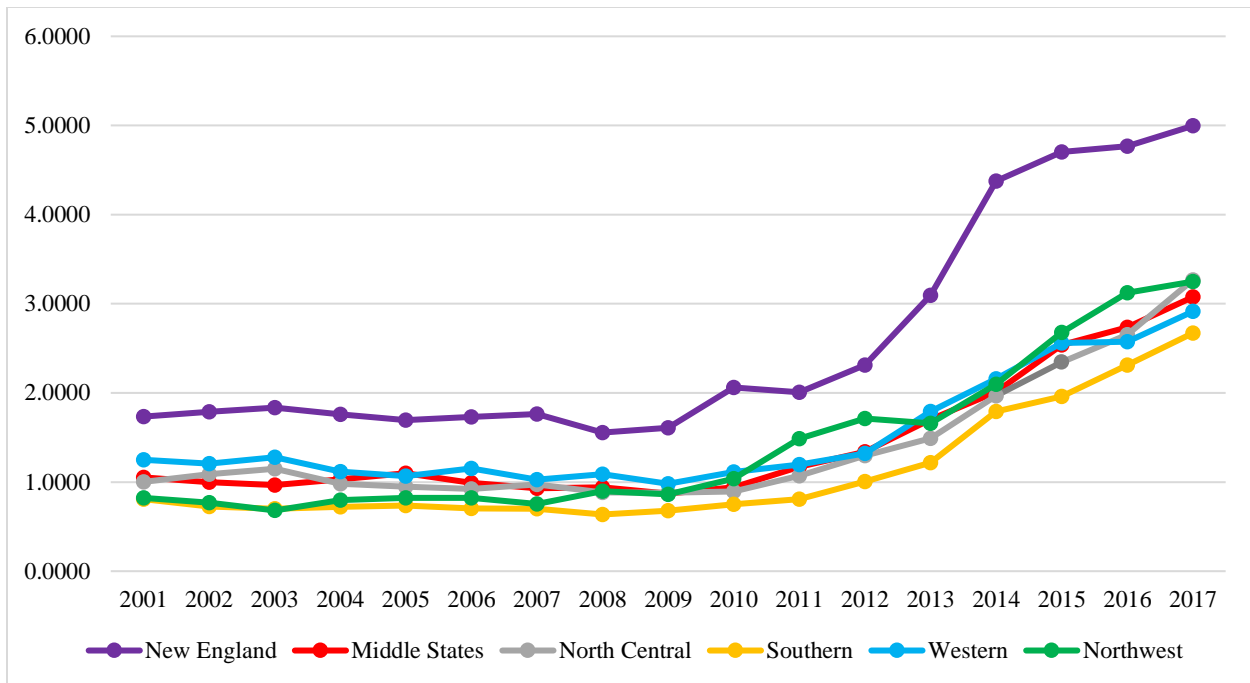


Figure 4.2. Mean Numbers of Forcible Sex Offenses Over Time and by Region

The line graph is much less consistent in Figure 4.3 which outlines the trend of reported murder offenses. For four of the six accreditation regions, the ANOVA tests show statistically significant differences from year to year among the average numbers of reported murder offenses: New England, $F(16, 4041) = 1.845, p < .05$; Middle States, $F(16, 11951) = 4.440, p < .001$; North Central, $F(16, 20297) = 1.883, p < .05$; and Western, $F(16, 5398) = 2.190, p < .01$. The only regions with no statistically significant changes in reported murder offenses over time are the Southern region [$F(16, 15721) = 1.379, p = .141$] and the Northwest region [$F(16, 3176) = .693, p = .804$].

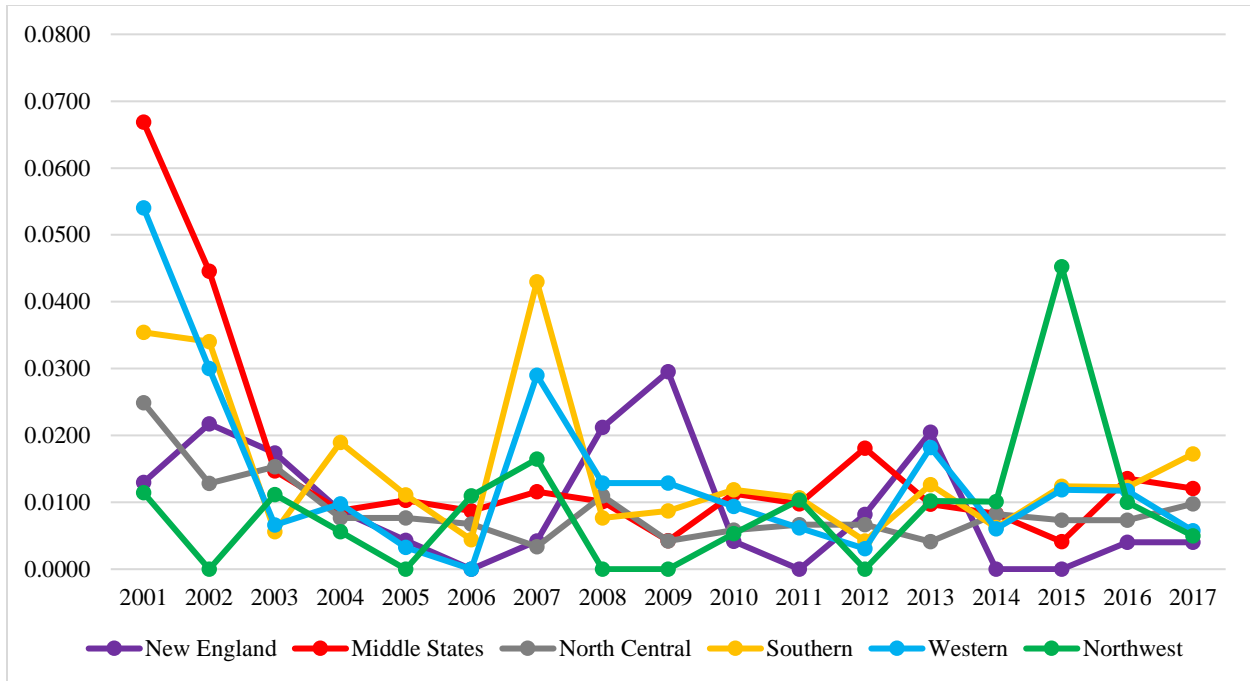


Figure 4.3. Mean Numbers of Murder Offenses Over Time and by Region

Figure 4.4 shows the regional trends of aggravated assault offenses reporting. Overall, aggravated assaults had a downward trend over the 17 years being studied. New England had two spikes, one in 2003 and one in 2006, while the Northwest had a spike in 2006 with a continued upward trend starting in 2009. The one-way ANOVA tests in five of the six accreditation regions indicate statistically significant differences between the average number of aggravated assault offenses over time: New England, $F(16, 4041) = 2.520, p < .001$; Middle States, $F(16, 11951) = 2.707, p < .001$; North Central, $F(16, 20297) = 6.853, p < .001$; Southern, $F(16, 15721) = 10.399, p < .001$; and Western, $F(16, 5398) = 6.327, p < .001$. However, there is no statistically significant difference in the reported aggravated assault offenses over time in the Northwest region [$F(16, 3176) = .761, p = .731$].

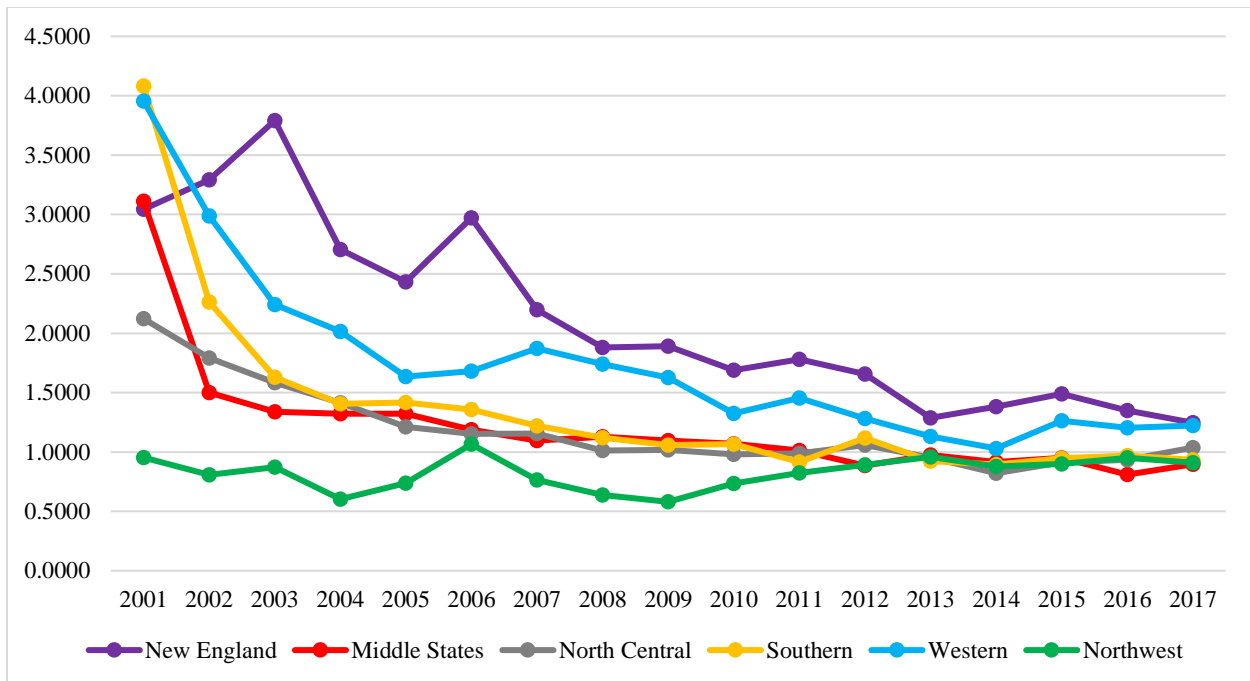


Figure 4.4. Mean Numbers of Aggravated Assault Offenses Over Time and by Region

Overall, the average reported numbers of each criminal offense (forcible sex offenses, murder, and aggravated assault) was statistically significantly different over time within each of the six regions with a few exceptions for murder in the Southern and Northwest regions and for aggravated assault in the Northwest region. Based on a visual examination of the line graphs, there do not seem to be trends relating to all three criminal offenses categories.

In summary, the data show that forcible sex offenses reporting has been on an upward trend regionally and nationally since 2009 when changes are visible. In addition, the data show that aggravated assault offenses reporting has been on a downward trend regionally and nationally since 2001. While the analyses show a strong relationship between the number of offenses and reporting year, we do not know the cause of these differences. Possible explanations will be explored more in Chapter 5.

Research Question 3: Reporting of VAWA Offenses Over Time (2014-2017)

By analyzing available years of VAWA offenses Clery Act data, possible national and regional trends were explored. By using secondary data from the CSS online portal, I was able to analyze four years of VAWA offenses data (2014-2017) for 3,739 institutions.

The following research question was studied:

RQ 3: Are there changes in Clery Act reporting between 2014-2017, nationally and regionally, when examining three types of VAWA offenses (e.g., domestic violence, dating violence, stalking) for institutions of higher education in the United States?

To answer this research question, I ran descriptive statistics of the annual average numbers of the three VAWA offenses categories as well as a VAWA offenses combined category (see Appendix 2, Tables A6 and A7) at the national and regional level. The national mean numbers were plotted on a line graph showing the three VAWA offenses categories and the VAWA offenses combined category (see Figure 4.5). The same was done for each VAWA offense showing comparatively the six accreditation regions (see Figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9). Additionally, one-way ANOVA tests were conducted to examine whether there were differences among the mean numbers of offenses reported each year, for each of the three VAWA offenses and VAWA offenses combined, both nationally and regionally.⁶

Figure 4.5 clearly indicates an upward trend in the reporting of domestic violence, dating violence, stalking, and VAWA offenses combined from 2014 to 2017. In 2017, the average number of domestic violence offenses officially reported by colleges and universities through the

⁶ For the purpose of my study, additional post-hoc analyses to identify which years were significantly different would have complicated the presentation of results, without bringing relevant information. A visual inspection of the graphs allows to identify specific trends and/or turning points.

Clery Act was 1.29. There is a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of domestic violence offenses over time as indicated by the ANOVA test: $F(3, 14848) = 4.463, p < .01$.

The average number of dating violence offenses officially reported in 2017 was 1.38. The ANOVA test indicates a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of dating violence offenses over time: $F(3, 14848) = 9.561, p < .001$.

In 2017, the average number of stalking incidents officially reported was 1.89, more than domestic violence and dating violence. There is a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of stalking offenses over time as indicated by the ANOVA test: $F(3, 14848) = 13.801, p < .001$.

