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First-Year Male Students' Adherence to Traditional Male Gender Roles and Their Attitudes toward Bystander Approach Behaviors to Stop Sexual Assault

Kamal M. Harb

University of San Francisco, harb@usfca.edu

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The University of San Francisco

FIRST-YEAR MALE STUDENTS' ADHERENCE TO TRADITIONAL MALE
GENDER ROLES AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD BYSTANDER APPROACH
BEHAVIORS TO STOP SEXUAL ASSAULT

A Dissertation Presented
to
The Faculty of the School of Education
Leadership Studies Department

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

By
Kamal Harb
San Francisco
May 2014

THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN FRANCISCO
Dissertation Abstract

First-Year Male Students' Adherence to Traditional Male Gender Roles and Their
Attitudes Toward Bystander Approach Behaviors to Stop Sexual Assault

Sexual assault on university campuses may affect any person at any time. However, university-aged women are disproportionately affected by it, with 25% of women reporting being assaulted on campus, and 84% to 97.8% of them perpetrated by young, heterosexual men known to the victim.

To curb sexual assault on the university campus, research studies have advocated for the bystander approach. It encourages bystanders (observers) to intervene and ultimately stop a potentially dangerous situation in which a friend or stranger may experience a sexual assault. Despite its popularity, research studies evaluating the bystander approach have reported, at best, modest success with college men.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional gender roles (masculinity) as measured by their reported level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The need for this specific research was evident given the lack of research studies on first-year male's socialization as a variable for the poor success of the bystander approach with college men. Accordingly, the significance of this study's result was the addition of new empirical data gathered to reduce the number of sexual assaults to the existing research knowledge base on male college students.

The survey research study was conducted at a university with a sample of 403 frosh. Ten percent of the study sample responded to the voluntary online survey that was

composed of two instruments, the male gender role stress scale (the revised MGRS-R) and the bystander attitude scale (the revised BAS-R). The study findings indicated that first-year male students adhered to traditional male gender roles and reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. However, a statistically significant indirect correlation was only found between study samples who had low MGRS-R scores and high BAS-R scores. Thus, first-year male students who did not adhere to traditional male gender roles were more likely to hold positive attitudes toward bystander intervention. In addition, there was an indirect, statistically significant correlation between two stress factors: subordination to women and intellectual superiority. Hence, first-year students who did not consider themselves superior to women were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

In conclusion, the study findings called for a review of the bystander approach to consider traditional male socialization, and to create male specific awareness and prevention programs to stop sexual assault on college campuses.

This dissertation, written under the direction of the candidate's dissertation committee and approved by the members of the committee, has been presented to and accepted by the Faculty of the School of Education in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education. The content and research methodologies presented in this work represent the work of the candidate alone.

Kamal Harb

April 24, 2014

Candidate

Date

Dissertation Committee

Patricia Mitchell

April 24, 2014

Chairperson

Christopher Thomas

April 24, 2014

Betty Taylor

April 24, 2014

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CHAPTER I THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Introduction

This survey research study investigated the relationship between first-year male college students' adherence to traditional male gender roles (masculinity) and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors that may stop sexual assault at an American Jesuit-Catholic University. A bystander is defined as an observer of a situation or potential situation in which a friend or stranger may be subjected to a sexually assaultive behavior (Banyard, 2008). The bystander approach encourages individuals (bystanders) to advocate for healthful behaviors and to act to prevent potentially catastrophic behaviors (Banyard, 2008). Its proponents claim that it promotes a greater degree of personal responsibility by equipping individuals with the knowledge and skills they need to stop hurtful behaviors and to motivate others to consider less offensive alternatives (Banyard, Moynihan, & Crossman, 2009). The bystander approach has been promoted as a model to prevent sexual assault on university campuses, where it has reached epidemic levels (Banyard, et al. 2009 & Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007).

Sexual assault on university campuses may affect any person regardless of sex or sexual orientation (Hines, 2007). However, university-aged women are disproportionately affected by sexual assault, with 84% to 97.8% of these assaults perpetrated by young, heterosexual men known to the victim (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Kahn & Andreoli Mathie, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987).

According to the latest U.S. Bureau of Justice report (1997), not only are 99% of persons who commit sexual assault males, but also more than one in five male

perpetrators report they were so sexually aroused during the assault that they could not stop themselves from completing the act despite the woman's denial of consent.

Furthermore, White and Smith (2004) reported that 35% of all men admitted to sexually aggressive behavior over a four-year period.

Over the past two decades, incidents of sexual assault and its prevalence on American university campuses began gaining national attention after various media outlets covered a number of grave incidents and lawsuits. Students initiated lawsuits against university officials whom they believed failed to provide a safe learning environment for all students by addressing properly all forms of sexual assault on their campuses. For example, in 2011, 16 Yale students filed one class action lawsuit against officials for inadequately investigating and, ultimately, reprimanding, a group of male fraternity students who chanted, "No means yes, and yes means anal!" (Williams and Huffington, 2011, p. 1).

The aforementioned case was hardly an isolated one. Based on national sexual violence statistics, sexual assault, sexual harassment, and sexual coercion constitute an epidemic at university campuses across the nation. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) reported that 20% to 25% of female students and 4% of male students reported being sexually assaulted while attending college (Violence Prevention Home, CDC, 2013).

Based on the alarming, widespread problem of sexual assaults and harassment on college campuses, the U.S. Department of Education and its Office for Civil Rights (OCR) sent a "Dear Colleague Letter" on April 4, 2011 to post-secondary institution presidents. The letter encouraged officials to work assiduously on maintaining a safe

campus environment by investigating, documenting, and resolving all reports of sexual assaults on campus expeditiously and diligently, as well as to develop sexual assault awareness programs. The “Dear Colleague Letter” outlined Title IX and Sex Discrimination Act requirements that are related to sexual violence, emphasizing proactive efforts that universities officials may and should implement to prevent peer-to-peer sexual violence. The letter also provided campus leaders with examples of the types of strategies the schools could implement to respond to sexual assault.

Sexual assault has been studied extensively and researchers have recommended different approaches to bring about its end, or, at least, its substantial reduction. The most widely known and implemented preventive approach on college campuses is called the bystander approach and it has been only mildly successful. For example, Green.dot, a bystander approach program website, lists over 200 schools and organizations that have made use of it (Green Dot, 2010). Bystander approach proponents claim that it promotes a greater degree of personal responsibility by equipping individuals with the knowledge and skills they need to stop hurtful behaviors and to motivate others to consider less offensive alternatives (Banyard, Moynihan, & Crossman, 2009).

Despite the widespread implementation of bystander approach programs, sexual assaults have persisted; the rates at which they have happened have not diminished over the past 50 years (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). In addition, in a recent research study by Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante (2007), the bystander approach showed only a mild and short-term success in changing students’ attitudes and behaviors, especially among males. Therefore, the issue of sexual assault and its possible remedies must be reconsidered. The need to examine prevention programs from a male perspective was needed in order

to ensure a comprehensive solution is found. The view that the sexual assault epidemic is one that affects women only is a myopic one and impedes much-needed and long-overdue progress.

The author of the study believed and believes that the bystander approach has been only mildly successful because it does not take into account adequately traditional male gender role socialization. Traditional male gender roles (masculinity) refer to Western cultural ideas of what constitutes appropriate norms for male behaviors that are taught at an early age (behaviors such as acting tough, suppressing emotion, avoiding anything that may remotely be characterized as feminine, refraining from requesting help, assuming positions of authority and dominance, being the breadwinner, and more) (O'Neil, 1981, 2008).

Therefore, advice such as “confront a friend who makes a sexist joke” may fall on deaf ears as it does not recognize that such social interventions may be understood as distinctly feminine/feminist, and, therefore, undesirable, behavior. Because heterosexual male students have a stake in associating themselves with traditionally male gender roles and would likely not want to appear weak (feminine, purportedly) in any way, actual implementation of such advice is improbable as, traditionally, males want to assert dominance and strength. They are the ones “striving for power and dominance, aggressiveness, courage, independence, efficiency, rationality, competitiveness, success, activity, control, and invulnerability” (Möller-Leimkühler, 2003, p. 3).

Preventing sexual assault on college campuses is imperative because sexual assault is a pressing social, developmental, and public health issue; colleges and universities should be safe learning environments for all students. This is true, also, for

incoming students as they are presented with the uniquely challenging task of getting accustomed to a foreign environment. First-year students were an important population to study not only because they suffer from sex assaults at higher rates, but also because they may have different expectations than those stated in their school's mission and code of conduct statements (Nadelson, Semmelroth, Martinez, Featherstone, Fuhriman, & Sell, 2013). As a result, the burden is on university officials to make clear from the start what the institution's policies and procedures are as they relate to sexual assault and to ensure that all incoming students, males and females, understand their specific rights and responsibilities as it pertains to alcohol and drug use as well as various sexual practices.

Statement of the Problem

Both men and women are at risk of being sexually assaulted or forced to engage in unwanted sexual activities (Hines, 2007). However, the vast majority of sexually assaultive behaviors involve male perpetrators and female victims (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Male sexually assaultive behaviors range from ignoring the victim's protests, to issuing threats, to exerting physical force, to engaging in sexual coercion, to attempting rape, to committing actual rape (Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011; & Abbey & McAuslan, 2004).