Lastly, VAWA offenses combined helps to show an overall view in the occurrence of all three VAWA offenses. The ANOVA test indicates a statistically significant difference among the average numbers of VAWA offenses combined over time: $F(3, 14848) = 14.039, p < .001$. For instance, the highest change occurred between 2014 and 2015. This adds meaning to the visual analysis of the line graphs as, overall, there are data points significantly different from the other data points on each of the four lines. The national trends in VAWA offenses mirror the national trend of forcible sex offenses (Figure 4.1) as they each increase over time. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

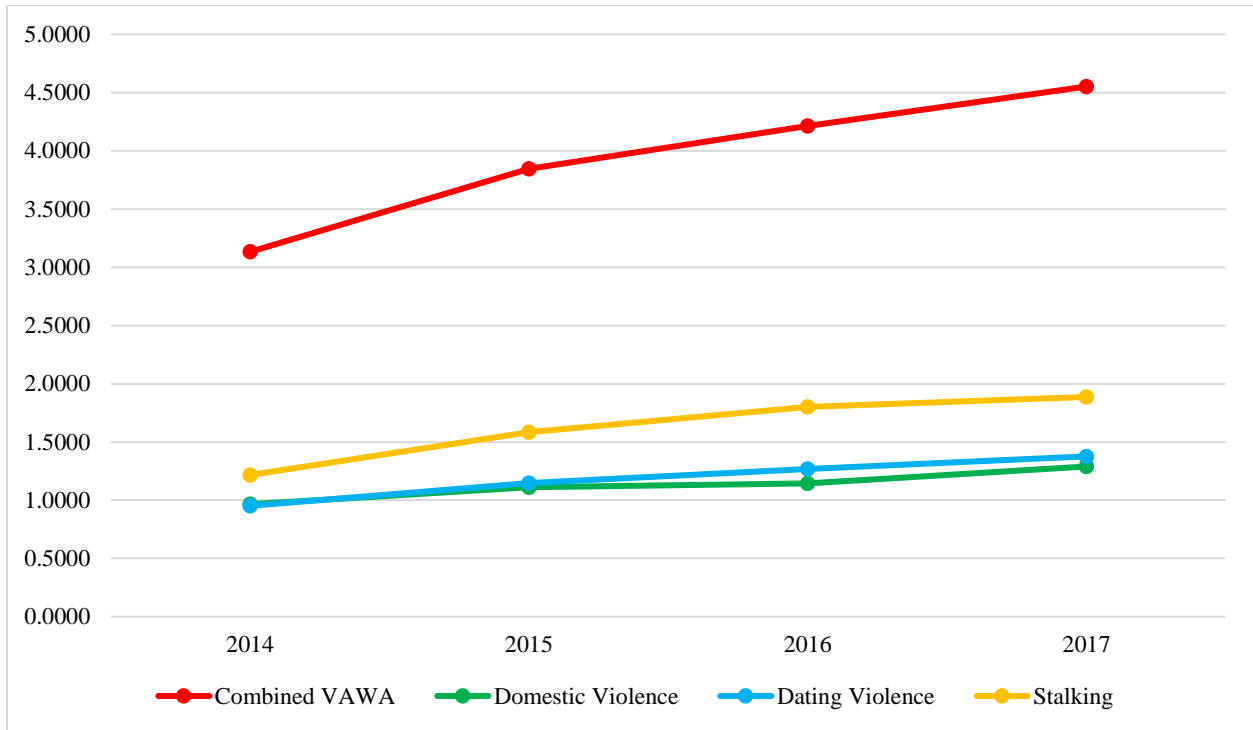


Figure 4.5. Mean Numbers of VAWA Offenses Over Time – National

Figure 4.6 highlights the regional trends in the reporting of domestic violence offenses. The regional data present a similar outcome as the national data, though it is less clear as there is not a consistent upward trend in reporting for some accreditation regions. New England institutions, however, continue to report more than their counterparts in the other five regions, like their reporting of forcible sex offenses (Figure 4.2). For example, in 2017, New England colleges and universities reported an average of 1.59 acts of domestic violence, whereas institutions in the Western region only reported an average of 1.17 domestic violence offenses. There were no statistically significant differences over time in the category of domestic violence in any of the six accreditation regions.

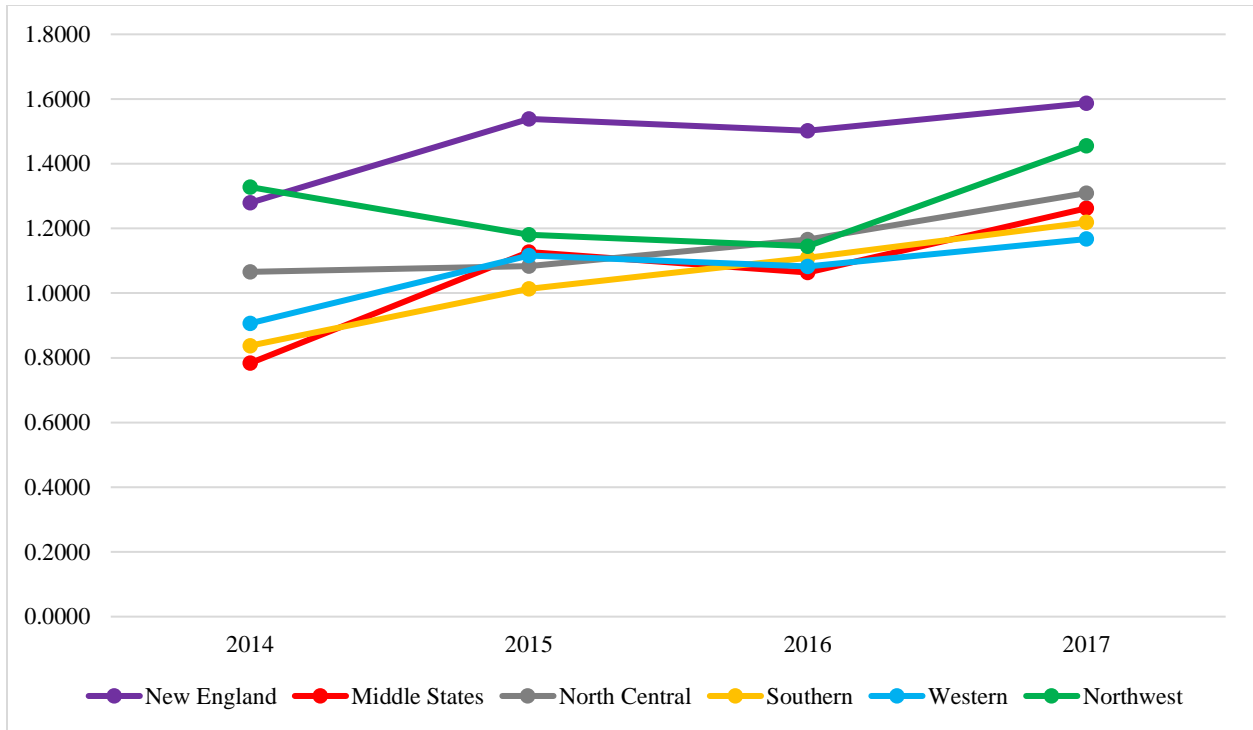


Figure 4.6. Regional Comparison of Means – Domestic Violence

Figure 4.7 shows the regional trends of dating violence offenses reporting. Overall, there is not much variation from year-to-year in each of the individual accreditation regions. The North Central, Southern, and Northwest regions saw an increase in reporting each year from 2014 to 2017. In 2017, institutions in the Southern region reported an average of 1.65 acts of dating violence, whereas colleges and universities in the Western region reported an average of .87 dating violence offenses. The ANOVA tests show statistically significant differences among the average numbers of reported dating violence offenses in only two accreditation regions: Middle States, $F(3, 2926) = 2.872, p < .05$ and Southern, $F(3, 3883) = 3.582, p < .05$.

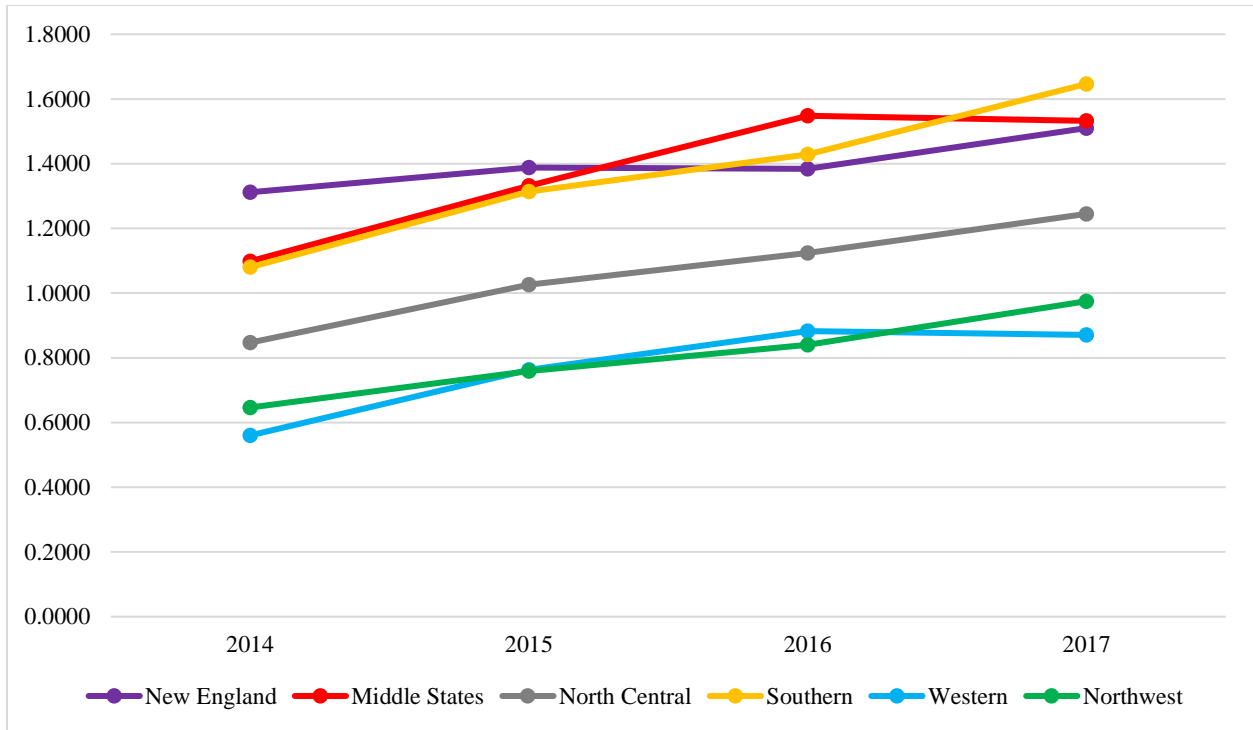


Figure 4.7. Regional Comparison of Means – Dating Violence

Stalking offenses by accreditation region are outlined in Figure 4.8. Colleges and universities in the Northwest accreditation region have consistently reported more stalking offenses than their counterparts in the other five regions. For example, in 2017, Northwest institutions reported an average of 2.41 acts of stalking, whereas colleges and universities in the Western region only reported an average of 1.55 stalking offenses. For four of the six accreditation regions, the ANOVA tests show statistically significant differences among the average numbers of reported stalking offenses: Middle States, $F(3, 2926) = 4.404, p < .01$; North Central, $F(3, 4895) = 2.721, p < .05$; Southern, $F(3, 3883) = 5.989, p < .001$; and Western, $F(3, 1347) = 2.746, p < .05$.

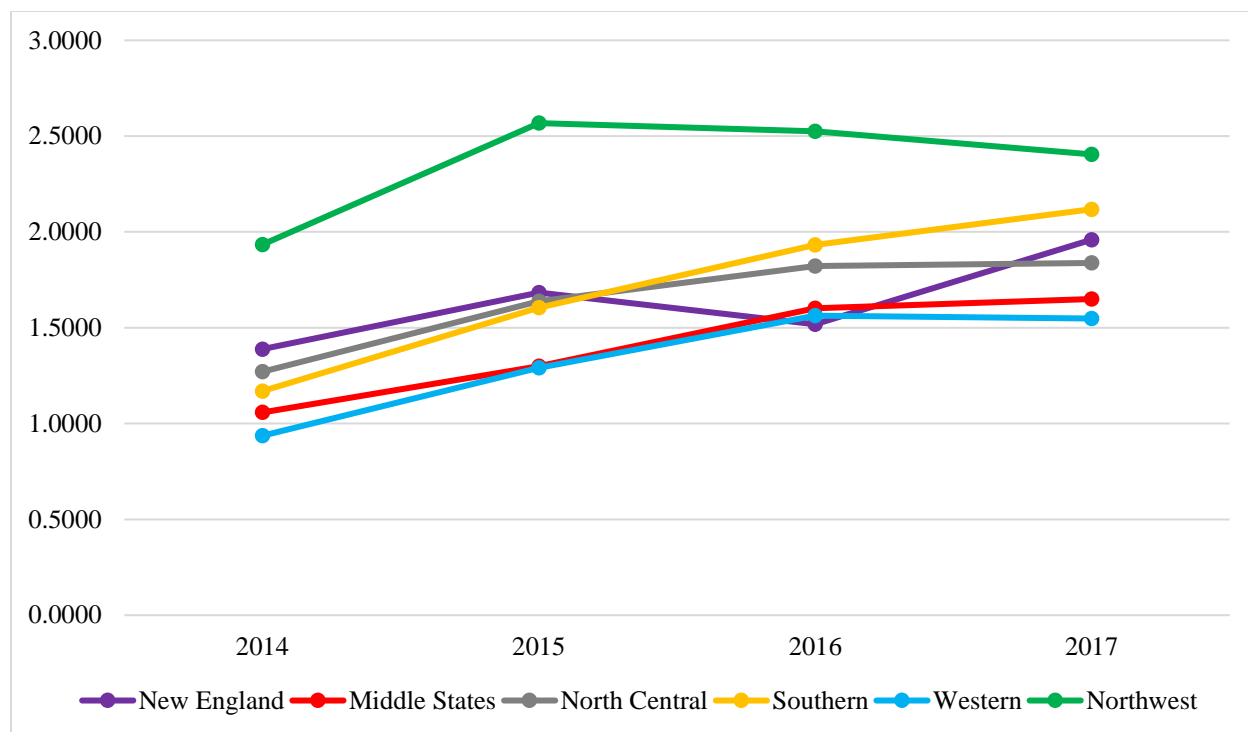


Figure 4.8. Regional Comparison of Means – Stalking

When looking at domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking across all six accreditation regions, the Western region reported the fewest number of incidents in all three categories. This can most clearly be seen in Figure 4.9 which outlines VAWA offenses combined. Generally, there is an upward trend in reporting in all three offenses categories; however, the data appears to be clearer from a national perspective versus a regional perspective. The ANOVA tests show statistically significant differences among the average numbers of reported VAWA offenses combined in three accreditation regions: Middle States, $F(3, 2926) = 4.228, p < .01$; North Central, $F(3, 4895) = 2.693, p < .05$; and Southern, $F(3, 3883) = 6.042, p < .001$.