Men's self-reporting of perpetration of sexually assaultive behaviors varied by act, with 12% reporting unwanted sex, 8% verbal coercion, 9% rape, and 2% attempted rape (White and Smith, 2004). Furthermore, 10% to 17% of men reported committing sexually assaultive behaviors over a three month period (Loh, Gidycz, Lobo, & Luthra, 2005), and up to 32% of college women reported experiencing sexually assaultive behaviors during the same period (Orchowski, Gidycz, & Raffle, 2008).

The difference in men's self-reporting and women's may be attributed to the fact that a minority of men are committing the majority of sexually assaultive behaviors against the majority of women experiencing them (Strang, Peterson, Hill, & Heiman, 2013).

Furthermore, the Fisher et al. (2000) study, commissioned by the National Institute of Justice, documented the seriousness of sexual violence against women on college campuses. Fisher et al. (2000) found that college women are at a higher risk of rape and other forms of sexual violence than women in the general population are. The study also reported that for every 1,000 women, there are potentially 35 incidents of rape in a given academic year. Approximately one-third of the women are first-year students between 17-19 years of age, and nearly 60% of rapes occur in the survivor's residence hall (Fisher et al., 2000).

Abbey (2002) reported that 31% of first-year women have a higher risk of being sexually assaulted and 6.4% are raped compared to other college women, where 24% of fourth-year women are sexually assaulted and 3.9% are raped. Abbey (2002) reported that only 5% of women reported their rapes to local police, and 42% of women never reported their sexual assaults to officials.

In response to these alarming statistics, researchers and university administrators have promoted the bystander approach as a model to prevent sexual assaults—though it shows poor success with men. Research studies have provided little evidence of bystander approach efficacy in changing male attitudes, challenging sexist environments, and effectively using bystander approach behaviors to prevent sexual assault. (Coker, Cook-Craig, Williams, Fisher, Clear, Garcia, & Hegge, 2011; & Banyard, et al, 2007).

Despite the fact that this research study does not imply that all men are potential perpetrators and all women are potential victims, traditional men's socialization might be a vital variable hindering the efficacy of bystander approach strategies with men in preventing sexually assaultive behaviors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Moreover, this study attempted to understand better the role of first-year male students' construct of gender roles/socialization as well as their attitudes toward suggested bystander approach behaviors. This is necessary, of course, in order to recommend credible, useful sexual assault prevention measures.

Background and Need for the Study

Many research studies investigating sexual assault on college campuses have recommended various sexual assault awareness programs that include primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention methods (McMahon, 2010, Banyard, Moynihan, & Crossman, 2009; & Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007). In public health terms, primary prevention refers to proactive efforts in educating students on sexual assault through training, education, and campus resources. Secondary prevention refers to efforts to educate men and women on how to intervene if they suspect a sexual assault is in progress. Tertiary prevention refers to efforts to investigate diligently all cases of reported sexual assault by campus public safety officers and deploy Title IX coordinators to ensure justice is served. In addition, tertiary prevention involves providing survivors of sexual assault all of the

resources they need to cope with the incident, from physical medical care to ongoing mental health counseling.

However, the American College Health Association (2008), in its document entitled “Shifting the Paradigm: Primary Prevention of Sexual Violence,” stated that the majority of university efforts aimed at preventing sexual violence have been tertiary. The American College Health Association (2008) document emphasized that successful sexual assault prevention efforts must include primary and secondary efforts, too, not just tertiary ones. They must, too, take into account the targeted audiences, such as the potential predators, victims, and bystanders, all of whom may have the opportunity to stop sexual assault.

Many early university prevention measures were influenced by feminist theory focused on rape prevention and safe dating (Söchting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004). They identified men as perpetrators and women as victims of sexual violence because feminist theory postulates that sexual assault may be rooted in the socialization of men as aggressors and women as demure individuals (Hines 2007).

This early approach gave way to community measures (i.e., “We are all responsible.”) to stop sexual violence, such as the bystander approach, which is now recommended for university settings by a number of recent researchers (McMahon & Banyard, 2012; Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011; & Banyard, Moynihan, & Crossman, 2009).

In principle, the bystander approach is an important model whose implementation is needed to reduce sexual assaults on college campuses (most of the assaults occur in the community setting of university residence halls) (Fisher et al. 2000). The bystander

approach asks individuals to take a stand and provides both sexes with the same messages to increase their awareness of sexual assault, promote responsible behaviors, change individuals' attitudes and perceptions, and create a responsible, responsive community on campus.

Additionally, the bystander approach teaches students, males as well as females, to recognize in-progress sexual assaults and employ strategies to intervene on the behalf of victim/survivor. Banyard et al. (2007) and McMahon (2010) cited a number of bystander intervention strategies and messages that students may use to intervene in potentially dangerous situations promoting aggressive behaviors or leading to a sexual assault, such as:

“Check in with my friend who looks drunk when s/he goes to a room with someone else at a party.”

“Say something to my friend who is taking a drunken person back to his/her room at a party.”

“Express my concern if a family member makes a sexist joke.”

“Confront a friend who plans to give someone alcohol to get sex.”

“Refuse to participate in activities where girls' appearances are ranked/rated.”

“Confront a friend who is hooking up with someone who is passed out.”

In evaluating the bystander approach, Banyard et al. (2007) conducted a study of college students who were divided into two groups, treatment and control groups, with only the treatment group receiving formal bystander approach training. Based on pre- and post-training tests, the bystander approach effects on participants' attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors lasted two to up to four months after the conclusion of the training program. The study found that, though female participants had a greater change in their

attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors compared to their male counterparts, the training program's positive effects did not persist over 12 months because most of the students did not return for the post-tests and because most of the persons who returned were women. Thus, bystander approach training was modestly successful with women in the short term, and was less effective with men in both the short and long terms.

Despite minimal evidence of the bystander approach's success with men, institutions of higher learning across the country have begun offering it to students on a voluntary basis through Women's Centers, Gender and Sexuality Centers, Health Centers, and other university departments whose concerns include preventing sexual assaults. It is also presented as a requirement that must be completed during orientation programs. Most of these bystander approach based training programs, such as the Green Dot program, usually have a greater number of females in attendance than males (Coker, Cook-Craig, Williams, Fisher, Clear, Garcia, & Hegge, 2011). Though a few males attend voluntarily, of course, in general their presence must be mandated; they tend to take little interest in this type of training.

Therefore, the segment of the male population most likely to perpetrate the sex assaults is the segment of the population least likely to attend. If these men do attend, the positive effects tend not to last long, as demonstrated by a Banyard et al. (2007) study. Then the question becomes about why male students are less likely to become active bystanders. Is it because the bystander approach conflicts with traditional male socialization? For example, an 18-24 year-old male student might be less likely to confront a friend who plans to give someone alcohol to get sex, despite what the bystander approach would have us believe. "Confronting a friend who plans to give

someone alcohol to get sex” is hard to do. If a male student does this, he may be committing permanent social suicide at worst or, at best, be momentarily ridiculed by his male friends because males tend to diminish one another as punishment for seemingly inappropriate/feminine interventions.

Though there are males who find their friends’ behaviors objectionable, and would like, in theory, to intervene, they often lack the requisite courage (Cottrell, 1972 & Coker et al., 2011). Going against social norms and, possibly, being outnumbered by other males who view the objection as a sign of weakness or foolishness, is often too great of a deterrent for male students to do what they know is right.

However, a male student who conforms to traditional male-gendered attitudes is more likely to confront a *stranger* who might assault another person, but not a *friend* or an *acquaintance*. The social consequences associated with confronting a stranger, of course, are far less severe because they play into the traditional male gender construct as the “tough guy” whose duty it is to protect women.

Although research studies have surveyed many men about the subject matter, there was sparse information about first-year male students and traditional male gender roles in relation to their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Thus, this study was set to explore the correlation between men’s adherence to traditional male roles as reported by their level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors; this was to add to the existing knowledge about male socialization as the McMahon, (2010) study found that incoming male students who believe in rape myths are less likely to intervene as bystanders. Rape myths are false beliefs pertaining to sexual assault that play into traditional male characteristics of power and dominance. Examples of rape

myths include: “women ask for it,” “women fantasize about being raped,” “only bad women get raped,” “no woman or man can be raped against their will, thus they were asking for it,” and “women who are drunk are willing to engage in any kind of sexual activity.” (McMahon, 2010).

Finally, after an extensive review of related literature, the author of this research study was not aware of any empirical research that had examined the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and bystander approach attitudes among first-year male students, although numerous research studies investigated and documented a strong relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles and intimate partner violence among the general population and incarcerated men (Eisler, Skidmore, & Ward, 1988; Foubert & Marriott, 1997; Moore, 2001; Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Tritt, 2004; Cohn & Zeichner, 2006; Gerber & Cherneski, 2006).

Therefore, a better understanding of incoming male students’ socialization and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors was needed to add to the general well of knowledge on how to create purposeful sexual assault prevention programming for the very population most likely to commit sex assaults and to deconstruct why, exactly, the bystander approach has been largely ineffective at increasing positive bystander behaviors from male college students.

Theoretical Foundation

This research study was grounded in male gender role and social norms theories. Male gender role theory is a construct that attempts to illuminate the enculturation process of boys as they become men in traditional or stereotypical gender roles within a given society or a cultural group, such as that here in the United States. Traditional male

gender roles or stereotypical male traits refers to aggression, a need for control, competitiveness, and emotional reticence (O' Neil, 1981, & Edley and Wetherell, 2001).

These male gender roles may play a role in the interactions between males within a given male social group because a percentage of them might assume that all male members of the group subscribe to the same stereotypical male gender roles. The social norms theory (SNT) best explains the assumptions of male members within a group. It postulates that those group members' behaviors are based on their misperceptions of appropriate behaviors or attitudes within their social group (Berkowitz, 2003).

The researcher found both theories as appropriate frameworks to guide the study and provide a set of workable ideas and insights regarding traditional male socialization and its group social norms in the United States. Hence, the frameworks of male socialization and social norms theory were the bases in formulating the problem statement, the purpose hypothesis, and research questions of this study. Both theories postulate that if an infant male child were raised with a traditional notion of maleness, he would then have similar attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions as the members of those similarly situated. To ensure he continues to belong to the group in which he was raised, which is of great social value, he must subscribe to the perceived (and traditional) social norms by avoiding any behaviors or attitudes that might be considered weak or undesirable from the male group point of view.

Traditional Male Gender Roles (Masculinity)

Male gender role discussion and research did not attract much interest until the early 1980s, although those in the feminist movement have long researched the issue as well as the negative consequences of female gender role socialization (O' Neil, 2013, &

Sharpe & Paul, 1991). One of the early researchers on male gender roles, James O'Neil, defined gender role construct as the "behaviors, expectations, and role sets defined by society as masculine or feminine which are embodied in the behavior of the individual man or woman and culturally regarded as appropriate to male or female" (O'Neil, 1981, p. 203).

Since then, researchers have developed theoretical formulations regarding what constitutes the standards of masculinity. Masculine ideology is defined as comprising seven dimensions: avoiding all things feminine; resisting emotionality; appearing tough and aggressive; being self-reliant; achieving status; objectifying women; and fearing homosexuals (Gentry & Harrison, 2010; & Levant & Pollock, 2008). This formulation suggests that the traditional male is one who avoids appearing weak and demonstrates toughness and/or violence to gain control and power. Furthermore, Levant & Pollock (2008) found that men tend to have a more autocratic leadership style than women do; this leadership style is reflected in the interaction among men within a group similar to a wolf pack where there is an Alpha male or a leader and followers with various degrees of stature within a group. Followers of the Alpha male will not challenge his actions; instead, they will support his behaviors to gain stature within the group and to avoid any unnecessary confrontation with the leader of the pack.

O'Neil (2008) reported that men who feel that they must adhere to stereotypical male gender roles and fail will experience gender conflict, which may cause serious consequences. O'Neil (2013, p. 490) defined gender role conflict as "a psychological state in which restrictive gender roles have negative consequences for the person or others." Figure 1 illustrates how traditional male gender roles such as thriving for power

and restricting emotions may lead to negative consequences for men (personally, socially and psychologically).

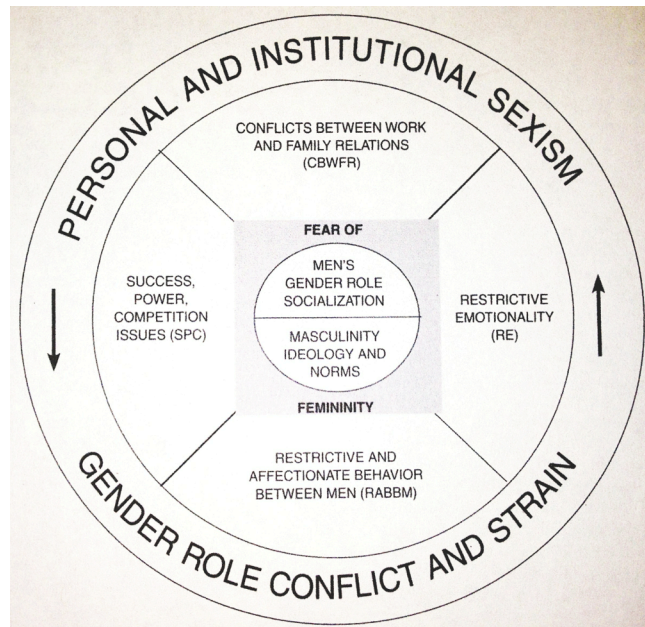


Figure 1. *The Gender Role Conflict Paradigm (O'Neil, 2013)*

Therefore, the restrictive nature of traditional male gender roles will affect not only the well-being and psychological health of the men themselves but also their relationships with others within their respective communities (such as a college campus) (Sharpe and Heppner 1991). For example, competing for status within a male group will result in added stress that may be detrimental to men's health.

In addition, men who adhere to traditional male socialization models will experience higher stress levels when deviating from those traditional male gender roles, by being, for example, sensitive or showing compassion or understanding/empathy in a given situation (Eisler, Skidmore, & Ward, 1988; Moore, Stuart, McNulty, Addis, Cordova, & Temple, 2010).

Stress is a significant health issue for men. Men are more likely to die from accidents, homicide, and suicide. In fact, the CDC (2009) found that these are the three

leading causes of death among men ages 18 to 24. Moore & Stuart (2010) have also found an association between living up to these male social norms and an increase in aggression, emotional lability, low self-esteem, anxiety, intimate partner violence, negative attitudes toward women, and sexual prejudice. In 1987, Eisler & Skidmore developed a scale, the male gender role stress (MGRS) scale (Appendix A), to measure men's stress levels based on their adherence to traditional male gender roles. Men who adhere more (generally speaking) to traditional gender roles will experience greater stress than men who do not.

In addition, Eisler & Skidmore combined 40 items of the MGRS into five stress factors that correlate with stereotypical male gender roles. They are physical inadequacy, emotional inexpressiveness, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority, and performance failure.

Because male gender roles are abstract constructs that may be misunderstood or misinterpreted by members of the group, college students may correctly and/or incorrectly perceive the norms of male gender roles among their peers. Social norms theory (SNT) explains this phenomenon among college students. Since 1986, SNT has been used as the basis for public health messages and programs attempting to change misperceptions of a litany of health issues such as alcohol use, smoking, and sexual assault among college students on campuses.

Social Norms Theory

Perkins and Berkowitz (1986) first introduced the social norms theory (SNT) into their research studies on alcohol consumption among university students. Social norms are behaviors and attitudes that are expected and accepted by a cultural group, such as a

student group, athletic team, or even country. Social norms are powerful guidelines for behaviors among a given group's members. Members who deviate from these behaviors may be ostracized, ignored, or otherwise punished. These social norms are not always clearly stated but are certainly implied and strictly enforced. First-year students who have come to a new environment must figure out and practice these norms to fit into their new environment. If they do not, they will likely suffer socially.

SNT stipulates that individuals' behaviors and attitudes are influenced by the perceptions and misperceptions of the social norms of their peers (Miller, Tancred, McCauley, Decker, Virata, Anderson & Silverman, 2012). Thus, some college students perceive wrongly the attitudes and behaviors of their peers as different from their own when, in fact, those attitudes and behaviors are not. These individuals will behave based on their misperceived norms to fit within their social group. For example, university students may assume that the majority of students binge drink and engage in casual/promiscuous sexual activity when, in reality, only a trivial number of them do.

These widespread misperceptions among a group of individuals are called "pluralistic ignorance," a term first coined by Allport (1924). Pluralistic ignorance affects the individual's attitudes and behaviors based on the falsely perceived universality of his group's social norms (Coker, et al. 2011; & Lambert, Kahn, & Apple, 2003). Therefore, SNT posits that students must be presented with the facts about university social norms, so that they will be less likely to behave against their own beliefs and attitudes.

SNT has gained validity and is used, increasingly, in promoting healthful behaviors among students to address sexual assault, binge drinking, eating disorders, and

other problematic behaviors on campuses nationwide. Berkowitz (2003) developed seven questions to assess if a health issue may best be addressed by SNT. They are:

1. What misperceptions exist with respect to the behavior in question?
2. What are the meaning and function of misperceptions for individuals and groups?
3. Do the majority of individuals in a group or community hold these misperceptions?
4. Does the target group function as a group with respect to the behavior in question? (That is to inquire if the individuals in the group exert an influence on each other's behavior.)
5. What is the hypothesized effect of these misperceptions?
6. What changes are predicted if the misperceptions are corrected?
7. What healthful behaviors already exist in the population that should be strengthened or increased?

In unstructured university settings, first-year male students will often attempt to navigate their new environments based on their perceptions or misperceptions of the norms of their peers, in addition to adhering to the societal norms of what is considered male and masculine. This task becomes more challenging when substance (ab)use is a factor, combined with the lack of understanding around what actually constitutes sexual assault. A majority of men who have perpetrated sexual assaults do not believe their actions could be construed as sexual assaults and/or rapes (Voller & Long, 2010; & Koss, Dinero, Seibel, and Cox, 1988).