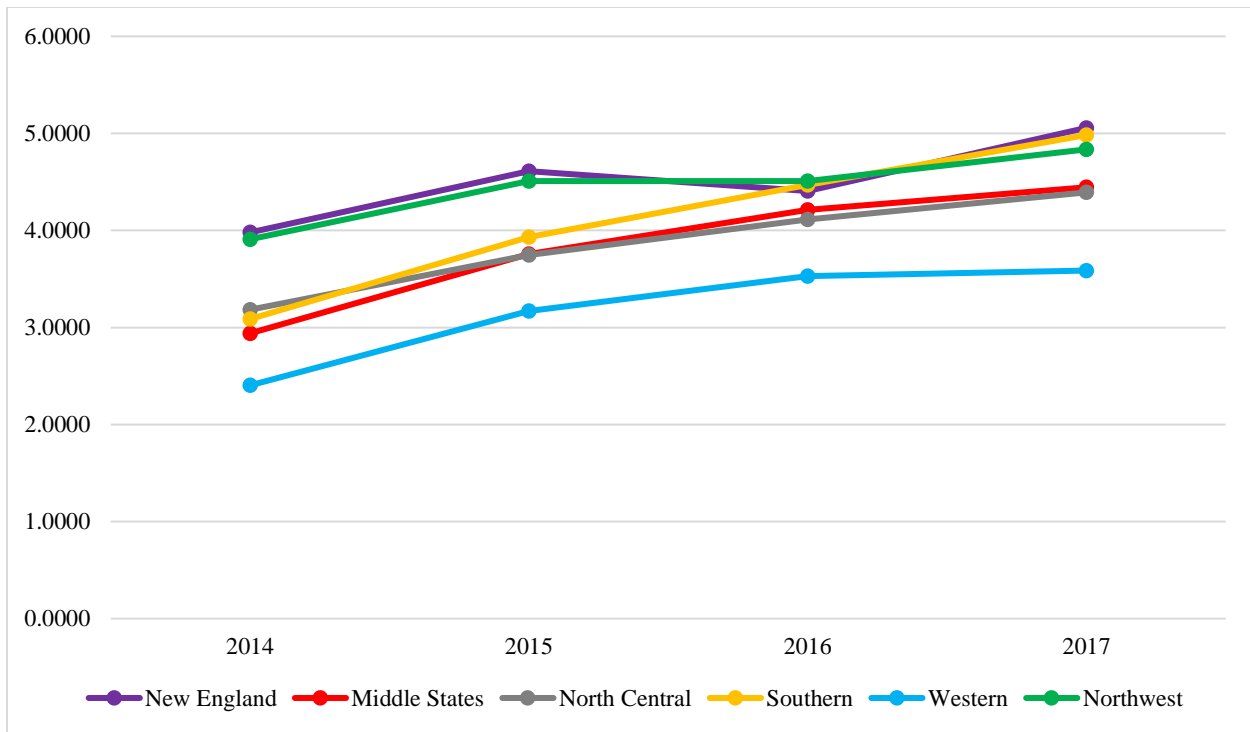


Figure 4.9. Regional Comparison of Means – VAWA Offenses Combined

In summary, the data show an overall upward trend nationally and regionally in the reporting of VAWA offenses. While the national trend was statistically significant for domestic violence, dating violence, stalking, and VAWA offenses combined, regional trends were less consistent. Possible explanations will be explored in Chapter 5.

Informing Next Steps

Having a large number of data points/cases, particularly for criminal offenses, allows for a national and regional trend analysis over time regarding Clery Act reporting that will facilitate the discussion on policy implementation in Chapter 5. The year by year examination of criminal offenses and VAWA offenses helped me narrow the focus for continuing the analysis. First, in research question 2, the forcible sex offenses variable was explored and found to approximate the same relationship over time as the VAWA variables in research question 3, while the other two crime variables did not. Although I chose to present analyses for all three violent criminal offenses, because murder and aggravated assault are considered violent crimes and in this way

are consistent with forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses, the one most relevant for the study is forcible sex offenses, and this will be the only criminal offense indicator used to address the remaining research questions.

Second, since there is a noticeable trend similarity for all three VAWA offenses and they are overall relevant to my study, for further analysis I used only the combined VAWA indicator to avoid redundant presentation. Therefore, moving forward with research questions 4 and 5, the focus will only be on forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined. The measures of interest are averaged over the four years of common reporting (2014-2017) but not across the institutions because the following two research questions are focused on institutional effects on reported crime statistics.

**Research Question 4: Forcible Sex Offenses and VAWA Offenses Combined (2014-2017)
by Institution Characteristics**

There was a change in the federal reporting of annual crime statistics in 2014 with the reauthorization of VAWA. This added to the list of crimes for which higher education administrators would be responsible to report. Starting with the first reporting year of 2014, forcible sex offenses was further defined as rape and fondling. In addition, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking were added to the list of reportable offenses under the new category of VAWA offenses. This section will focus on these four years of Clery Act reporting to answer the following research question:

RQ 4: Are there any differences in the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017) by specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization)?

To answer this research question, I compared the mean numbers (averaged over time, 2014-2017) for forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined by various institution characteristics. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted to examine whether there were differences in the mean numbers of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined by institution characteristics.

As outlined in Table 4.2, all 3,759 institutions of higher education reported about 2.6 forcible sex offenses per year between 2014 and 2017. There is a statistically significant difference between public institutions of higher education that reported an average of 2.82 forcible sex offenses per year, whereas private not-for-profit institutions reported 2.36. The corresponding one-way ANOVA test shows $F(1, 3757) = 5.021, p < .05$.

Table 4.2

Mean Numbers of Forcible Sex Offenses – Descriptives and ANOVA Tests

		Mean	SD	F	<i>p</i>
Institution Control	ALL	2.60	6.39		
	Public	2.82	7.42	5.021	.025
	Private not-for-profit	2.36	5.02		
Institution Level	4-year	3.90	7.75	139.187	.000
	2-year	.52	1.05		
	< 2-year	.08	.37		
Accreditation Region	New England	4.71	8.01	6.445	.000
	Middle States	2.56	5.54		
	North Central	2.55	7.44		
	Southern	2.16	4.98		
	Western	2.49	6.29		
	Northwest	2.77	6.01		
Institution Size	Very small	.30	1.19	197.559	.000
	Small	2.19	4.00		
	Medium	2.57	3.67		
	Large/very large	6.92	11.76		
Degree of Urbanization	City	3.49	8.39	28.651	.000
	Suburb	2.42	4.92		
	Town	2.21	4.12		
	Rural	.54	1.57		

Four-year colleges and universities reported more forcible sex offenses than two-year colleges and less-than-two-year colleges by a large margin. Four-year institutions reported an average of 3.9 forcible sex offenses per year as compared to only .52 and .08 for two-year and less-than-two-year institutions, respectively. There is a statistically significant difference among the means for the three institution levels as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(2, 3756) = 139.187, p < .001$. Post-hoc comparisons (Fisher's LSD) show that four-year institutions reported significantly higher rates than the other two categories for which means were comparable.

Colleges and universities in the New England accreditation region reported more forcible sex offenses than their counterparts in the other five regions. New England institutions reported an average of 4.71 forcible sex offenses per year. The next closest region was the Northwest with a reported average of 2.77 forcible sex offenses per year. The difference among mean numbers of forcible sex offenses by accreditation region was statistically significant as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(5, 3753) = 6.445, p < .001$. Post-hoc comparisons (Fisher's LSD) show that only New England reported significantly higher rates than the other regions for which means were comparable.

Large/very large institutions reported the most forcible sex offenses with an average of 6.92 per year while very small schools reported the fewest with an average of .30 forcible sex offenses per year. The difference among the means of forcible sex offenses was statistically significantly different by institution size as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(3, 3755) = 197.559, p < .001$. While the means were comparable for small and medium institutions, all other pairs were significantly different as shown by post-hoc comparisons tests.

Finally, institutions located in cities reported more than colleges and universities in suburbs, towns, and rural locations with an average of 3.49 forcible sex offenses per year. The

mean numbers of forcible sex offenses were statistically significantly different among the four degree of urbanization categories as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(3, 3755) = 28.651, p < .001$. While the means were comparable for institutions located in towns and suburbs, all other pairs were significantly different as shown by post-hoc comparisons tests.

A similar analysis was conducted for VAWA offenses combined. As outlined in Table 4.3, all 3,736 institutions of higher education reported about 3.92 VAWA offenses combined per year between 2014 and 2017. However, public institutions of higher education reported significantly more acts of VAWA offenses combined at an average of 5.15 per year, versus private not-for-profit institutions that reported 2.57 per year. The difference between the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined by institution control was statistically significant as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(1, 3734) = 77.618, p < .001$.

Table 4.3

Mean Numbers of VAWA Offenses – Descriptives and ANOVA Tests

		Mean	SD	F	p
Institution Control	ALL	3.92	9.05	77.618	.000
	Public	5.15	11.21		
	Private not-for-profit	2.57	5.55		
Institution Level	4-year	5.41	10.87	93.320	.000
	2-year	1.71	3.61		
	< 2-year	.20	1.09		
Accreditation Region	New England	4.51	7.50	.947	.449
	Middle States	3.81	8.00		
	North Central	3.85	10.39		
	Southern	4.10	9.19		
	Western	3.15	6.33		
	Northwest	4.43	8.89		
Institution Size	Very small	.52	2.21	300.098	.000
	Small	2.20	3.61		
	Medium	4.01	4.97		
	Large/very large	11.41	16.58		

Table 4.3 (continued)

		Mean	SD	F	<i>p</i>
Degree of Urbanization	City	5.66	12.07	43.933	.000
	Suburb	3.36	6.90		
	Town	2.69	4.54		
	Rural	.95	2.06		

Four-year colleges and universities reported the most VAWA offenses combined at an average of 5.41 per year as compared to two-year institutions at 1.71 and less-than-two-year colleges at .20. The difference among the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined by institution level was statistically significant as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(2, 3733) = 93.320, p < .001$. Post-hoc comparisons (Fisher's LSD) show statistically significant differences between the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined for all institution level pairs.

The effect of accreditation region was not statistically significant when comparing the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined [$F(5, 3730) = .947, p = .449$]. Institutions in the New England, Southern, and Northwest accreditation regions had the highest VAWA offenses combined means reported at 4.51, 4.10, and 4.43, respectively. Since the ANOVA test was not significant for this institution characteristic, no post-hoc comparisons were conducted.

However, statistically significant differences among means were obtained when considering institution size [$F(3, 3732) = 300.098, p < .001$]. Large/very large colleges and universities reported the most VAWA offenses with an average of 11.41 per year while very small schools reported the fewest with .52 per year. Post-hoc comparisons (Fisher's LSD) show that mean differences were statistically significant for all institution size pairs.

Finally, institutions located in cities reported more VAWA offenses than institutions in suburbs, towns, and rural locations with an average of 5.66 per year. The next closest was

suburbs with an average of 3.36 acts of violence per year. There was a statistically significant difference among the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined as indicated by the one-way ANOVA test: $F(3, 3732) = 43.933, p < .001$. As shown by post-hoc comparisons tests, the mean numbers of VAWA offenses combined were statistically significantly different, except for institutions located in towns and suburbs for which means were comparable.

Therefore, the average reported numbers of VAWA offenses combined was statistically significantly different by each institution characteristic category, except for accreditation region. In summary, the data show that institution characteristics are relevant factors that differentiate Clery Act reporting. While the analyses show a strong relationship between reporting and institution characteristics, we do not know the cause of these differences. Possible explanations will be explored in Chapter 5.

Research Question 5: Regression Models

As suggested in Chapter 2, university administrators navigate the I-E-A-O model (Figure 2.2) to maintain compliance with the federal government. The inputs (I) play an important role in how practitioners can approach their work in preventing violence against women and providing support services once violence has occurred, which also has an effect on the number of crimes reported. Therefore, it is important to better understand the role these inputs, defined by a variety of institution and enrollment characteristics, may have on the outcomes (O) of Clery Act reported numbers in the categories of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined.

The following research question was studied:

RQ 5: What is the relative contribution of specific institution characteristics (e.g., control, level, region, size, degree of urbanization) and enrollment characteristics (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, student classification, Pell grants awarded) on the

average number of forcible sex offenses and of VAWA offenses combined over a period of four years (2014-2017)?

To answer this research question, multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between various predictors such as institution characteristics (control, level, region, size, and degree of urbanization) and enrollment characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity, age, student classification, and Pell grants awarded) and two outcome variables: forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined numbers averaged over the period 2014-2017.

Forcible Sex Offenses Model

The multiple regression model for the outcome was found to be statistically significant, $F(23, 3458) = 77.799, p < .001$, with the five institution characteristics and nine enrollment characteristics explaining a total of 33.7% ($R^2_{adj} = .337$) of the variance in the dependent variable (average number of forcible sex offenses). Regression model coefficients are presented in Table 4.4 that include both the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and their standard errors (SE) and the standardized coefficients (β) in addition to the p-value of the t-tests for the coefficients. While unstandardized coefficients are helpful in understanding the actual contribution to the outcome score, the standardized coefficients also show the relative contribution of each variable or category and were used in interpreting the findings. Positive and negative values indicate a positive and respectively a negative effect on the dependent variable (average number of forcible sex offenses).

The reference categories for the categorical variables are public institutions, four-year institutions, colleges and universities in the North Central accreditation region, large/very large institutions, and colleges and universities in cities. Dummy variables were created for the other

categories. The enrollment percentages are continuous variables, and of course we include only those unrelated (e.g., only percentage of women). Additionally, for the race/ethnicity continuous variables under review, I did not include any of the groups with small percentages (e.g., American Indian or Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, Two or More Races, and Unknown Race/Ethnicity) that create an Other category adding up to 100% for the race/ethnicity percentage.

Table 4.4

Multiple Regression Model – Forcible Sex Offenses

	Variables	B	SE	β	<i>p</i>
	Constant	1.776	.546		.001
Institution Control	Private Not-for-Profit	-.440	.135	-.065	.001
Institution Level	2-Year	-1.869	.134	-.261	.000
	< 2-Year	-.145	.231	-.012	.532
Accreditation Region	New England	.779	.202	.058	.000
	Middle States	-.096	.142	-.011	.499
	Southern	-.330	.131	-.044	.012
	Western	-.656	.215	-.055	.002
	Northwest	-.147	.219	-.010	.502
Institution Size	Very Small	-3.117	.185	-.424	.000
	Small	-2.867	.161	-.374	.000
	Medium	-2.559	.147	-.326	.000
Degree of Urbanization	Suburb	-.253	.120	-.033	.035
	Town	-.084	.140	-.010	.550
	Rural	-.265	.167	-.027	.112
Gender	Percentage Women	.008	.003	.040	.007
Race/Ethnicity	Percentage Asian	.050	.010	.094	.000
	Percentage Black or African American	.003	.005	.017	.552
	Percentage Hispanic	-.009	.005	-.050	.077
	Percentage White	.002	.004	.018	.602
	Percentage Nonresident Alien	.047	.008	.105	.000
Age	Percentage Under 25	.035	.306	.002	.000
Classification	Percentage Graduate	.023	.004	.123	.000
Pell Grants Awarded	Percentage Undergraduate Students with Pell Grants	-.011	.003	-.058	.001

The forcible sex offenses model indicates that the largest contribution to explaining the outcome was attributable to the institution size categories. Compared to very large institutions, the average number of offenses is significantly lower for all other institution sizes. For instance, in very small institutions, the average number of forcible sex offenses is three points lower ($B = -3.117$; $p < .001$; $\beta = -.424$), and the effects are quite similar for the other two categories.