Moreover, Fisher et al. (2000) found that women who have been sexually assaulted are reluctant to describe their experiences as sexual assaults because they are afraid of being judged or not believed. Universities are in need of public health programs and social norming campaigns that depict clearly and credibly the actual social norms on

campus. They need, too, more detailed information on the full range of sexually assaultive behaviors in order to develop effective sexual assault programming specifically targeting college men.

These two theories, male gender role theory and social norms theory, provide a deeper understanding of the examined population and will guide the research study in developing the hypothesis, research questions needed to address more sufficiently the matter at hand, and discussion of the study findings.

Finally, if first-year male students subscribe to traditional male gender roles, they are more likely to act aggressively, feel the need to be in control, and compete for social status within their social groups, particularly because they are in an unfamiliar environment where they might misperceive the social norms of their male group. Thus, these male students will not deviate from their dedicated social roles for fear of being ostracized or otherwise punished. These students will likely hold unfavorable perceptions and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors because the messages of this model challenge their perceived male roles and social norms. Based on SNT theory, for these students to change their aggressive behaviors, they must be presented, directly and quickly, with accurate information on university social norms, and expectations by their group leaders or college officials (Berkowitz, 2004).

Hypothesis and Research Questions

The research study hypothesis was that there was a relationship between first-year male students who adhered to traditional male gender roles as measured by their level of reported stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The null hypothesis of research was that adherence to a traditional male gender role as measured

by level of reported stress had no significant relationship to first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Based on the purpose of the research study and to investigate the proposed hypothesis of the research, the researcher conducted a survey to answer the following four questions:

1. Do first-year male students adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported levels of stress when confronted with instances that would contradict traditional male gender roles?
2. What are first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?
3. What is the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?
4. Does a relationship exist between any of the five stress factors and first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

These four research questions provided important empirical data and findings about first-year male students' socialization and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors and with respect to rejection of the null hypothesis.

Definition of Terms

Adherence is “the act of adhering; *especially*: the act of doing what is required by a rule, belief, etc.” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

Adherence to traditional male gender roles (masculinity) refers to “meeting societal expectations for what constitutes masculinity in one’s public or private life”. (Mahalik, Locke, Ludlow, Diemer, Gottfried, & Freitas, 2003)

Assault is an unlawful attempt, coupled with a present ability, to commit a violent injury on the person of another (California Penal Code Section 240).

Acquaintance Rape is rape committed by someone who the victim knows, such as an acquaintance, friend, co-worker, date, or spouse (Fisher et al., 2000).

Attempted Rape is an act that fits the definition of rape, in terms of the strategies used, but does not result in penetration (Fisher et al., 2000).

Bystander is a person who is standing near, but not taking part in, what is happening (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

Bystander Approach promotes the idea of individuals and bystanders to intervene to stop a perilous situation such as a potential sexual assault. The bystander approach asks individuals to take a stand and provides both sexes with the same messages to increase their awareness of sexual assault, promote responsible behaviors, change individuals’ attitudes and perceptions, and create a responsible, responsive community on campus (Banyard et al., 2007).

Bystander Approach Training is “an interactive training designed to equip targeted participants with the necessary connection, knowledge and skill to increase their proactive and reactive bystander behaviors” (Retrieved November 15, 2013 from

http://www.livethegreendot.com/train_curriculum.html#).

College is used interchangeably with “university” and refers to a four-year higher education institution.

Date Rape is an act of rape committed by someone who the victim is dating. Among college students, approximately one-half of all rapes are committed by a date (Fisher et al., 2000).

Intimate Partner Violence is a “pattern of abusive behaviors including a wide range of physical, sexual, and psychological maltreatment used by one person in an intimate relationship against another to gain power unfairly or maintain that person’s misuse of power, control, and authority” (APA, 1996).

Rape is a sexual assault involving some type of penetration (e.g., vaginal, oral, or anal) due to force or threat of force; lack of consent; or inability of the victim to provide consent due to age, intoxication, or mental status. Rape laws vary by state but the aforementioned description conforms to the definition used at the federal level and by most states (Fisher et al., 2000).

Rape myths refers to “a specific set of attitudes and beliefs that may contribute to ongoing sexual violence by shifting blame for sexual assault from perpetrators to victims” (Iconis, R., 2008, p. 1).

Sexual Assault is defined as the full range of forced sexual acts, including forced touching or kissing; verbally coerced intercourse; and vaginal, oral, and anal penetration. Researchers typically include in this category only acts that occur during adolescence or adulthood; in other words, childhood sexual abuse is defined separately (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000).

Sexual Consent is a “clear, unambiguous, and voluntary agreement between the participants to engage in specific sexual activity.” Retrieved April 10, 2013 from <http://yalecollege.yale.edu/content/definitions-sexual-misconduct-sexual-consent-and-sexual-harassment>).

Sexual Coercion is “any situation in which one party uses verbal or physical means (including administering drugs or alcohol to the other party either with or without her/his consent) to obtain sexual activity against freely given consent” (Adam-Curtis and Forbes, 2004).

Sexual Harassment refers to “unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, offensive remarks, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature.” Retrieved April 10, 2013 from U.S. Equal Opportunity Employment Commission (<http://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/publications/fs-sex.cfm>).

Sexual violence is defined as the umbrella phrase that covers sexual misconduct, sexual assault, sexual harassment, sexual battery, attempted rape, rape, dating violence, and stalking crimes (Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2002).

Statistical Significance refers to the probability that the relationship between two variables did not occur by a chance (Salkind, 2008).

Verbal Sexual Coercion “usually involves either insisting on or threatening one’s partner into engaging in sexual activity” (Adam-Curtis & Forbes, 2004).

Forced Sexual Coercion “involves the use of physical force to make one’s partner engage in sexual activity” (Adam-Curtis & Forbes, 2004).

Sexual Battery refers to “any person who touches an intimate part of another person while that person is unlawfully restrained by the accused or an accomplice, and if

the touching is against the will of the person touched and is for the purpose of sexual arousal, sexual gratification, or sexual abuse, is guilty of sexual battery.” (California Penal Code Sections 243.4 (e) 1.). Retrieved from <http://www.leginfo.ca.gov/cgi-bin/displaycode?section=pen&group=00001-01000&file=240-248>.

Stalking is a pattern of following or harassing, making credible threats against someone, placing them in “reasonable fear for their own safety or the safety of an immediate family member” or member of their household. (California Penal Code Section 646.9). Retrieved from <http://www.leginfo.ca.gov/cgi-bin/displaycode?section=pen&group=00001-01000&file=240-248>.

Sexual Violence is “any sexual act that is perpetrated against someone's will. Sexual violence encompasses a range of offenses, including a completed non-consensual sex act (i.e., rape), an attempted non-consensual sex act, abusive sexual contact (e.g., unwanted touching), and non-contact sexual abuse (e.g., threatened sexual violence, exhibitionism, verbal sexual harassment” (“Definitions|Sexual Violence|Violence Prevention|Injury Center|CDC,” 2014). Retrieved March 2, 2014, from <http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/sexualviolence/definitions.html>.

Stranger Rape is rape committed by someone unknown to the victim (Fisher et al., 2000).

Stress is “the non-specific response of the body to any demand for change” (Hans Selye, 1978).

Limitations

The limitations of this research study covered the sample of participants, response rate, and the timing of the survey. The first limitation of this study was that it had a

unique sample of study participants who were mostly students attending a four-year, Jesuit Catholic university on the West Coast; thus, the results of the study cannot be generalized beyond the specific population from which the sample was drawn to other public or for-profit universities which may admit students from a broader student population (although the university has a very diverse incoming class). The study results may, however, be relevant to other Jesuit-Catholic universities on the West Coast of the United States.

The second limitation was that the response rate of the survey was less than expected. Although students were offered three iPod Nanos as rewards to take the survey, the response rate was only 10%.

A third limitation of this research study was that first-year male students completed the survey in the Spring semester instead of the Fall semester, which is when students traditionally first arrive on campus. Being on campus for a semester may have influence slightly their responses to the survey as they had been exposed to college life for four months.

Significance

The significance of this study result was the addition of new empirical data gathered to reduce the number of sexual assaults to the existing research knowledge base on male college students. The findings of the study would be of tremendous value to university officials who need evidence-based data in order to create successful and proactive sexual assault awareness programs. Hence, they must first understand all of the variables playing a role in sexual assault on campus, such as social norms, male socialization, substance use, and college culture (Campus Sexual Assault, 2013).

Compared to men who were not socialized into traditional male gender roles, men who feel that they must live up to traditional male gender roles will likely experience greater stress when their masculinity is challenged and that might lead, therefore, to bystander inaction or even aggressive sexual behavior. A landmark research study by Eisler et al. (1988) found that men who try to live up to traditional male gender roles are more likely to experience stress due to gender role socialization because they are far more likely to identify with masculine (as opposed to feminine) gender roles.

In addition, this study was critically important because recent research studies on sexual assault have promoted the bystander approach to reduce sexual assault on college campuses despite its limited success with male students. Accordingly, the notion that there is a better alternative should be considered. The results of this research study yielded implications and recommendations on the types of preventative measures universities ought to use to target first-year male students in order to stop sexual assault. Furthermore, the study's findings may assist university officials in making more fully informed decisions as to whether to offer programs addressing traditional male socialization or to call for further development of the bystander approach such that it considers male socialization patterns more fully.