Institution level also has a strong effect on the outcome. In particular, the average number of forcible sex offenses is about two points lower for two-year institutions compared to four-year institutions ($B = -1.869$; $p < .001$; $\beta = -.261$).

Other institution characteristics have only slight effects on the outcome. Notable is the negative effect on the average number of forcible sex offenses for private not-for-profit institutions, for colleges and universities located in suburbs, and for institutions situated in the Southern and Western accreditation regions. However, New England institutions have a significantly higher number of reported forcible sex offenses than those in the North Central accreditation region (reference category).

When examining the effect on the average number of forcible sex offenses by enrollment characteristics, I found the strongest positive effect (more reported offenses) due to a higher graduate enrollment ($B = .023$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .123$). Other significant effects are due to race/ethnicity and indicate an increase in the average number of reported offenses at institutions with higher proportions of Asian and Nonresident Alien (Asian, $B = .050$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .094$; Nonresident Alien, $B = .047$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .105$). For these variables, which are percentages, the analysis indicates that for every unit increase, the reported number of forcible sex offenses would increase by .050 and .047, respectively. Not surprising, an increase in the outcome is also due to higher percentages of women students ($B = .008$; $p < .01$; $\beta = .040$). Higher percentages of

students under age 25 also increase the average number of forcible sex offenses ($B = .035$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .002$), while larger percentages of undergraduates receiving Pell grants have a negative effect on the outcome ($B = -.011$; $p < .01$; $\beta = -.058$).

VAWA Offenses Combined Model

For VAWA offenses combined, the multiple regression model was found to be statistically significant, $F(23, 3438) = 75.325$, $p < .001$, with the five institution characteristics and nine enrollment characteristics explaining a total of 33.5% ($R^2_{adj} = .335$) of the variance in the dependent variable (average number of VAWA offenses combined). Regression model coefficients are presented in Table 4.5 that include both the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and the standardized coefficients (β). Positive and negative values indicate a positive and respectively a negative effect on the dependent variable (average number of VAWA offenses combined). The VAWA model includes the same independent variables as described above in the forcible sex offenses model.

Table 4.5

Multiple Regression Model – VAWA Offenses Combined

	Variables	B	SE	β	p
	Constant	7.793	1.540		.000
Institution Control	Private Not-for-Profit	-3.069	.379	-.164	.000
Institution Level	2-Year	-4.738	.377	-.238	.000
	< 2-Year	-1.157	.653	-.033	.076
Accreditation Region	New England	-.186	.563	-.005	.742
	Middle States	-.450	.397	-.019	.257
	Southern	-.360	.366	-.017	.326
	Western	-3.850	.606	-.116	.000
	Northwest	-.247	.612	-.006	.686
Institution Size	Very Small	-9.020	.521	-.439	.000
	Small	-8.927	.452	-.420	.000
	Medium	-7.640	.411	-.350	.000

Table 4.5 (continued)

	Variables	B	SE	β	<i>p</i>
Degree of Urbanization	Suburb	-1.445	.337	-.067	.000
	Town	-1.535	.393	-.066	.000
	Rural	-1.434	.466	-.052	.002
Gender	Percentage Women	.018	.008	.033	.028
Race/Ethnicity	Percentage Asian	.130	.029	.086	.000
	Percentage Black or African American	.004	.015	.008	.778
	Percentage Hispanic	-.020	.014	-.041	.155
	Percentage White	-.006	.012	-.017	.617
	Percentage Nonresident Alien	.110	.023	.086	.000
Age	Percentage Under 25	.074	.863	.002	.000
Classification	Percentage Graduate	.082	.011	.157	.000
Pell Grants Awarded	Percentage Undergraduate Students with Pell Grants	.009	.009	.017	.338

The VAWA offenses combined model indicates that the largest contribution to explaining the outcome was attributable to the institution size category. Compared to large/very large institutions, the average number of offenses is significantly lower for all other institution sizes. For instance, in very small institutions, the average number of VAWA offenses combined is nine points lower ($B = -9.02$; $p < .001$; $\beta = -.439$).

The three categories associated with degree of urbanization are worth noting. All three, suburb, town, and rural, were found to be statistically significant in the model. Furthermore, all three have negative coefficients, indicating that the average number of reports for VAWA offenses combined are fewer outside of an urban setting.

Perhaps not surprisingly, the categories relating to accreditation region were mostly not statistically significant. However, the Western region stands apart as it was found to have a statistically significant ($B = -3.850$; $p < .001$; $\beta = -.116$) negative effect on the outcome variable.

When examining the effect on the average number of VAWA offenses combined by enrollment characteristics, I found the strongest positive effect (more reported offenses) due to a higher graduate enrollment ($B = .082$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .157$). Other significant effects are due to race/ethnicity and indicate an increase in the average number of reported offenses at institutions with higher proportions of Asian and Nonresident Alien (Asian, $B = .130$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .086$; Nonresident Alien, $B = .110$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .086$). For these variables, which are percentages, the analysis indicates that for every unit increase, the reported number of VAWA offenses combined would increase by .130 and .110, respectively. Not surprising, an increase in the outcome is also due to higher percentages of women students ($B = .018$; $p < .05$; $\beta = .033$). Higher percentages of students under age 25 also increases the average number of VAWA offenses combined ($B = .074$; $p < .001$; $\beta = .002$). Additionally, larger percentages of undergraduates receiving Pell grants also increase the average number of VAWA offenses combined ($B = .009$; $p = .338$; $\beta = .017$), but the outcome is not statistically significant.

In summary, the regression models indicate that forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined are reported less frequently by private not-for-profit colleges and universities, 2-year institutions, institutions located in the Western accreditation region, very small colleges and universities, and institutions in rural, town, and suburb locations when compared to the corresponding reference categories. Additionally, forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined are more frequently reported when the enrollment consists of more women, Asians, students under the age of 25, and graduate students.

Summary

Notable findings from my study include:

- The Clery Act reporting data status is related to institution characteristics with concerns that some institutions are likely to have years or areas of missing data. Although the analysis of quantitative data does not allow to explain the relationship, possible policy-related explanations should be explored. Private not-for-profit institutions, less-than-2-year institutions, schools located in the Southern and Western accreditation regions, very small institutions, and both city and suburban institutions are more likely to have missing data compared to their counterparts when examining 17 years of violent criminal offenses data.
- Forcible sex offenses reporting has been on an upward trend regionally and nationally since 2009. The increasing trend was statistically significant at both the national level and in all six accreditation regions. There are clear changes in reporting based on year and dates of federal policy implementation that could be further explored based on this observed trend. Additionally, there was also a downward trend in aggravated assaults over the 17 years examined. This trend was statistically significant at both the national level and in all six accreditation regions.
- There is also an overall upward trend nationally and regionally in the reporting of VAWA offenses. The national trend was statistically significant for domestic violence, dating violence, stalking, and VAWA offenses combined. However, the effect of accreditation region was not remarkable, suggesting that region does not play a major role in institutional reporting. There are clear changes in reporting based on year and dates of federal policy implementation that could be further explored based on these observed trends.

- Institution characteristics, except accreditation region, appear to play a significant role in the average numbers of reported forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined with specific patterns of difference that will be further discussed.
- When all variables are included in multiple linear regression models, several institution and enrollment characteristics appear to be more significant. For forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined, a lower average number of offenses appears at private not-for-profit colleges and universities, 2-year institutions, institutions located in the Western accreditation region, very small colleges and universities, and institutions in rural, town, and suburban locations, which suggests specific attributes that may hinder reporting crimes. Some of the variables have a bigger impact than others between the two models. Additionally, forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses combined are more frequently reported when the enrollment consists of higher percentages of women, Asians, students under the age of 25, and graduate students. These and other findings will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

My study added to the literature and research regarding federal policy implementation and its impact on Clery Act data reported by higher education institutions in the categories of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses. One goal of this inquiry was to understand if changes in federal guidelines, policies, and legislation impacted the reporting of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses. Stated another way, I questioned whether institutions increased their level of accountability in response to specific changes in federal mandates. What my study could not expect to achieve, due to information limitations, was to examine in a systematic way whether data reported reflect the actual experiences of college women. Although this was the problem that stirred my interest and triggered my study, my analyses only describe the data reported by higher education administrators through the Annual Security Report (ASR), as required by the Clery Act, and discuss to what extent the data might reflect the actual experiences of college women when compared to numerous government and scholarly research on the topic.

The Clery Act was created with the intention of requiring transparency between institutions and the public regarding campus crime. Subsequent federal guidelines, policies, and legislation were designed to hold higher education administrators accountable to the reporting of acts of violence against women and to call out universities for not doing more to change this accepted culture of violence. The federal government additionally mandated the implementation of preventative and educational programming requirements and the creation of resources and services for victims.

The primary goals of my study were to examine Clery Act data reporting over time and in relation to institution and enrollment characteristics in the categories of forcible sex offenses and

VAWA offenses and to also explore whether federal guidelines, policies, and legislation may have led to better and more accurate data collection through Clery Act reporting. Furthermore, my study examined profiles of institutions that (1) fail to complete Clery Act reporting as federally mandated and (2) report data in a systematic way, therefore, results can be compared with the actual rates of violence against women discovered from national campus climate surveys and federally funded research studies explored in Chapters 1 and 2. Finally, since organizational and contextual institution characteristics are crucial in determining the interpretation and implementation of policies, my study examined how specific characteristics affected the number of forcible sex offenses and VAWA offenses reported.

The proposed Input-Environment-Accountability-Outcome (I-E-A-O) model (see Figure 2.2) provided a framework through which to select and explore the data reporting on violence against women at institutions of higher education. Through the I-E-A-O model, I also determined how to examine the nature of relationship between accountability/compliance and accurate reporting, using national data on violence against women as a benchmark. This model also allowed the examination of reporting data by way of institution-level variables and reporting data.

Specifically, in research question 1, I explored how institution characteristics (I) related to completeness of Clery Act data reporting (A). In research questions 2 and 3, I examined changes over time of reported numbers (O) to identify any federal policy effects (E). In research question 4, I investigated the relevance of different types of reported violence against women (O) by considering institution characteristics (I). Finally, in research question 5, the effect of both institution characteristics (I) and enrollment characteristics (I) on reported crimes (O) was

explored. Therefore, although my study did not aim at “testing” the theoretical model, it explored components of the model and their relationships.

In the remainder of Chapter 5, I discuss my interpretation of major study findings in relation to research literature. I also outline implications for policy and practice, discuss the limitations of my study, and revisit the significance of my study. Finally, I provide recommendations for future research. As a result of my study, I hope policymakers and the U.S. DOE will have additional information to help in their enforcement of federal mandates and to specifically identify institutions that may need additional support and resources to better meet the needs of their campus communities.

Interpretation of Major Study Findings

The following themes emerged from my analyses as presented in Chapter 4: compliance and accountability, reporting trends corresponding to federal policy, and effect of institution and enrollment characteristics.

Compliance and Accountability

A primary issue in understanding and subsequently preventing violence against women at institutions of higher education is capturing accurate data about the occurrence of incidents. The disparity between what is reported to campus officials and large-scale national data acquired via independent research beyond mandated reporting via the Clery Act is problematic. It is indicative of real and perceived barriers to students reporting their experiences compounded with ineffective federal reporting guidelines. One way to fully understand if higher education administrators are making a cultural change regarding violence against women is to have reliable data to compare across years and across institutions. There are two levels of compliance and accountability when considering the role higher education administrators play in reporting Clery

Act data. The first level is complying with federal mandates by submitting annual crime statistics. The second level is reporting what is truly taking place in the lives of college women (i.e., violence against women is underreported).

Compliance with federal mandates. Reporting campus crime statistics is federally monitored, and compliance is mandatory. Specifically, the ASR is a mandatory reporting requirement as outlined in the Clery Act. When reviewing data from the CSS online portal for criminal offenses (2001-2017), it was apparent that some 10% of institutions did not fully complete the mandatory reporting as required by the federal government. As a reminder, only six offenses categories were studied. The violent criminal offenses included sex offenses forcible, murder, and aggravated assault, and VAWA offenses included domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. The 10% is only reflective of the violent criminal offenses studied. Other Clery Act reportable crimes were not salient to my study and, thus, were not included. Therefore, I am not able to speak to how administrators either reported or did not report in those categories.

In some rare instances, an institution might have no data reported for an entire year. In other words, university administrators failed to submit the appropriate paperwork to the U.S. DOE. In other cases, data may have been missing for an entire offense category (missing data should not be confused with zero incidents that were counted as reported). This means that nothing was reported in any of the Clery Act geographies. Finally, what happened most frequently, was that many institutions were missing data for the Clery Act geography of non-campus. A possible explanation for this could be that the definition of this geographical requirement is potentially confusing for administrators, so they simply report nothing.

A study completed by Karjane, Fisher, and Cullen (2002) revealed that only 36.5% of institutions reported crime statistics in a way that was fully compliant with the Clery Act. To

compound the issue further, the institutional compliance difficulties with federal guidelines, policies, and legislation has also led to inconsistencies in the implementation of prevention programs at some institutions of higher education (Karjane et al., 2005). In my analysis of the 3,759 colleges and universities that submitted statistics for the three violent criminal offenses under review, 10.1% had missing reporting data. This means that 380 institutions were not in compliance with federal policy. However, the almost 90% of institutions reporting data is much higher than the Karjane et al.'s (2002) result reported almost 20 years ago, which may suggest an improvement.

Institution characteristics are related to the Clery Act reporting data status. In other words, institution characteristics may be related to compliance. Private not-for-profit institutions, less-than-2-year institutions, colleges and universities located in the Southern and Western accreditation regions, very small institutions, and both city and suburban institutions were more likely to be represented among the missing data institutions compared to their counterparts. This has not previously been researched and explanations would need to be sought with future research. It is problematic and noteworthy for policymakers to be cognizant of these types of institutions. While my research did not have access to information to explore the possible causes for these institutions' lack of compliance, it could be an important consideration for policymakers as there may be funding issues, staffing shortfalls, or lack of readily available expertise. Future research into this specific issue would help to create that holistic picture.

Accountability to college women. Higher education administrators have an obligation to students, families, staff, and faculty to accurately report crime statistics. However, incidents of violence against women are underreported. Specifically, researchers and federal policymakers acknowledge that sexual assault may be the largest unreported violent crime in the United States

(Harrell et al., 2009; Karjane et al., 2002). Research through national campus climate surveys and federally funded studies have determined that at least 20% of college women will experience sexual assault (American College Health Association, 2012; Anderson & Clement, 2015; Black et al., 2011; Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009; Edwards, 2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane et al., 2005; Suzuki, 2013; U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011). While there is less research on other forms of violence against women, it is estimated that 10% of students experience intimate partner violence (dating violence and domestic violence) and 4.2% experience stalking (Cantor et al., 2015).

My study revealed that institutional data comes nowhere close to reporting the realities of a college woman's experience. In 2017, the average number of forcible sex offenses officially reported by all 3,759 colleges and universities through the Clery Act was just over three offenses at 3.15. If further divided by the millions of women at these institutions, the number of reported offenses would be extremely low and would in no way compare with the one-in-five prevalence rate over a woman's college experience. There is a slight difference in the reporting of forcible sex offenses regionally where in 2017, New England colleges and universities reported an average of five forcible sex offenses, whereas institutions in the Southern region only reported an average of 2.67 forcible sex offenses.

Regarding 2017 VAWA offenses, the average number of domestic violence offenses and dating violence offenses officially reported by all 3,736 colleges and universities through the Clery Act was similar at 1.29 and 1.38, respectively. Stalking offenses were slightly higher at 1.89 incidents officially reported. Like forcible sex offenses, all categories of VAWA offenses were underreported compared to national statistics of the same population. Regionally, there were no noteworthy differences in the reporting of numbers. Between the highest and the lowest

reported mean regionally, there was a difference of .42 (domestic violence), .78 (dating violence), and .86 (stalking) incidents.

There are many reasons that are outside the purview of federal mandates as to why a student may not want to report a sexual assault or other act of violence. However, there may be many more reports coming to university officials that never make it into the ASR as the victimization may have occurred outside the Clery Act geographical locations. Moreover, to encourage victims to report, university administrators can help students feel more comfortable and supported in reporting acts of violence by removing any real or perceived barriers to reporting.

Reporting Trends Corresponding to Federal Policy

The Obama administration ushered in the era of enhanced enforcement of Title IX. Through the creation of task forces, prevention programs, victim services, guidelines, policies, and legislation, the federal government put higher education on alert, forcing administrators to take a very serious look at violence against women on their college campuses. My study clearly showed a change in institutional reporting because of President Obama's enhanced enforcement initiatives.

It is important to note that an increase in reporting does not necessarily mean there was an increase in actual acts of violence against women. Again, as studies have shown (American College Health Association, 2012; Anderson & Clement, 2015; Black et al., 2011; Bradley, Yeater, & O'Donohue, 2009; Edwards, 2009; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005; Suzuki, 2013; U.S. DOE, OCR, 2011), one-in-five women will be the victim of sexual assault while attending college, and sexual assault, along with other

forms of violence against women, is greatly underreported. Therefore, the increase in reporting must indeed be due to other factors, such as the enforcement of federal mandates.

There was an upward trend in the reporting of forcible sex offenses starting in 2009 (.88) and continuing through 2017 (3.15). This represents a 258% increase in the reporting of forcible sex offenses over the nine-year period. There was a range in reporting in 2009 from 0 to 35 incidents, with that range increasing from 0 to 226 in 2017. This same trend can be seen in all six accreditation regions from 2009-2017, with the largest change in reporting happening in the Southern region from .68 to 2.67, a 293% increase (see Figure 4.2 and Appendix 2, Table A5 for more details).

There was also a slight upward trend in the reporting of all three VAWA offenses categories from 2014-2017, which are the only years of data availability. Domestic violence reporting increased from .96 to 1.29, dating violence increased from .95 to 1.38, and stalking increased from 1.22 to 1.89. This represents an increase in reporting by 34%, 45%, and 55%, respectively. The same trends can be seen in all six accreditation regions from 2014-2017 (see Figures 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and Appendix 2, Table A7 for more details).

The increase in official reporting through the Clery Act aligns with the Obama administration's intentional efforts to address sexual violence on college campuses as well as the specific ways in which the federal government ushered in a new era of accountability. Violence against women on college campuses was publicly recognized as a significant problem and institutions of higher education were charged with taking immediate attention and action. Notable efforts during the length of the Obama administration from 2009-2017 include the 2011 Dear Colleague Letter, the 2013 reauthorization of VAWA (also known as the Campus SaVE Act), the 2014 White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault, the 2014

Questions and Answers on Title IX and Sexual Violence, and the 2014 “It’s On Us” campaign. All of these were discussed in more detail in Chapters 1 and 2. During this time, the U.S. DOE opened hundreds of investigations into how institutions of higher education handled sexual assault and other acts of violence against women, which forced colleges and universities to change their policies to provide more support to victims.

Institution and Enrollment Characteristics

When looking at the differences in the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined from 2014-2017, certain institution characteristics played a significant role. For both offenses categories, institutions that were public, four-year, large/very large, or located in a city had more reported acts of violence against women. In addition, when looking at the relative contribution of specific institution and enrollment characteristics to the average number of forcible sex offenses and the average number of VAWA offenses combined from 2014-2017, certain institution and enrollment characteristics played a significant role. Again, public, four-year, large/very large, and city institution characteristics equated to more incidents being reported in both offenses categories.

No other study has examined Clery Act reporting in this way. Intuitively, it makes sense that large/very large institutions would have more incidents reported as these institutions have larger student enrollments. However, public, four-year, large/very large, and city institutions could be more likely to comply with federal requirements particularly when compliance and funding are related. Even so, these institutions still have a long way to go in terms of more accurately reporting the number of incidents of violence against women. Indeed, compared to their counterparts, large/very large public institutions are more successful in reporting, though reported incidents remain low when benchmarked against incidents reported through other

government and research data independent of the mandated Clery Act. Policymakers at both the state and federal levels must understand the implications for those institutions that fall into characteristics of lower reporting. Specifically, policymakers are encouraged to examine accountability measures, dissemination and availability of training, and whether unfunded mandates may cause undue stress on already strapped campus resources. Moreover, practitioners at these institutions must be made aware that their students may be battling system issues and, thus, are not reporting to campus officials. This will allow these practitioners to identify strategies to improve their students' experiences and access to reporting, support, and other campus resources.

When looking at enrollment characteristics, the more women, under the age of 25, graduate, and Asian and non-resident alien students an institution has, the more acts of violence are reported. Some of these results align with previous studies. For instance, research confirms that women ages 18-24 are three-times more likely than women outside of this age range to experience sexual violence (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Coker, et al. (2016) found high rates of intimate partner violence among women ages 18-24.

One problem in comparing my study findings with previous research is that the overwhelming majority of studies regarding violence against women on college campuses looks specifically at the undergraduate student experience, and my data reporting is not differentiated by the level of college education. There are some studies that have explored graduate student experiences with sexual harassment (Lusher, 2018; Rosenthal, Smidt, & Freyd, 2016), as well as some larger campus climate surveys that have included graduate students in the sample (Cantor et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2020). The Association of American Universities (AAU) surveys from 2015 and 2019 reported that undergraduates have higher rates of sexual assault, intimate partner

violence, and stalking (Cantor et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2020). This does not help explain my results indicating that a higher number of graduate students means that more acts of violence against women are reported.

Finally, considering race/ethnicity characteristics, several studies have examined how race may play a factor in victimization rates (Coulter et al., 2017; Harrell et al., 2009; Hazen & Soriano, 2007; Kalof, 2000; Wahab & Olson, 2004), but Asian Americans are vastly underrepresented in research pertaining to sexual trauma (Crisanti, Frueh, Gundaya, Salvail, & Triffleman, 2011; Koo, Nguyen, Gilmore, Blayney, & Kaysen, 2014). Therefore, based on my research, I cannot explain why institutions with larger percentages of Asian and non-resident alien students would have reported more acts of violence. However, university administrators can use the results of my study to better inform the types of prevention programming and victim support services provided to their campus communities by mindfully considering enrollment characteristics relevant to their institutions.

Implications for Policy and Practice

My study has several implications for policy and practice regarding the collection of data and the reduction of violence against college women. The implications include recommended changes to Clery Act reporting policies, implementing the best practice of campus climate surveys, and providing additional federal support to institutions.

Recommended Changes to Clery Act Reporting Policies

While the spirit of the Clery Act has helped to hold higher education administrators accountable in reporting campus crime statistics in a public and accessible way, there need to be implemented changes to report these data more accurately. Given the results of my study, self-

reported crime rates may be much higher than the officially reported statistics known to the public.

First, as was discussed in my literature and policy review, there have been many national surveys and studies trying to measure violence against women. It might be worth considering incorporating components of these surveys into official Clery Act reporting to help identify discrepancies and thus collect more detailed and accurate data. As it currently stands, the Clery Act is the only federally mandated reporting mechanism for colleges and universities.

Second, gender identity is not collected or categorized with official reports of forcible sex offenses, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. Knowing the gender of victims could help better inform the study of victimization as well as what types of prevention programs and victim support services should be provided. I also recommend including non-binary options so that practitioners, researchers, and policymakers can better understand who the victims of violence really are.

Third, Clery Act geographies need to be expanded to better capture the student experience. The Clery Act talks about geography and a campus' responsibility very specifically. However, students talk about campus from a social standpoint (Wies, 2015). The definition of campus needs to be explored and expanded. As stated in the definitions of key terms section, my definition of violence against women includes any unwanted sexual experience or act of sexual violence, including rape and attempted rape, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking that occurs in the life of a woman while she is part of a university community, regardless of where the violence occurred.

Finally, these secondary data suggest severe underreporting of incidents of violence against women. Therefore, Clery Act numbers, which are accessible to the public, may not

accurately represent what is happening to college women. Based on the consistent findings of underreporting by multiple studies, Clery Act crime statistics are lower than the frequency of violent crimes reported by students in anonymous surveys. This reveals that different methods of assessment yield different data (Gardella et al., 2015). Unfortunately, even the most well-written policies become ineffectual to prevention efforts if they do not reach students in a meaningful way (Potter et al., 2016; Potter, Krider, & McMahon, 2000).

Implement the Best Practice of Campus Climate Surveys

Studies have concluded that how a student experiences their campus environment influences both their learning and developmental outcomes (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Students thrive in healthy, safe, and supportive environments. Campus climate surveys are one way to assess experiences, attitudes, and behaviors related to sexual harassment, sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (WHTF, 2014; Wood et al., 2017) and would provide the best way to assess the Clery Act data accuracy. Campus climate surveys also often include items related to bystander attitude and behavior as well as rape myth acceptance (Cantalupo, 2014). College students are balancing much more than just academics and social lives. Responses to such surveys can help higher education administrators improve programs, services, and policies.

First, campus climate surveys help to uncover unreported crimes, assess the quality of response by the institution, and gauge how much students know about on- and off-campus resources and services (Wood et al., 2017). These surveys also catalog issues and concerns with reporting acts of violence against women by providing a wide-reaching and often anonymous platform for students to report their experiences (Cantalupo, 2014; Wood et al., 2017). This

additional information can help higher education administrators to work towards a safer campus environment for all students.

Second, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, campus climate surveys are not currently federally mandated, and public access to the findings is not required for those institutions utilizing surveys. However, the Department of Justice (2016) and the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault (2014) view campus climate surveys as a best practice, and both groups urge higher education administrators to use the surveys to help prevent campus sexual assault. Harper and Hurtado (2007) indicate that the purpose of conducting and reporting campus climate research should be to serve as a means for institutional change. If an institution is truly invested in change, the ease of accessing the results of a campus climate survey would indicate the institution's commitment to improving the climate. Such transparency would help prospective and current students and their families have a more accurate understanding of campus life.

Third, the practice of common language and common measures about violence against women at institutions of higher education can help to collect more accurate information about what is taking place on individual campuses. Higher education administrators can take this information to reform campus policies and procedures and to improve programs and services (Cantor et al., 2015). By integrating survey data with other sources of information, higher education administrators can create a healthy campus ecosystem, always keeping the student experience in mind. In making data-informed decisions, campuses can also maximize campus resources for the highest return on investment. For many institutions, resources are at a premium and such practice allows administrators to be good stewards of limited funds.

Fourth, the Campus Accountability and Safety Act of 2015 (CASA) was an attempt to federally mandate a common campus climate survey to all institutions of higher education by amending the Clery Act. While CASA was not passed into law, the implications would have directly impacted higher education administrators. The proposed amendment to the Clery Act would have required an online, biennial survey of students regarding their experiences with sexual harassment, sexual violence, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking (GovTrack.us, 2020). Campus-level data from the campus climate surveys for each institution of higher education would have been required to be published on the individual institution's website as well as the U.S. DOE's website (GovTrack.us, 2020). CASA would have created a more holistic and comprehensive reporting structure for acts of violence against women across all institutions of higher education. A clearer and more accurate picture of how widespread and pervasive the issue of violence against women really is could have emerged and ultimately assisted administrators in improving the climate of their campus communities. Currently, if an institution does conduct a campus climate survey, there are no requirements for the information to be used or communicated in any specific manner.