The new approach would take into consideration traditional male gender role socialization while developing training information and strategies. Thus, before making such a recommendation, it was important to conduct a study that correlated male students' adherence to traditional male gender roles with their bystander attitudes to identify an important variable that may affirm or deny the researcher's four questions and the null hypothesis.

Summary

The rising incidence rate of sexual assaults on university campuses has gained national media attention; the number of lawsuits filed by (predominantly female) students claiming that university officials have failed to provide a safe learning environment for them (and everyone) has grown in the past few years. Preventing sexual assaults has been a challenge because of a lack of standard definitions of sexually assaultive behaviors, an association with substance abuse among college students, the sensitivity of the issue for university officials, and the absence of effective awareness programs developed especially for heterosexual men on college campuses. Although sexual assault may affect anyone, no doubt, women are disproportionately affected by assaultive behaviors committed by heterosexual men.

University officials have attempted to comply with the federal government's various laws and regulations, such as Title IX and the Clery Act, to provide safe campus environments; their attempts have failed to end or even curb peer-to-peer sexual assaultive behaviors because they are focused on developing generic programs to prevent or reduce the risk of sexual assault among students instead of developing specific programs targeting specific populations. Therefore, a greater number of researchers are calling, increasingly, for the need to develop programs offering different messages and disseminating much-needed and, as of now, lacking, information targeting men and women as a result (Gidycz et al., 2011). This separation is essential to develop successful, targeted programs for both potential victims as well as perpetrators of sexual assault.

In order for university officials to create effective and gender-specific sexual assault prevention programming to curb sexual violence on campus, more empirical

research was needed to investigate all possible variables that might lead to or stop sexual assaults. Thus, this research study investigated a possible association between adherence to traditional male gender roles and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students.

The bystander approach model encourages bystanders, both men and women, to intervene if they suspect a sexual assault is in progress. The bystander approach model that highlights the role of community responsibility in ending sexual violence has been promoted as effective, proactive programming on college campuses to stop sexual assault despite the fact that its efficacy with men has not been evaluated thoroughly and leaves much to be desired. Thus, this research study added to the existing empirical research more information about first-year male students' socialization and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

This research study was composed of an additional four chapters. Chapter II covered a comprehensive review of related literature on sexual assaults on college campuses, its causes, and higher education institutions' efforts to provide safe learning environments. Chapter III provided a detailed account on how this survey research was conducted at a Jesuit-Catholic four-year university with first-year male students, population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter IV was organized around various research questions to present better the research findings. Finally, Chapter V included a discussion of findings, conclusions of this research study, implications for bystander approach, and made recommendations for future research and for practice.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

A comprehensive review of literature on sexual assault and efforts to end this epidemic on college campuses have guided the researcher in developing the purpose, rationale, and hypothesis and research questions of this study. The review of the literature covered previous empirical research studies on sexual assaults and governmental and other higher education institutional professional efforts to stop sexual assaults. The review of the literature may be divided into six themes which include an overview of sexual assaultive behaviors on college campuses; the link between sexual assault and substance use and misuse; possible underlying causes of sexual assault; federal laws to prevent/minimize sexual assault; university leaderships efforts to curb sexual assaults; and stress levels as indicators for adherence to male gender roles. These six themes were selected because they provided a concise overview of the current scope of the problem as well as the ongoing efforts by governmental and university officials to slow drastically its growth on university campuses.

Sexually Assaultive Behaviors on University Campuses

Sexually assaultive behaviors are prevalent on universities across the United States, which has the highest overall rate of rape compared to other industrialized countries (Allison & Wrightsman, 1993). All college students are at risk of sexually assaultive behaviors regardless of their sexual orientation or sex. Abby (2002) defined sexually assaultive behaviors as behaviors ranging from verbal and physical coercion to rape, which is at the end of a continuum of sexually assaultive behaviors due to its severity and its involvement of some type of penetration due to force or threat of force.

These violent behaviors are a fact on college campuses. Women are verbally coerced into having sex either by the perpetrator insisting on it or by being threatened with the use of physical force into engaging in sexual activity (Alleyne, Coleman-Cowger, Crown, Gibbons, & Vines, 2011; Hines, 2007). Other reported sexually assaultive behaviors include ignoring indications that intimacy is not mutually desired, touching and fondling without consent, threatening negative consequences, and/or using force to initiate sexual intimacy (Fisher et al., 2000; & Berkowitz, 1992).

Within the same study, Berkowitz (1992) proposed a few common variables among sexually assaultive incidents, such as perpetrator characteristics, socialization, situational settings, and miscommunications—all of which might have a direct relationship to the prevalence of sexual assault. Several of the perpetrators' characteristics include belief in rape myths, hostility toward women, acceptance of violence toward women, participation in all male groups, and a need to dominate.

These perpetrator characteristics are in line with traditional or stereotypical male gender roles of being in control, expressing aggression, and avoiding emoting. Situational risk factors include date and location, presence of alcohol and drugs, peer support, and duress. The miscommunication factors include men who misread or misinterpret female friendliness or clothing choices.

Baier, Rosenzweig, & Whipple (1991), who correlated sexual coercion to university students' gender, sexual orientation, and class level, found that one-eighth of the men, one-fourth of the women, and more than one-third of gay/bisexual students in their study stated that they had engaged in unwanted sexual intercourse because they felt coerced by the perpetrator or by their peers. As stated earlier, sexual assaults may occur

regardless of one's sex and/or sexual orientation. However, sexually assaultive behaviors in heterosexual relationships are far more pervasive than in any other type of student relationships at universities. A meta-analysis of data on rape and sexual assault by the United States Department of Justice (1997) indicated that, "the vast majority of violent sex offending involves males assaulting female victims, females account for a small percentage of known offenders, and males account for a small percentage of victims. In a very small fraction of sexual assaults, victim and offender are of the same sex." (p. iii).

Hines (2007) also conducted a multinational study of university students and found that 25% to 33% of university-aged women have admitted to experiencing some form of sexually coercive behavior such as forced touching, fondling, and unwanted sexual advances. When rape was included in the sexually assaultive behavioral definition, 10% of women reported having experienced it. Additionally, an estimate of 10% to 20% of men have experienced verbal and sexual coercion by women, with 1% to 3% of men reporting a fully forced sexual assault by a woman as cited by Hines (2007).

Although women may sexually assault men, the reporting on these types of incidents is minimal and rare in sexual assault research studies. One of the few and rare research studies conducted on the matter was done by Muehlenhard & Linton (1987); it reported that a single digit percentage of men admitted to being forced into sexual activity, ranging from kissing to intercourse by women who used either physical force or psychological pressure. The research study was conducted with a population made up of staff, students, and faculty (n = 28) and found that 5% of men reported that they were sexually assaulted off campus; two of those cases involved unwanted penetration. One man reported, "a woman backed me to the wall and kissed me" while another reported

that a woman got him drunk and “took advantage” of him. In the same study, two-thirds of men reported that they have engaged in unwanted sexual activity because of peer pressure or because of their desire to be popular among their peers.

Another of these rare research studies by Sarrel and Masters (1982) reported that 11 males were sexually assaulted by female perpetrators, four of whom were forcefully assaulted, four of whom were abused by relatives as children, and three of whom experienced domination in an overt reversal of sex roles.

Men may also be victims (survivors) of sexual assault by other men. The majority of sexually assaulted men were assaulted by other men (U.S. Bureau of Justice, 1997). Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2010) reported that 4.8% of men stated they have been raped at some time in their lives and 6% stated experiencing sexual coercion at some time in their lives.

However, in a national study of 5,000 university students at over 100 campuses, 20% of women answered “yes” to the question: "In your lifetime have you been forced to submit to sexual intercourse against your will?" (Douglas, Collins, Warren, Kann, Gold, Clayton, & Kolbe, 1997, p. 59). In addition, numerous research studies found that 20-35% of women attending universities are survivors of attempted or completed sexual assaults (Hines, 2007; Fisher et al. 2000; & Berkowitz, 1992).

Fisher et al. (2000) polled a random sample of 4,446 women who attended two-year and four-year universities. The results of the study found that college women are at higher risk than women in the general public are of sexual assault and its continuum of sexually aggressive behaviors. Approximately one-third of the women in the Fisher study were first-year students between the ages of 17 and 19. Based on the study’s data, Fisher

et al. (2000) estimated that about 350 rapes would take place a year at a university with 10,000 female students.

These incidences of sexual assault against university women are not regularly reported to the police. Abbey (2002) found that only 5% of college women reported their rape to the police, and 42% of college women never reported their sexual assault to the police. Their reasons for not reporting sexual assault included feeling ashamed, not wanting people to know, lack of proof, fear of reprisal, fear of police hostility and/or belittling of the incident's seriousness (Fisher et al., 2000).

Furthermore, reporting attempted rape and rapes to university officials have rarely resulted in arrest and/or convictions. For example, the arrest rate is at 7% and conviction rate is at 2%, and most of those convicted were not students, although the most common type of rape is acquaintance rape. Furthermore, a longitudinal study investigating sex crimes at six universities found that out of 117 reported sexual assaults, only 12 arrests were made and 4 convictions were secured ("Campus Sexual Assault," 2013).

According to Fisher et al. (2000), the majority of sexual assaults of women took place in the evening after six o'clock (51.8%). Approximately 65% of sexual assaults took place off campus, and approximately 35% took place on campus. The majority of campus rapes transpired in the survivor's campus residence (60%), 31% in other living quarters on campus, and 10.3% in a Greek fraternity residence (Fisher et al. 2000). In addition, the majority of perpetrators (84% to 97.8%) are known to the victim, and are not total strangers. ("Campus Sexual Assault, Suggested Policies and Procedures," 2013; Banyard, et al. 2007; Gerber & Cherneski, 2006; & Fisher et al. 2000).

Sexually assaultive behaviors have serious negative health consequences on women. “Victims of campus sexual assault face serious traumatization—intense fear and emotional numbing, loss of control, and the shattering of their trust and their belief in their ability to make sound judgments about the people and the world around them” (Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2002, pp. 5-6). The negative consequences of sexual assaults are based on the committed behavior, which may range from sexual harassment to rape and even, in some instances, death. Sexual assault may include physical injury, unwanted pregnancy, and the acquisition of sexually transmitted infections, as well as emotional damage that may lead to mental illness (“Campus Sexual Assault, Suggested Policies and Procedures,” 2013).

Survivors of sexual assault not only experience physical effects such as bodily injuries (Smith, Thornton, DeVellis, Earp, & Coker, 2002) but also psychological effects such as clinical depression, anxiety, and somatization (Kaura & Lohman, 2007). As cited in Montgomery (2010), victims of peer harassment at colleges often face educational challenges that may have long-term negative consequences on their short- and long-term educational goals. In the short term, they may skip classes, engage in them less, take time off from school (losing credits as a result), transfer to a different school, or even drop out completely.

Of course, there are socio-economic consequences that arise as a direct result. Survivors of sexual assault (who do continue with their schooling, perhaps even at the same institution where the violation occurred) may also experience a decline in their academic performance, a need to self-soothe by consuming illegal substances and even self-mutilating, and may suffer from eating disorders, post-traumatic stress and

personality disorders, and, ultimately, may find themselves so despondent as to believe suicide is an option (as cited by “Campus Sexual Assault,” 2013).

Rape, one of the harshest forms of sexual assault, causes one of the harshest traumas, and may cause long-term negative outcomes for the survivor (Campbell, Dworkin, & Cabral, 2009). Between 17% and 65% of women with an incidence of rape in their lifetimes develop post-traumatic stress disorder (Clum, Calhoun, & Kimerling, 2000). Additionally, survivors of sexually assaultive behaviors (including attempted rape and rape) are often faced with disbelief, blame, interrogation, doubt, and refusal of assistance (Campbell et al., 2009).

Sexual assault may even be deadly, as was the case with Jeanne Clery, who was brutally raped and murdered in her dorm room. That space should have been a safe haven for the 18-year-old student. On April 5, 1986, Ms. Clery was asleep in her dorm room when Joseph M. Henry, who was drinking all night, raped her, before strangling to her death. Henry was able to gain access to her residence hall by passing three security doors that had been left propped open by other students. He was convicted of her murder in April of 1987. Jeanne Clery’s case is a reason enough to study further sexual assaults and all of the variables that may be addressed to stop them from happening against college-aged women.

Substance Facilitated Sexual Assault

According to the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, college drinking is a widespread problem that does not always begin on campus itself, but may be exacerbated there. Four out of five students drink alcohol, and 50% of alcohol drinkers engage in binge drinking, which is defined as five successive drinks within two hours for

men, and four successive drinks within two hours for women (NIAAA, 2004). Binge drinking is associated with a number of social problems including unplanned sexual activity and unsafe sex (Wechsler, Nelson, Seibring, & Keeling, 2003). Hingson, Zha, & Weitzman (2009) reported that, annually, 25% report negative academic consequences, 2.1 million students drive under the influence, 599,000 students are unintentionally injured under the influence of alcohol, 696,000 students are assaulted by another student who has been drinking, and 97,000 students are victims of alcohol- or drug-facilitated sexual assault, (pp. 12–20).

Furthermore, studies on substance abuse and dating violence have revealed a strong association between alcohol and dating violence on college campuses (Schwartz, DeKeseredy, Tait, & Alvi, 2001). Abbey (2002) reported that the supermajority of sexual assaults, about 80%, are alcohol-related where both the victim and perpetrator have been drinking. Presley, Meilman, Cashin, and Leichter (1997) research study also reported that 50% of male perpetrators and 50% of female victims of sexual assault had been drinking when the assault took place. Hines (2007) also found a strong positive correlation between sexual assault and substance misuse and abuse among university students, though emphasizing that an association or a correlation between sexual assault and substance use does not imply causation is important.

Furthermore, a study by Shorey, Stuart, & Cornelius (2011), which reviewed the literature on the association between substance use and university student dating violence, found that alcohol has a consistent effect on college-aged heterosexual dating violence. Male students who are habitual binge drinkers are more likely to commit physically and psychologically sexually aggressive acts than male students who do not binge drink.

On the other hand, a meta-analytic review study on intimate partner violence found that the association between alcohol use and male-to-female partner violence had a mild to moderate effect, and that the association between alcohol use and female-to-male intimate partner violence in the general community was trivial/inconsequential.

Although alcohol use and misuse do not necessarily lead to sexual assaults, they are more likely to occur when college students are under the influence because of its effects on the human body as it pertains to the impairment of cognition, decrease in inhibition, and increase in sexual arousal (Abby, 2002). In addition, college students still adhere to traditional gender roles regarding sexual behaviors (where men are expected to initiate the sexual activity, women are then expected to refuse, and men, therefore, work harder to “seduce” the women through verbal or physical force) (Wilsnack, Plaud, Wilsnack, and Klassen, 1997).

Alcohol is not the only substance that has a correlation with sexual assault. A study on substance abuse-facilitated sexual assault reported that marijuana was second to alcohol and was detected in 26% of the cases followed by cocaine (11% of the cases) (Scott-Ham & Burton, 2005). In addition, a nationwide study that was conducted in 49 states, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia with a 1,179 sample study reported that more than half of alleged sexual assault cases tested positive for alcohol (451 cases), marijuana (218 cases), benzodiazepine (97 cases), amphetamines (51 cases), GHB (48 cases), opiates (25 cases), propoxyphene (17 cases), and barbiturates (12 cases) (Elsohly & Salamone, 1999).

As substance use or misuse may facilitate sexual assault, Abby (2002) has developed a conceptual model (Figure 2) linking all variables that may be associated with

alcohol-related date rape within a hetero-social relationship on a college campus. The model highlights pertinent factors that lead to sexual assault (such as aggression, miscommunication, peer influence, and poor appraisal of sexual signals between the perpetrator and victim).

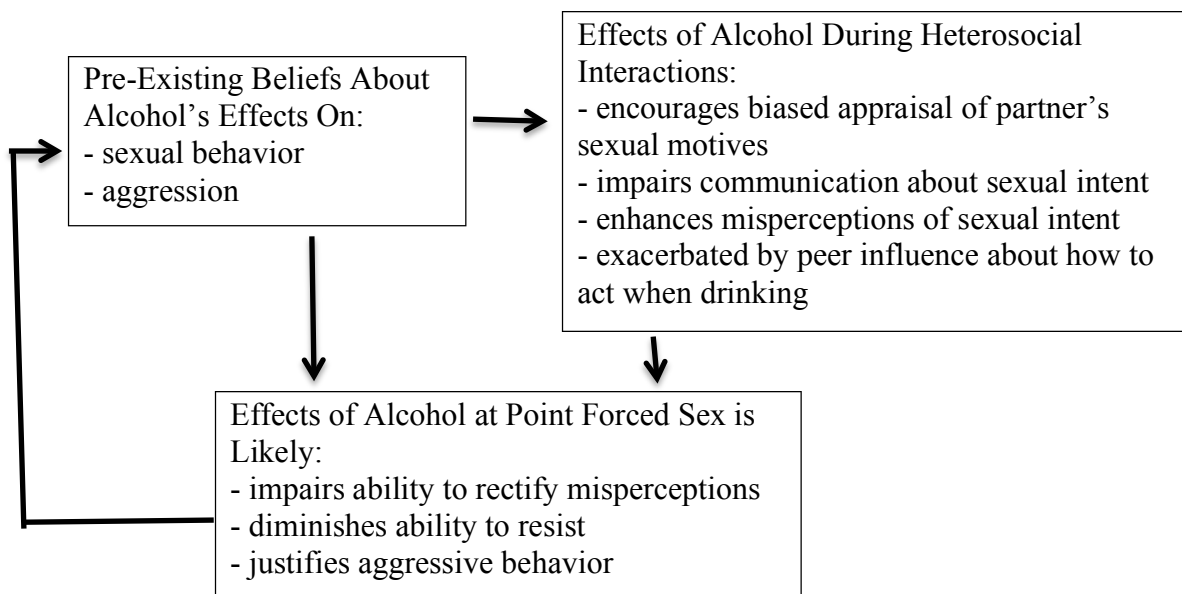


Figure 2. Abbey (2002) Conceptual Model of Alcohol-Related Acquaintance Sexual Assault

Possible Causes of Sexual Assault

In reviewing the literature, there was not a theory explaining the cause(s) of the prevalence of sexual assault on college campuses. Empirical research studies have indicated that sexual assault is a complex issue and that a number of variables play a role in its prevalence on college campuses. Some of the factors encouraging sexual assaults include promotion of restricted male gender roles, communication of sexual consent, widespread (ab)use of alcohol and other substances to eliminate women's resistance, and a culture that promotes power, violence, and competition in relationships (Martin and Hummer, 1989; & Choate, 2003).