Finally, it is much more likely that institutions will comply with the Clery Act, which is federally mandated, than they will effectively administer a campus climate survey, which is not mandated. The campus climate survey would provide much more valuable and meaningful data to campus officials, including the actual occurrences of violence against women as a supplement to the reported occurrences. The goal, therefore, is to get these two things as close as possible. That way, there is a system in place to capture data so we can figure out if we are making a difference on our campuses over time by decreasing such disruptive and heinous behaviors.

Provide Additional Federal Support to Institutions

Several institution and enrollment characteristics were identified as areas of vulnerability for institutions of higher education. The federal government needs to engage in a problem analysis with higher education administrators to assess local problems and resources, which will inform specific goals and objectives. The federal government could provide institutions of concern with additional support to help campus administrators tackle this pervasive issue.

First, such support could include access to more grant funding. For example, the Office on Violence Against Women (OVW) within the Department of Justice administers 19 grant programs (DOJ, Office on Violence Against Women [OVW], 2020). Only one of these grant programs focuses specifically on institutions of higher education. In 2018, the Campus Program gave out 57 awards, totaling over \$18 million. While this is commendable, this barely scratches the surface of the almost 4,000 institutions included in my study. The OVW also provides technical assistance and training to those institutions who have been awarded grants. Some of their training, though, is available to the public via their website. More training opportunities should be made available free of charge to higher education administrators.

Second, policymakers could work on the clarity and refinement of current guidelines, policies, and legislation to make them easier to understand and implement. A campus administrator should not need to hire a lawyer to understand what is expected of them and their colleagues to successfully comply with federal mandates in the interest of protecting and helping students. Policymakers should draw upon existing theory, research, and data to decide what strategies might work best when working with institutions that have certain characteristics. This includes evaluating programs, policies, and services and then using the results for targeted improvement.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

My study had several limitations. The first limitation was the reliance on secondary data from the CSS and IPEDS databases. The data are self-reported by institution administrators, and there is the potential for lack of reporting or inaccurate reporting, especially through the Clery Act mandated reporting in the CSS datasets. There are several reasons why reported numbers could be called into question. The first reason for inaccurate reporting is that university officials may not want to report actual numbers to make their campuses appear safer. A second reason is that reported incidents may fall outside the Clery Act geography reporting requirements, so campus administrators have no official means of publicly reporting those numbers. They are also not required to report those numbers. A third reason is that practitioners may not understand the Clery Act reporting requirements and therefore inadvertently fail to report or underreport. Finally, victims of acts of violence may not come forward to officially report, which may result in underreporting. For instance, the low reporting rate of forcible sex offenses could be due to numerous factors such as the sensitive and personal nature of these types of crimes, the fact that many victims do not describe what happened to them as actual crimes, or the lack of confidence a victim has that reporting the crime will result in suitable outcomes (Krebs et al., 2016). University officials disclose numbers based only on the reports they receive applicable to Clery Act geography requirements.

The second limitation was that Clery Act mandated reporting does not include the gender of the victim reporting the incident. With so few men victims of sexual misconduct and intimate partner violence at both national and collegiate levels, as highlighted throughout my paper, the main story of Clery Act reported incidents becomes largely a woman story. This does not imply that sexual violence and acts of unwanted sexual experiences against men is any less important

or serious as violence against women. Federal guidelines, policies, and legislation as well as institutional services and responses should be designed with all students in mind, regardless of gender identity. This is unfortunately a limitation in Clery Act reporting that could easily be remedied. Through the examination of statistics and studies presented in the review of literature and policy, I identified that the probable ratio of male to female victims is about 1:20, which means the vast majority of reported forcible sex offenses is likely to refer to women/female victims. For the purpose of my study, therefore, violence against women numbers were treated as women victims.

The third limitation was that the Clery Act reported information does not reflect the student experience. As previously mentioned, students may experience violence outside the Clery Act geography reporting requirements, and victims of violence may not want to officially report the incident. Therefore, a false and inaccurate picture is being depicted.

The fourth limitation was that many institutions not only reported zero incidents for some years but reported zero incidents across time. This was a surprising observation that may suggest reporting issues. Finally, there is an exclusion criterion regarding federal policy reporting since the crime statistics reported to the U.S. DOE do not include institutions of higher education that do not receive federal financial aid (Title IV).

Finally, delimitations of the study are related to the research study's scope (Creswell, 2014). For instance, although the Clery Act defined the additional criminal offenses of manslaughter by negligence, robbery, burglary, motor vehicle theft, and arson; hate crimes; and arrests and referrals for disciplinary action, these variables were not included in my study as they fall outside the scope of violent crimes and violence against women.

Significance of the Study

Violence against women attending institutions of higher education is a pervasive issue; however, little research has been done on the effectiveness of federal government interventions. My study helped identify trends in reporting based on survey year as well as institution characteristics. My study also added to the literature pertaining to the reporting of domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking at institutions of higher education. Even more important, my study identified data limitations that hinder researchers' abilities to systematically explore the problem.

My study also contributes to research on policy implementation by higher education institutions. The variables used in my study were informed by the proposed I-E-A-O model that offers an avenue to examine administrative data reported by institutions in relation to mandated federal guidelines, policies, and legislation. This created a framework to discuss accountability and compliance issues. Although data does not allow to test the model, my study contributed to exploring components of the model and their relationships.

Policymakers need access to meaningful data to make informed policy decisions. My study contributed to this goal by exploring Clery Act data collected from all higher education institutions. Through the presentation and interpretation of my study results, policymakers can gain additional insight into what may and may not be working by way of federal mandates as well as consider the lack of data reliability from Clery Act reporting to better understand, and thus address, the issue of violence against women in higher education. The U.S. DOE needs to follow up with institutions that do not complete Clery Act reporting, and the results of my study have shown which institutions are more likely to not report their campus statistics. The results of

my study filled a gap in the research as no one has explored whether federal guidance is working through the examination of Clery Act data.

Recommendations for Future Research

My study should be replicated in a few years to see if the May 6, 2020 amendments to Title IX impact the upward trend in the overall reporting of acts of violence against women on college campuses. There is concern that the amendments to Title IX will impact campus reporting by creating a chilling effect.

Future research should include a deeper examination of institution and enrollment characteristics. For example, more research needs to be conducted regarding the graduate student experience beyond sexual harassment to include sexual assault, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking. If campus climate surveys are conducted, this population needs to be included. Furthermore, future research should also include the study of specific racial/ethnic minority populations to get a better understanding of how institutions can better support these students through prevention programming and provided services.

Qualitative studies involving higher education administrators, policymakers, and students could be developed to discuss and understand their experiences with Clery Act reporting. Such studies could also include an inventory of campus policies and how these policies are advertised to the campus community.

Finally, there is a concern regarding the underreporting of forcible sex offenses, domestic violence, dating violence, and stalking at institutions of higher education. This calls for a serious examination as to why college women are not reporting victimizations to campus officials.

Conclusion

Despite the extensive and ongoing study of violence against women at institutions of higher education as well as the creation and reauthorization of guidelines, policies, and legislation pertaining to sexual misconduct and intimate partner violence in the university context (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Fisher et al., 2000; Franklin, Jin, Ashworth, & Viada, 2016; Karjane et al., 2005), victimization remains a significant and pervasive problem with relatively unchanged rates (Banyard et al., 2005). Effective compliance with federal guidelines, policies, and legislation to address campus sexual violence has been inconsistent among institutions (Potter et al., 2016). However, ongoing demands from the federal government, the public, and students themselves have called for the creation and implementation of clear and concise sexual misconduct policies, programs, and services that are evidence-based and data-informed (Potter et al., 2016).

The goal of many national surveys and federally funded studies is to estimate the prevalence of violence, validly and reliably, against women on college campuses (Gialopsos, 2017). To help dispel the notion that sexual violence and intimate partner violence are rare occurrences, as one might think from the current Clery Act reported data, an accurate measurement of these incidents is needed. The Clery Act was an important step in helping generate public awareness regarding college victimization in many crime categories, and it is surprising that data may not capture the actual experiences of college women on campuses. More research is needed to begin to understand the impact of Clery Act reporting on how parents and students perceive the safety on college campuses and whether enumerated data effectively tell the stories that students and their families are seeking.

If the mission of education is self-actualization and fulfilling potential, we must first address and provide basic needs such as safety and security (Maslow, 1943). Consideration of the limitations of the Clery Act and other federal guidelines, policies, and legislation as effective mandates to prevent and deter violence against women is worthy of additional research and reflection. At present, the Clery Act and other federal policies, guidelines, and legislation are failing women at institutions of higher education.

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APPENDIX 1

STUDY VARIABLES

Appendix 1 includes several tables: general variables (Table A1); criminal offenses variables, 2001-2017 (Table A2); VAWA offenses variables, 2014-2017 (Table A3).

Table A1 provides information on institution ID and name needed to merge data from various sources. The survey year variable was used to examine trends over time.

Table A1

General Variables Used in Study

Variable	Abbreviated Code	Description
Survey Year	SURVEY_YEAR	Year Clery Act data was reported
Institution ID	UNIT_ID	Unique identification number of the institution
Name of Institution	INST_NAME	Name of institution
Student Enrollment	INST_SIZE	Total number of students enrolled (2017)

Tables A2 and A3 provide details on offenses variables from the U.S. Department of Education data source. For all indicators, I combined all Clery geography numbers by crime to create new variables. These variables were forcible sex offenses (ALL_SEX_FORC), rape (ALL_RAPE), fondling (ALL_FONDLING), murder and non-negligent manslaughter (ALL_MURDER), aggravated assault (ALL_AGG_ASSAULT), domestic violence (ALL_DOMESTIC), dating violence (ALL_DATING), and stalking (ALL_STALK). To look at VAWA incidents in its entirety, ALL_DOMESTIC, ALL-DATING, and ALL_STALK were combined to create the variable of ALL_VAWA.

Because I looked at forcible sex offenses as a whole, I also aggregated ALL_RAPE and ALL_FONDLING into the previous category of ALL_SEX_FORC by Clery geography to create the new variables of ALL_ON_SEX_FORC, ALL_NON_SEX_FORC, and ALL_PUB_SEX_FORC. Finally, a fourth variable was created combining the previous three

variables to look at all forcible sex offenses regardless of Clery geography:

COMBINED_ALL_SEX_FORC.

Table A2

Criminal Offenses Variables Used in Study (2001-2017)

Variable	Abbreviated Code	Description
On-Campus Sex Offenses Forcible	ON_SEX_FORC	On-campus Clery geography; how rape and fondling offenses were reported prior to 2014
On-Campus Rape	ON_RAPE	On-campus Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
On-Campus Fondling	ON_FONDLING	On-campus Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
On-Campus Murder	ON_MURDER	On-campus Clery geography
On-Campus Aggravated Assault	ON_AGG_ASSAULT	On-campus Clery geography
Non-Campus Sex Offenses Forcible	NON_SEX_FORC	Non-campus Clery geography; how rape and fondling offenses were reported prior to 2014
Non-Campus Rape	NON_RAPE	Non-campus Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
Non-Campus Fondling	NON_FONDLING	Non-campus Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
Non-Campus Murder	NON_MURDER	Non-campus Clery geography
Non-Campus Aggravated Assault	NON_AGG_ASSAULT	Non-campus Clery geography
Public Property Sex Offenses Forcible	PUB_SEX_FORC	Public property Clery geography; how rape and fondling offenses were reported prior to 2014
Public Property Rape	PUB_RAPE	Public property Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
Public Property Fondling	PUB_FONDLING	Public property Clery geography; reporting started in 2014
Public Property Murder	PUB_MURDER	Public property Clery geography
Public Property Aggravated Assault	PUB_AGG_ASSAULT	Public property Clery geography
All Sex Offenses Forcible	ALL_SEX_FORC	ON_SEX_FORC + NON_SEX_FORC + PUB_SEX_FORC; reports prior to 2014
All Rape	ALL_RAPE	ON_RAPE + NON_RAPE + PUB_RAPE; reports from 2014 and after
All Fondling	ALL_FONDLING	ON_FONDLING + NON_FONDLING + PUB_FONDLING; reports from 2014 and after
All Murder	ALL_MURDER	ON_MURDER + NON_MURDER + PUB_MURDER
All Aggravated Assault	ALL_AGG_ASSAULT	ON_AGG_ASSAULT + NON_AGG_ASSAULT + PUB_AGG_ASSAULT
Combined On-Campus Sex Offenses Forcible, On-Campus Rape, On-Campus Fondling	ALL_ON_SEX_FORC	ON_SEX_FORC + ON_RAPE + ON_FONDLING; on-campus Clery geography
Combined Non-Campus Sex Offenses Forcible, Non-Campus Rape, Non-Campus Fondling	ALL_NON_SEX_FORC	NON_SEX_FORC + NON_RAPE + NON_FONDLING; non-campus Clery geography

Table A2 (continued)

Variable	Abbreviated Code	Description
Combined Public Property Sex Offenses Forcible, Public Property Rape, Public Property Fondling	ALL_PUB_SEX_FORC	PUB_SEX_FORC + PUB_RAPE + PUB_FONDLING; public property Clery geography
Combined All Sex Offenses Forcible, All Rape, All Fondling	COMBINED_ALL_SEX_FORC	ALL_ON_SEX_FORC + ALL_NON_SEX_FORC + ALL_PUB_SEX_FORC; all three Clery geographies
Combined All Sex Offenses Forcible Report Ranges	COMBINED_ALL_SEX_FORC_RANGE	Creation of two value labels (1 = number of reports is equal to or less than five; 2 = number of reports is greater than five)
Years of Data	CRIMINAL_YEARS	Number of years of data availability

Table A3

VAWA Offenses Variables Used in Study (2014-2017)

Variable	Abbreviated Code	Description
On-Campus Domestic Violence	ON_DOMESTIC	On-campus Clery geography
On-Campus Dating Violence	ON_DATING	On-campus Clery geography
On-Campus Stalking	ON_STALK	On-campus Clery geography
Non-Campus Domestic Violence	NON_DOMESTIC	Non-campus Clery geography
Non-Campus Dating Violence	NON_DATING	Non-campus Clery geography
Non-Campus Stalking	NON_STALK	Non-campus Clery geography
Public Property Domestic Violence	PUB_DOMESTIC	Public property Clery geography
Public Property Dating Violence	PUB_DATING	Public property Clery geography
Public Property Stalking	PUB_STALK	Public property Clery geography
All Domestic Violence	ALL_DOMESTIC	ON_DOMESTIC + NON_DOMESTIC + PUB_DOMESTIC
All Dating Violence	ALL_DATING	ON_DATING + NON_DATING + PUB_DATING
All Stalking	ALL_STALK	ON_STALK + NON_STALK + PUB_STALK
Combined VAWA	COMBINED_VAWA	ALL_DOMESTIC + ALL-DATING + ALL_STALK
All VAWA Report Ranges	ALL_VAWA_RANGE	Creation of two value labels (1 = number of reports is equal to or less than five; 2 = number of reports is greater than five)
Years of Data	VAWA_YEARS	Number of years of data availability

APPENDIX 2

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Appendix 2 includes several tables: criminal offenses national descriptives (Table A4); criminal offenses regional descriptives (Table A5); VAWA offenses national descriptives (Table A6); and VAWA offenses regional descriptives (Table A7).

The line graph in Figure A1 details the mean numbers of murder offenses over time nationally. Tables A4 and A5 provide national and regional descriptives for criminal offenses (2001-2017). The means were plotted on a line graph.

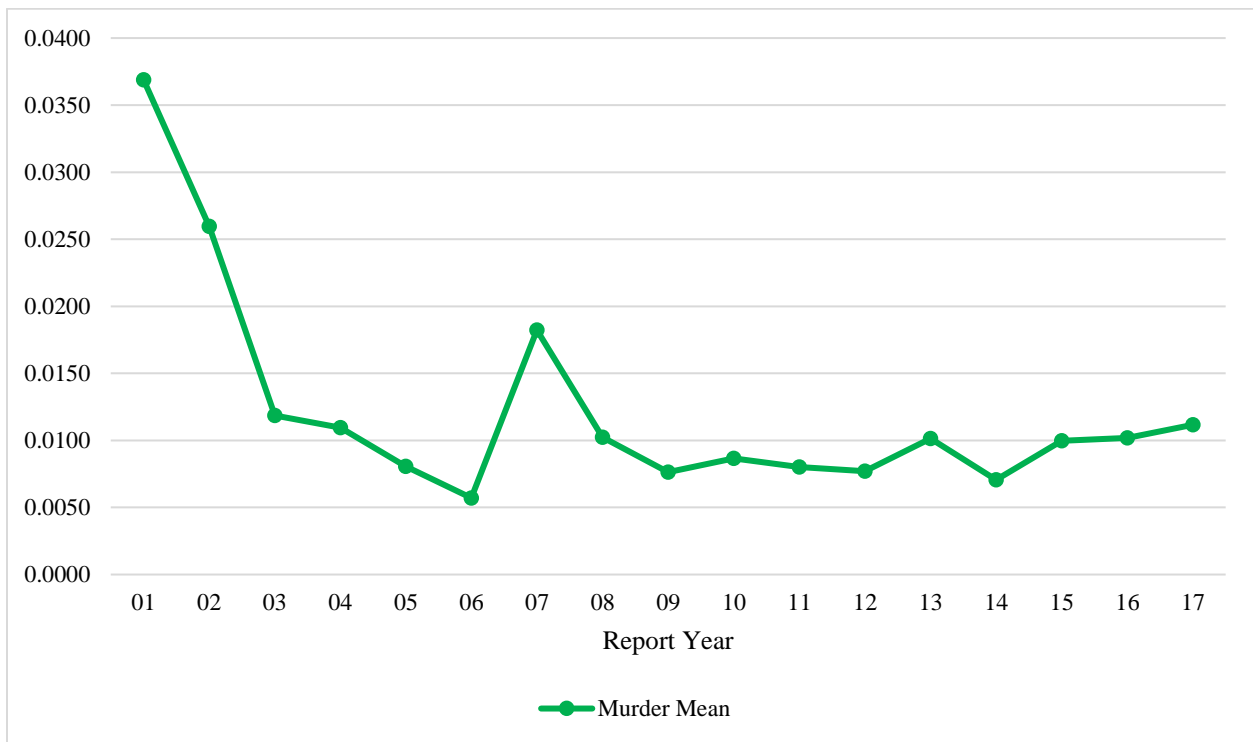


Figure A1. Mean Numbers of Murder Offenses Over Time – National

Table A4

Descriptives – Criminal Offenses National

	Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Forcible Sex Offenses	2001	3415	1.02	3.446	0	49
	2002	3430	1.02	3.524	0	73
	2003	3460	1.03	3.439	0	72

Table A4 (continued)

	Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Forcible Sex Offenses (continued)	2004	3472	.98	3.048	0	75
	2005	3475	.98	2.951	0	78
	2006	3502	.95	2.829	0	68
	2007	3511	.94	2.895	0	68
	2008	3521	.89	2.495	0	45
	2009	3542	.88	2.299	0	35
	2010	3575	.97	2.536	0	40
	2011	3617	1.12	2.878	0	44
	2012	3636	1.32	3.588	0	65
	2013	3650	1.60	4.415	0	90
	2014	3680	2.12	5.402	0	94
	2015	3708	2.48	6.352	0	137
	2016	3733	2.74	6.704	0	103
	2017	3759	3.15	9.349	0	226
	Total	60686	1.44	4.520	0	226
Murder	2001	3415	.04	.324	0	9
	2002	3430	.03	.267	0	7
	2003	3460	.01	.179	0	8
	2004	3472	.01	.120	0	2
	2005	3475	.01	.093	0	2
	2006	3502	.01	.083	0	2
	2007	3511	.02	.553	0	32
	2008	3521	.01	.147	0	5
	2009	3542	.01	.093	0	2
	2010	3575	.01	.139	0	5
	2011	3617	.01	.104	0	2
	2012	3636	.01	.105	0	3
	2013	3650	.01	.118	0	3
	2014	3680	.01	.087	0	2
	2015	3708	.01	.173	0	9
2016	3733	.01	.137	0	6	
2017	3759	.01	.117	0	2	
Total	60686	.01	.201	0	32	
Aggravated Assault	2001	3415	2.98	20.606	0	792
	2002	3430	2.01	7.920	0	268
	2003	3460	1.72	7.060	0	273
	2004	3472	1.49	5.064	0	128
	2005	3475	1.38	4.666	0	153
	2006	3502	1.38	4.173	0	90
	2007	3511	1.27	4.192	0	109
	2008	3521	1.17	3.486	0	65
	2009	3542	1.13	3.407	0	69
	2010	3575	1.09	3.231	0	57
	2011	3617	1.06	3.058	0	61
	2012	3636	1.09	3.165	0	60
	2013	3650	.99	2.845	0	49
	2014	3680	.92	2.470	0	31
	2015	3708	1.00	2.829	0	49
2016	3733	.97	3.008	0	68	
2017	3759	1.01	3.324	0	59	
Total	60686	1.32	6.402	0	792	

Table A5

Descriptives – Criminal Offenses Regional

	Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Forcible Sex Offenses	2001	231	1.74	4.178	0	37
	2002	230	1.79	4.130	0	31
	2003	230	1.83	4.107	0	37
	2004	230	1.76	4.587	0	55
	2005	233	1.70	3.415	0	32
	2006	235	1.73	3.999	0	41
	2007	236	1.76	4.365	0	52
	2008	236	1.56	3.196	0	23
	2009	237	1.61	2.913	0	21
	2010	241	2.06	3.799	0	32
	2011	243	2.01	3.756	0	26
	2012	244	2.31	4.603	0	38
	2013	244	3.09	5.892	0	40
	2014	247	4.38	8.456	0	55
	2015	247	4.70	8.146	0	56
	2016	247	4.77	8.249	0	48
	2017	247	5.00	9.320	0	66
	Total	4058	2.60	5.677	0	66
New England Murder	2001	231	.01	.113	0	1
	2002	230	.02	.146	0	1
	2003	230	.02	.131	0	1
	2004	230	.01	.093	0	1
	2005	233	.00	.066	0	1
	2006	235	.00	.000	0	0
	2007	236	.00	.065	0	1
	2008	236	.02	.215	0	3
	2009	237	.03	.193	0	2
	2010	241	.00	.064	0	1
	2011	243	.00	.000	0	0
	2012	244	.01	.090	0	1
	2013	244	.02	.142	0	1
	2014	247	.00	.000	0	0
	2015	247	.00	.000	0	0
	2016	247	.00	.064	0	1
	2017	247	.00	.064	0	1
	Total	4058	.01	.106	0	3
Aggravated Assault	2001	231	3.04	8.764	0	71
	2002	230	3.29	8.907	0	67
	2003	230	3.79	19.473	0	273
	2004	230	2.70	8.506	0	68
	2005	233	2.43	7.875	0	66
	2006	235	2.97	9.679	0	90
	2007	236	2.20	7.238	0	66
	2008	236	1.88	5.409	0	65
	2009	237	1.89	5.820	0	57
	2010	241	1.69	5.041	0	53
	2011	243	1.78	4.274	0	44
	2012	244	1.66	3.953	0	34
	2013	244	1.29	2.999	0	23
	2014	247	1.38	3.065	0	20

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	
New England (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2015	247	1.49	4.277	0	49	
		2016	247	1.35	3.551	0	37	
		2017	247	1.25	3.455	0	32	
		Total	4058	2.10	7.601	0	273	
			2001	673	1.05	3.846	0	49
			2002	673	1.00	3.059	0	46
			2003	681	.97	2.588	0	29
			2004	683	1.03	2.529	0	20
			2005	681	1.10	2.972	0	33
			2006	690	.99	2.678	0	42
			2007	691	.93	2.345	0	21
			2008	693	.94	2.344	0	22
			2009	702	.87	2.079	0	22
			2010	707	.94	2.169	0	17
			2011	715	1.17	2.717	0	30
			2012	719	1.34	3.673	0	63
			2013	720	1.70	4.891	0	90
			2014	726	2.01	4.744	0	50
			2015	732	2.54	5.478	0	62
		2016	737	2.73	6.391	0	83	
		2017	745	3.08	7.022	0	75	
		Total	11968	1.45	4.017	0	90	
		2001	673	.07	.512	0	9	
		2002	673	.04	.427	0	7	
		2003	681	.01	.162	0	3	
		2004	683	.01	.108	0	2	
		2005	681	.01	.101	0	1	
		2006	690	.01	.107	0	2	
		2007	691	.01	.107	0	1	
		2008	693	.01	.126	0	2	
		2009	702	.00	.065	0	1	
		2010	707	.01	.199	0	5	
		2011	715	.01	.112	0	2	
		2012	719	.02	.186	0	3	
		2013	720	.01	.098	0	1	
		2014	726	.01	.091	0	1	
		2015	732	.00	.064	0	1	
		2016	737	.01	.116	0	1	
		2017	745	.01	.141	0	2	
		Total	11968	.02	.197	0	9	
		2001	673	3.11	32.064	0	792	
		2002	673	1.50	4.463	0	58	
		2003	681	1.34	3.952	0	32	
		2004	683	1.32	3.733	0	44	
		2005	681	1.32	6.512	0	153	
		2006	690	1.19	3.248	0	35	
		2007	691	1.10	2.889	0	26	
		2008	693	1.13	3.552	0	51	
		2009	702	1.10	3.226	0	54	
		2010	707	1.07	3.163	0	55	
		2011	715	1.01	3.247	0	61	
		2012	719	.89	2.736	0	43	

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Middle States (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2013	720	.97	2.987	0	49
		2014	726	.92	2.303	0	20
		2015	732	.95	2.642	0	26
		2016	737	.81	2.256	0	20
		2017	745	.90	3.038	0	46
		Total	11968	1.20	8.334	0	792
				2001	1165	1.00	3.248
		2002	1169	1.09	4.196	0	73
		2003	1175	1.15	4.213	0	72
		2004	1176	.98	3.360	0	75
		2005	1173	.95	3.283	0	78
		2006	1182	.92	2.728	0	53
		2007	1185	.97	3.439	0	68
		2008	1186	.88	2.621	0	45
		2009	1191	.88	2.464	0	35
		2010	1194	.90	2.316	0	25
		2011	1204	1.07	2.864	0	34
		2012	1204	1.30	3.843	0	65
		2013	1209	1.49	4.165	0	72
		2014	1216	1.97	5.516	0	94
		2015	1225	2.35	7.378	0	137
		2016	1229	2.65	7.327	0	103
		2017	1231	3.27	12.313	0	226
		Total	20314	1.41	5.150	0	226
		2001	1165	.02	.266	0	6
		2002	1169	.01	.146	0	3
		2003	1175	.02	.257	0	8
		2004	1176	.01	.105	0	2
		2005	1173	.01	.087	0	1
		2006	1182	.01	.092	0	2
		2007	1185	.00	.058	0	1
		2008	1186	.01	.176	0	5
		2009	1191	.00	.065	0	1
		2010	1194	.01	.076	0	1
		2011	1204	.01	.091	0	2
		2012	1204	.01	.081	0	1
		2013	1209	.00	.064	0	1
		2014	1216	.01	.099	0	2
		2015	1225	.01	.085	0	1
		2016	1229	.01	.085	0	1
		2017	1231	.01	.106	0	2
		Total	20314	.01	.129	0	8
		2001	1165	2.12	9.812	0	152
		2002	1169	1.79	7.626	0	141
		2003	1175	1.58	5.585	0	86
		2004	1176	1.41	5.831	0	128
		2005	1173	1.21	3.502	0	43
		2006	1182	1.15	2.994	0	33
		2007	1185	1.15	4.371	0	109
		2008	1186	1.01	3.437	0	51
		2009	1191	1.02	2.867	0	31
		2010	1194	.98	3.036	0	41