Additionally, a number of theories have been proposed to attempt to explain the prevalence of sexual assaults. First, feminist theorists have linked sexual assault and sexually aggressive behaviors to learned behavior through gender role socialization (Berger, Searles, Salem, & Pierce, 1986). Feminist theory states that males are raised to be dominant and females to be passive. In a patriarchal culture, males are taught to initiate sexual advances and females are taught to seduce their partners. As such, women must resist or “play hard to get” in response to the men’s advances in order to gain his respect. Therefore, a man could misinterpret a woman’s resistance as nothing more than feigned resistance (Beres, 2007; & Berger et al., 1986), and, problematically, a form of implied sexual consent.

Because these stereotypical gender roles tend to drive sexuality or intimacy within a heterosexual relationship (Hines, 2007), men who adhere to traditional male gender roles may ultimately commit a sexual assault because they failed to ask for a verbal sexual consent. Moreover, the absence of verbal consent for any sexual activity is considered indicative of a sexual assault (Beres, 2007).

In addition, research studies have reported that there is a gender difference in asking for sexual consent between heterosexual couples. Men tend to use nonverbal cues whereas women use indirect verbal cues, and both sexes most often use non-response as a consent for sexual activity (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; & Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999). Furthermore, Jozkowski & Peterson (2013) attributed the differences in communication for sexual consent between college students to the traditional sexual roles for men and women as portrayed in American media from movies to advertisements.

Popular media has reinforced stereotypical gender roles where college men are supposed initiate sex and women are supposed to accept after being asked. In addition, stereotypical male gender roles demand that college men use forceful behaviors, deceptive language, and physical strength to obtain sexual consent from resisting women (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013).

The traditional socialization of men and women and substance use and abuse are two variables in Berkowitz's (1992) proposed theory for the roots of sexual assault. His integrated model predicted the likelihood of sexual assault based on multiple variables. The model took into consideration variables such as the perpetrator's and survivor's socialization experiences, adherence to traditional gender roles, personalities, beliefs, and attitudes toward sexuality, as well as situational variables like substance use and whether the perpetrator misinterpreted the victim's intent.

Whether sexual assault is due to socialization, sexual learning, situational setting, or whether it is due to high stress caused by adherence to traditional gender roles, the aforementioned theories fail to explain the existence of sexual assault in the gay, lesbian, and transgender communities. This has given rise to another theory on sexual assault: the adversarial sexual beliefs theory. This theory hypothesizes that sexual assault is a function of an individual (a man or a woman) viewing an intimate relationship as a way to manipulate and/or dominate another person. According to this theory, males generally use sexual relationships to deceive, manipulate, and exploit their partners, whereas females generally believe that sexual relationships are formed to gain power and control over their partners (Hines, 2007).

Early on, Martin and Hummer (1989) hypothesized that the existence of Greek fraternities on campus could lead to a culture that promoted sexual assaults against women because of the traditionally male characteristics that are vital to their existence. These characteristics include secrecy, protection of the group, the use of alcohol as a tool to loosen inhibitions, loyalty, competition, dominance, and power over the group. The current sexual assault statistics confirm the accuracy of the Martin and Hummer (1989) hypothesis as male students belonging to athletic groups or fraternities are more likely to commit a sexual assault than males belonging to other general student groups (Foubert & Newberry, 2006; & Koss & Gaines, 1993).

Understanding the relationship between the variables contributing to sexual assaults at universities will assist school officials in implementing effective policies and preventive programs to reduce the high number of sexual assaults. Thus far, university administrators have failed to develop an effective system in which sexual assault is addressed expeditiously and equitably. One reason for that failure is that many administrators did not and do not believe it was/is the university's responsibility to investigate and/or prevent sexual violence (Heacox, 2012). That changed, mostly, with the passage of federal legislation and threats to withhold federal funding if universities failed to investigate, document, address, and report adequately and swiftly all known sexual assault incidences on their campuses.

Federal Governmental Efforts to Stop Sexual Assault

Since the 1960s, the United States government has passed two important bills protecting women from sexual violence and providing a safe learning environment for all students on college campuses. The two bills are Title IX And Sex Discrimination Act of

1972 and the Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act of 1990. The federal law protecting equality on campus is Title IX. The Office of Civil Rights (OCR), in a letter dated April 4, 2011 to university presidents, provided guidelines under Title IX to develop programs preventing sexual violence and implementing procedures to respond to reported sexual violence and sexual harassment by students, staff, and faculty (“OCR Reading Room,” 2013).

In the 1960s, when Congress felt women were not treated equally on universities and colleges, a committee was formed to address the issue as cited by Anderson (2012). President Richard M. Nixon signed into law Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (“34 C.F.R. Part 106,” 1979). Title IX states that, “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance” (“Title IX and Sex Discrimination,” 2012).

Title IX does not only cover over 3,200 American colleges and universities but also 16,000 local school districts, 5,000 for-profit schools as well as libraries, museums, and vocational rehabilitation agencies and education in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and all territories of the United States (“Title IX and Sex Discrimination,” 2012). The Department of Education, charged in enforcing Title IX, may withhold federal funds to a given institution if an investigation is launched and, as a result, the institution is found in violation of the law. Violations may pertain to admissions, recruitment, financial aid, academic programs, student treatment and services, counseling and guidance, discipline, classroom assignment, grading, vocational education, recreation,

physical education, athletics, housing and employment (“Title IX and Sex Discrimination,” 2012).

All institutions governed by Title IX must comply with the law or risk having their federal funding withheld. All institutions are expected to both investigate and provide a resolution to complaints filed by an individual alleging sex discrimination (including sexual violence, sexual assault, and sexual harassment). Although many institutions have attempted to comply with the law, higher education institutions have largely failed in properly investigating, documenting, and reporting sexual assaults because their officials often believe it may not be in their institution’s best interests to do so or feel that they are not in the proper position to investigate these sorts of complaints (Heacox, 2012).

The U.S. Department of Education, through its Office of Civil Rights (OCR) (2013), has stepped up its efforts to ensure that all universities and colleges improve their responses to complaints of sexual assault and sexual harassment by working with State University of New York to develop practical guidelines that would be compliant under Title IX and the Clery Act.

Some of these guidelines include developing and posting policies and procedures of non-discrimination that are accessible for campus community and which comply with state and federal laws, having a designated office and Title IX coordinator to investigate, report, and document all alleged sexual assaults incidences, providing support to the complainant’s needs during the on-going investigations, conducting an annual review of reported sexual assault, addressing any identifiable patterns of sexual assault, and conducting periodic evaluation of campus sexual assault and harassment policies and

procedures. As Title IX regulations ensure universities are investigating, documenting, and reporting any incidents of sexual assault and sexual harassment, universities are also required to report the crime incidents under the Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act of 1990.

In 1990, the United States government began requiring all universities to publish their crime reports to the campus community, students, and their parents. The sexual assault against a female college student, Jeanne Cleary at Lehigh University, prompted the federal government to pass a bill mandating universities receiving federal funds to report and publish campus crimes. The bill became law and is called the Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act of 1990. Again, the Department of Education was charged with enforcing it. The Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act was changed a number of times since its creation in 1990. In 1992, an amendment was added to the law requiring universities to afford the victims of campus sexual assaults certain basic rights such as a safe learning environment and was amended again in 1998 to expand its reporting requirements. Subsequent amendments in 2000 and 2008 added provisions addressing registered sex offender notifications and campus emergency responses. Most recently in 2008, a provision to protect crime victims and "whistleblowers" from retaliation was added (Gregory, 2002).

In 1998, the law was renamed the Jeanne Cleary Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act in memory of Jeanne Cleary. Cleary, an 18-year-old student at Lehigh University, a small private university in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, was brutally murdered on April 5, 1986 in her campus dorm room. She was sexually assaulted, beaten, tortured, sodomized, raped, and strangled. The convicted murderer was

a sophomore named Joseph Henry; he gained access to her room by following other residents entering the dormitory. Her parents were instrumental in lobbying for the Student Right to Know and Security Act of 1990 (Janosik & Gregory, 2009).

The Clery Act requires universities to create a system reporting campus crime statistics, prepare an annual security report, maintain a sexual assault policy statement, conduct emergency notifications, issue timely warnings, and create a daily crime log. Universities failing to comply with the Clery Act may be fined up to \$27,500 dollars per violation and may, too, be precluded from receiving financial aid from the U.S. Department of Education (Heacox, 2012).