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum		
North Central (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2011	1204	.99	3.188	0	47		
		2012	1204	1.06	3.485	0	60		
		2013	1209	.95	3.019	0	49		
		2014	1216	.82	2.545	0	31		
		2015	1225	.91	2.845	0	41		
		2016	1229	.93	3.486	0	68		
		2017	1231	1.04	3.889	0	54		
		Total	20314	1.18	4.603	0	152		
		<hr/>							
	Forcible Sex Offenses	2001	875	.81	3.009	0	39		
		2002	881	.73	2.710	0	45		
		2003	892	.70	2.465	0	37		
		2004	897	.72	2.395	0	37		
		2005	899	.74	2.182	0	27		
		2006	903	.70	1.849	0	16		
		2007	907	.70	1.971	0	23		
		2008	912	.64	1.829	0	16		
		2009	916	.68	1.834	0	20		
		2010	925	.75	2.360	0	40		
		2011	938	.81	2.046	0	19		
		2012	947	1.01	2.525	0	26		
		2013	951	1.22	3.305	0	49		
		2014	961	1.79	4.690	0	51		
		2015	968	1.96	4.453	0	38		
		2016	979	2.31	5.503	0	56		
		2017	987	2.67	7.116	0	101		
		Total	15738	1.13	3.509	0	101		
		<hr/>							
		Southern	Murder	2001	875	.04	.234	0	3
2002	881			.03	.300	0	6		
2003	892			.01	.075	0	1		
2004	897			.02	.152	0	2		
2005	899			.01	.115	0	2		
2006	903			.00	.066	0	1		
2007	907			.04	1.067	0	32		
2008	912			.01	.110	0	2		
2009	916			.01	.104	0	2		
2010	925			.01	.177	0	4		
2011	938			.01	.122	0	2		
2012	947			.00	.065	0	1		
2013	951			.01	.145	0	3		
2014	961			.01	.079	0	1		
2015	968			.01	.120	0	2		
2016	979			.01	.212	0	6		
2017	987			.02	.138	0	2		
Total	15738			.01	.295	0	32		
<hr/>									
	Aggravated Assault			2001	875	4.08	25.634	0	517
		2002	881	2.26	10.630	0	268		
		2003	892	1.63	5.419	0	104		
		2004	897	1.41	3.674	0	42		
		2005	899	1.42	3.851	0	58		
		2006	903	1.36	3.852	0	50		
		2007	907	1.22	3.218	0	40		
		2008	912	1.12	2.648	0	26		

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum		
Southern (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2009	916	1.06	2.841	0	43		
		2010	925	1.07	3.255	0	57		
		2011	938	.91	2.222	0	20		
		2012	947	1.12	3.087	0	45		
		2013	951	.92	2.558	0	28		
		2014	961	.89	2.304	0	22		
		2015	968	.95	2.447	0	24		
		2016	979	.97	2.644	0	26		
		2017	987	.94	2.465	0	30		
		Total	15738	1.35	7.235	0	517		
	Forcible Sex Offenses	2001	296	1.25	3.979	0	48		
		2002	300	1.21	3.838	0	43		
		2003	303	1.28	4.265	0	43		
		2004	307	1.12	3.506	0	32		
		2005	309	1.07	3.539	0	49		
		2006	310	1.15	4.580	0	68		
		2007	310	1.03	3.011	0	33		
		2008	311	1.09	3.327	0	36		
		2009	310	.98	2.895	0	29		
		2010	320	1.11	3.251	0	32		
		2011	324	1.20	3.812	0	44		
		2012	327	1.32	3.782	0	31		
		2013	330	1.79	5.792	0	64		
		2014	332	2.16	5.586	0	47		
		2015	337	2.56	7.012	0	69		
		2016	341	2.57	6.714	0	54		
		2017	348	2.91	7.222	0	62		
		Total	5415	1.54	4.779	0	69		
		Western	Murder	2001	296	.05	.391	0	4
				2002	300	.03	.206	0	2
2003	303			.01	.081	0	1		
2004	307			.01	.127	0	2		
2005	309			.00	.057	0	1		
2006	310			.00	.000	0	0		
2007	310			.03	.283	0	4		
2008	311			.01	.139	0	2		
2009	310			.01	.113	0	1		
2010	320			.01	.097	0	1		
2011	324			.01	.111	0	2		
2012	327			.00	.055	0	1		
2013	330			.02	.190	0	3		
2014	332			.01	.077	0	1		
2015	337			.01	.108	0	1		
2016	341			.01	.108	0	1		
2017	348			.01	.076	0	1		
Total	5415			.01	.157	0	4		
	Aggravated Assault			2001	296	3.96	13.130	0	152
				2002	300	2.99	6.933	0	60
		2003	303	2.24	5.687	0	40		
		2004	307	2.02	5.666	0	67		
		2005	309	1.63	3.498	0	31		
		2006	310	1.68	4.445	0	51		

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum		
Western (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2007	310	1.87	5.862	0	74		
		2008	311	1.74	4.415	0	49		
		2009	310	1.63	5.078	0	69		
		2010	320	1.33	2.904	0	20		
		2011	324	1.45	3.463	0	30		
		2012	327	1.28	2.753	0	18		
		2013	330	1.13	2.663	0	24		
		2014	332	1.03	2.531	0	22		
		2015	337	1.26	3.008	0	22		
		2016	341	1.21	3.399	0	33		
		2017	348	1.22	4.229	0	59		
			Total	5415	1.72	5.241	0	152	
Northwest	Forcible Sex Offenses	2001	175	.82	2.963	0	31		
		2002	177	.77	2.005	0	13		
		2003	179	.68	1.595	0	11		
		2004	179	.80	1.967	0	11		
		2005	180	.82	1.794	0	10		
		2006	182	.82	2.055	0	17		
		2007	182	.75	1.802	0	14		
		2008	183	.90	2.242	0	16		
		2009	186	.86	1.849	0	11		
		2010	188	1.04	2.226	0	14		
		2011	193	1.49	3.584	0	29		
		2012	195	1.71	4.019	0	30		
		2013	196	1.66	3.519	0	21		
		2014	198	2.10	4.302	0	30		
		2015	199	2.68	6.139	0	46		
		2016	200	3.13	6.650	0	44		
		2017	201	3.25	8.608	0	75		
			Total	3193	1.46	4.069	0	75	
		Northwest	Murder	2001	175	.01	.107	0	1
				2002	177	.00	.000	0	0
2003	179			.01	.149	0	2		
2004	179			.01	.075	0	1		
2005	180			.00	.000	0	0		
2006	182			.01	.105	0	1		
2007	182			.02	.128	0	1		
2008	183			.00	.000	0	0		
2009	186			.00	.000	0	0		
2010	188			.01	.073	0	1		
2011	193			.01	.102	0	1		
2012	195			.00	.000	0	0		
2013	196			.01	.101	0	1		
2014	198			.01	.100	0	1		
2015	199			.05	.638	0	9		
2016	200			.01	.100	0	1		
2017	201			.00	.071	0	1		
	Total			3193	.01	.179	0	9	
Northwest	Aggravated Assault			2001	175	.95	2.238	0	13
				2002	177	.81	1.873	0	11
		2003	179	.87	2.456	0	22		
		2004	179	.60	1.644	0	11		

Table A5 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Northwest (continued)	Aggravated Assault (continued)	2005	180	.74	1.754	0	12
		2006	182	1.07	2.307	0	14
		2007	182	.76	1.798	0	12
		2008	183	.64	1.534	0	10
		2009	186	.58	1.462	0	9
		2010	188	.73	1.685	0	14
		2011	193	.82	2.189	0	22
		2012	195	.89	2.296	0	16
		2013	196	.96	2.615	0	27
		2014	198	.88	2.403	0	17
		2015	199	.90	2.486	0	17
		2016	200	.95	2.403	0	17
		2017	201	.91	2.093	0	17
Total		3193	.83	2.110	0	27	

Tables A6 and A7 provide national and regional descriptives for VAWA offenses (2014-2017). The means were plotted on a line graph.

Table A6

Descriptives – VAWA Offenses National

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Domestic Violence		2014	3675	.96	2.886	0	71
		2015	3708	1.11	3.946	0	118
		2016	3733	1.14	4.022	0	93
		2017	3736	1.29	4.321	0	73
		Total	14852	1.13	3.837	0	118
Dating Violence		2014	3675	.95	2.620	0	50
		2015	3708	1.15	3.339	0	85
		2016	3733	1.27	3.462	0	71
		2017	3736	1.38	4.590	0	113
		Total	14852	1.19	3.580	0	113
Stalking		2014	3675	1.22	3.634	0	85
		2015	3708	1.58	4.520	0	106
		2016	3733	1.80	5.280	0	117
		2017	3736	1.89	5.836	0	122
		Total	14852	1.62	4.899	0	122
VAWA Combined		2014	3675	3.13	7.468	0	174
		2015	3708	3.84	9.341	0	189
		2016	3733	4.21	10.267	0	219
		2017	3736	4.55	11.862	0	224
		Total	14852	3.94	9.886	0	224

Table A7

Descriptives – VAWA Offenses Regional

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
New England	VAWA Combined	2014	247	3.98	7.359	0	64
		2015	247	4.61	8.506	0	72
		2016	247	4.40	7.695	0	64
		2017	247	5.06	9.005	0	86
		Total	988	4.51	8.164	0	86
	Domestic Violence	2014	247	1.28	2.685	0	19
		2015	247	1.54	4.142	0	46
		2016	247	1.50	3.824	0	28
		2017	247	1.59	3.689	0	31
		Total	988	1.48	3.623	0	46
	Dating Violence	2014	247	1.31	2.918	0	26
		2015	247	1.39	3.283	0	36
		2016	247	1.38	2.867	0	27
		2017	247	1.51	2.963	0	23
		Total	988	1.40	3.008	0	36
	Stalking	2014	247	1.39	3.563	0	30
2015		247	1.68	3.335	0	26	
2016		247	1.52	3.073	0	23	
2017		247	1.96	4.032	0	32	
Total		988	1.64	3.520	0	32	
Middle States	VAWA Combined	2014	721	2.94	6.364	0	77
		2015	732	3.76	8.458	0	119
		2016	737	4.21	9.377	0	94
		2017	740	4.44	10.117	0	98
		Total	2930	3.84	8.721	0	119
	Domestic Violence	2014	721	.78	3.314	0	71
		2015	732	1.13	5.643	0	118
		2016	737	1.06	5.114	0	93
		2017	740	1.26	5.585	0	73
		Total	2930	1.06	5.012	0	118
	Dating Violence	2014	721	1.10	2.581	0	22
		2015	732	1.33	3.135	0	26
		2016	737	1.55	3.840	0	46
		2017	740	1.53	3.690	0	40
		Total	2930	1.38	3.356	0	46
	Stalking	2014	721	1.06	2.794	0	27
2015		732	1.30	3.170	0	29	
2016		737	1.60	3.977	0	45	
2017		740	1.65	4.116	0	35	
Total		2930	1.40	3.568	0	45	
North Central	VAWA Combined	2014	1216	3.18	8.718	0	174
		2015	1225	3.75	10.785	0	189
		2016	1229	4.11	11.590	0	219
		2017	1229	4.39	12.928	0	224
		Total	4899	3.86	11.122	0	224

Table A7 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
North Central (continued)	Domestic Violence	2014	1216	1.07	3.119	0	39
		2015	1225	1.08	3.294	0	39
		2016	1229	1.17	4.201	0	86
		2017	1229	1.31	4.257	0	55
		Total	4899	1.16	3.755	0	86
	Dating Violence	2014	1216	.85	2.756	0	50
		2015	1225	1.03	3.943	0	85
		2016	1229	1.12	3.511	0	71
		2017	1229	1.24	5.251	0	113
		Total	4899	1.06	3.974	0	113
	Stalking	2014	1216	1.27	4.167	0	85
		2015	1225	1.64	5.287	0	106
		2016	1229	1.82	6.114	0	117
		2017	1229	1.84	6.478	0	122
Total		4899	1.64	5.589	0	122	
Southern	VAWA Combined	2014	961	3.09	6.716	0	62
		2015	968	3.93	8.344	0	70
		2016	979	4.47	10.747	0	127
		2017	979	4.98	13.767	0	212
		Total	3887	4.12	10.282	0	212
	Domestic Violence	2014	961	.84	2.348	0	25
		2015	968	1.01	3.013	0	31
		2016	979	1.11	3.430	0	37
		2017	979	1.22	3.915	0	40
		Total	3887	1.05	3.234	0	40
	Dating Violence	2014	961	1.08	2.843	0	31
		2015	968	1.31	3.265	0	25
		2016	979	1.43	3.639	0	43
		2017	979	1.65	5.307	0	93
Total		3887	1.37	3.887	0	93	
Stalking	2014	961	1.17	3.130	0	35	
	2015	968	1.60	4.218	0	46	
	2016	979	1.93	5.831	0	81	
	2017	979	2.12	7.065	0	92	
	Total	3887	1.71	5.301	0	92	
Western	VAWA Combined	2014	332	2.40	5.347	0	38
		2015	337	3.17	7.066	0	60
		2016	341	3.53	7.522	0	46
		2017	341	3.59	7.584	0	66
		Total	1351	3.18	6.957	0	66
	Domestic Violence	2014	332	.91	2.440	0	19
		2015	337	1.12	2.779	0	26
		2016	341	1.08	2.847	0	26
		2017	341	1.17	3.031	0	28
		Total	1351	1.07	2.783	0	28
	Dating Violence	2014	332	.56	1.452	0	11
		2015	337	.76	2.067	0	20
		2016	341	.88	2.277	0	15
		2017	341	.87	2.235	0	18
Total		1351	.77	2.040	0	20	

Table A7 (continued)

		Report Year	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Western (continued)	Stalking	2014	332	.94	2.492	0	24
		2015	337	1.29	3.208	0	24
		2016	341	1.56	3.561	0	24
		2017	341	1.55	3.568	0	24
		Total	1351	1.34	3.248	0	24
Northwest	VAWA Combined	2014	198	3.91	9.239	0	101
		2015	199	4.51	11.571	0	106
		2016	200	4.51	9.165	0	68
		2017	200	4.84	9.816	0	70
		Total	797	4.44	9.981	0	106
	Domestic Violence	2014	198	1.33	2.973	0	22
		2015	199	1.18	5.270	0	69
		2016	200	1.15	2.795	0	25
		2017	200	1.46	3.829	0	26
		Total	797	1.28	3.838	0	69
	Dating Violence	2014	198	.65	1.589	0	14
		2015	199	.76	1.673	0	12
		2016	200	.84	3.012	0	37
		2017	200	.98	3.964	0	53
		Total	797	.81	2.744	0	53
Stalking	2014	198	1.93	5.984	0	73	
	2015	199	2.57	7.280	0	80	
	2016	200	2.53	5.679	0	40	
	2017	200	2.41	5.405	0	46	
	Total	797	2.36	6.122	0	80	