University Leadership Efforts to Curb Sexual Assault

Although University officials were required to create a safe campus for all students since the passing of Title IX of 1972 and Clery Act of 1990, they have failed to implement policies and procedures to reduce effectively sexual assault on campuses. Karjane et al. (2002), in an investigative study, *Sexual Assault: How America's Institutions of Higher Education Respond*, found alarming deficiencies in University officials' compliance with the laws. Some of the study findings for 4-year universities were:

- There were no standard definitions of sexual assault and rape. Definitions of sexual assaults and rape varied between institutions and states.
- 63.5% of higher education institutions were not in full compliance with the Clery Act in reporting crimes on campus.
- 50% of all higher education institutions provided new students with sexual assault awareness and prevention programming.

- 62.4% of the universities did not provide sexual assault sensitivity training to the university public safety officers.
- 75% of 4-year universities did provide victim-related support services for special population students, e.g., international, minority, and physically challenged.
- 62.3% of universities did not have due process for the alleged perpetrator.
- The most common punishments for alleged perpetrators were expulsion, suspension, and no-contact orders.
- 60% of universities did not provide sexual assault sensitivity training for university staff, e.g., residence hall staff, student affairs staff.

The Karjane et al. (2002) study indicated clearly that university officials have not taken the lead in curbing sexual assault on campuses around the country. In the absence of this leadership, students and professionals have begun advocating for proactive and effective policies and procedures to stop sexual assault. “Campus Sexual Assault” (2013, p.1) states that a number of professorial and student associations released a joint statement in 1967 (revised in 1992), declaring that, “freedom to learn depends upon appropriate opportunities and conditions in the classrooms, on the campus, and in the larger community.” College officials must have in place internal procedures demonstrating that their university is doing its due diligence in ending, or at least reducing, campus sexual assaults and sexual violence.

Furthermore, university officials have an obligation to provide a safe learning environment; failing to reduce sexual assault on campus would undermine a college’s mission of education, and, therefore, cast doubt on a given school’s leaders’ efforts to end sexual violence, ultimately affecting school funding and leading to serious fines.

Sexual assault and sexually violent acts are considered criminal offenses requiring medical attention for the survivor, and necessitate the initiation of well-established, tested university procedures for handling investigations, reports, record keeping, media attention and the involvement of local law enforcement. University leadership must, within the confines of the laws of their states, also develop appropriate sexual assault policies and procedures because there are no standard definitions for various sexually assaultive behaviors (Karjane, et al., 2002).

Efforts aimed at the prevention of sexual assault on college campus have had an evolutionary approach; they initially blamed the victim and now tend to involve rallying the community for grass roots support to end their occurrences altogether.

Some prevention programming efforts have experienced mild to moderate, albeit short-term, success, usually within a two to six month period, in curbing sexual assault--such as programs led by peer educators, single-group sexual assault awareness teams, and male dominated groups (e.g., athletes and/or fraternity members) (Foubert & Marriott, 1997).

A number of researchers (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004; Berkowitz, 2002; Foubert & Marriott, 1997) have proposed and advocated for a new approach to sexual assault awareness education and prevention, meaning, more specifically, the bystander approach. The bystander approach promotes the idea of teaching bystanders to intervene if they witness a sexual assault incident in progress. Promoters of the bystander approach have the noble idea that sexual assault prevention requires community efforts instead of individual efforts. The key to it is the conviction that bystanders may stop a potentially dangerous situation into evolving into a full-on sex assault by standing up against

oppressive social norms and offering support to the survivor of sexual assault (Banyard et al., 2007).

Despite this belief, empirical research studies have identified a number of barriers for bystander approach intervention as to whether individuals will respond in a dangerous situation and they are: diffusion of responsibility, evaluation apprehension, pluralistic ignorance, confidence in skills, and modeling (Coker et al., 2011).

Darley & Latane (1968) were the first to coin the term "diffusion" of responsibility. Essentially, that is when an individual assumes someone else will respond when more people are present. Evaluation apprehension was identified as a barrier to bystander intervention by Cottrell in 1972.

Evaluation apprehension is the concept that a person will not act for fear of looking foolish among his friends, peers, or family. Another barrier is pluralistic ignorance, which says that an individual will defer to one's social group norms for cues to action (Allport, 1924). The fourth barrier is one's confidence in one's own skills to respond in high-risk situation very effectively (Goldman & Harlow, 1993). The last barrier is modeling where individuals will more likely to intervene if one has witnessed the said behavior (Bryan & Test, 1967).

Thus, in theory, the bystander approach might be a good idea—one promoting civic duties and responsibilities toward fellow human beings. In practice, though, the approach faces several serious impediments that may also relate to male gender roles. Men do not like to look foolish and/or may have misperceptions about their group social norms. In addition, the bystander approach advocates for women and men to act to stop sexual violence without taking into consideration male or female socialization and the

influence of gender roles on individuals' behaviors as demonstrated by the bystander attitude scale (Banyard, Moynihan, & Crossman, 2009), which evaluates male and female attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors by assessing responses to the same behavioral statements. The differences in socialization are critically important; they influences attitudes, behaviors and thoughts, and are often a source of conflict as far as this theory is concerned.

Adherence to Male Gender Roles and Stress

Restrictive, traditional gender roles have serious consequences not only for women but also for men. Individuals who feel they must adhere to these roles are more likely to experience stress more frequently than those who do not care about these roles. Thus, stress is a psychological and physiological state resulting from failing to meet one's challenge or personal or societal expectations (Thoits, 2010). Stress differs from stressors but people (in society at large) tend to use the terms interchangeably. The former, of course, refers to one's reaction to the latter, which is a challenge, threat, change, or demand.

In 1936, Hans Selye first coined the term "stress" and defined it as "the nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it" (Selye, 1978). Selye pointed out that there are two types of stress: positive (eustress) and negative (distress). Examples of eustress would include a work promotion, getting married, or writing one's dissertation. Examples of distress would include a death in the family, financial difficulties, or being fired from work. Regardless of the type of stressor, the body will undergo similar physiological and biological symptoms, such as perspiration, faster heartbeat, over or under eating, and the overproduction of insulin. Selye (1978) called

his theory of stress the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). It is composed of three phases when one is confronted with a stressor.

The first phase is the alarm phase when the body begins producing stress hormones (cortisol and adrenaline) to prepare the body for its fight/flight response. During fight/flight, an individual makes the decision to confront/avoid the stressor. If one decides to confront the stressor, one moves to the second phase, which is resistance.

During resistance, one employs various strategies, healthful or otherwise, in an attempt to cope with the stressor. If one fails to deal effectively with the stressor, the body moves to the exhaustion phase. Exhaustion occurs when the body experiences a prolonged exposure to a stress that would lead to negative biological, physiological, and psychological consequences, such as burnout, anxiety, and even death.

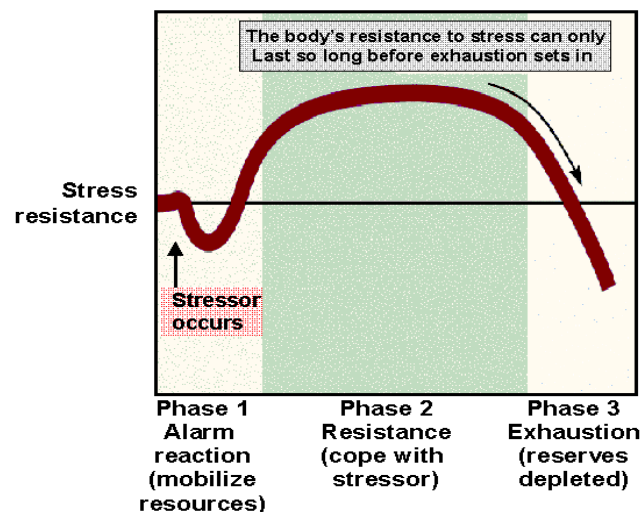


Figure 3. Selye (1976) General Adaptation Syndrome

Thus, one's response (stress) to stressors (expectations) may manifest itself physically, psychologically, behaviorally and/or socially, based on the individual (because the perception of a stressor is a subjective matter) (Regehr, LeBlanc, Jelley, Barath, & Daciuk, 2007). Hence, individuals respond differently to stressors based on

their perceptions, attitudes, and life experiences. For example, one man might find working for a woman stressful whereas another might consider it a non-issue. Thus, men who believe that they must live up to a traditional male gender role (be the bread winner in the family, for example) yet fail, may very well feel greater stress than men who do not subscribe to beliefs regarding stereotypical masculine behaviors and/or expectations (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987, Moore, et al., 2008).

Furthermore, Eisler's et al. (1988) landmark research study recognized a strong correlation between male maladaptive health behaviors such as aggression, anxiety, anger, and high levels of stress caused by adherence to traditionally masculine gender roles. The higher the stress experienced by men, the more likely they were to exhibit anger and anxiety. Therefore, there is a positive correlation between men who adhere to traditional male gender roles and higher levels of stress.

Based on that empirical research, Eisler & Skidmore (1987) developed the masculine gender role stress rating scale (MGRS) to assess the level of stress that may be caused by adherence to traditional male gender roles. The MGRS is composed of 40 items that are rated on a Likert scale from 0 to 5. The 40 items are grouped together to measure five dimensions of traditional masculinity, which are physical inadequacy, emotional inexpressiveness, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority, and performance failure.

Since then, the MGRS scale has been one of most commonly employed instruments in gathering intimate partner violence research (to measure the level of stress of men who feel the need to adhere to traditional male gender roles) (Moore et al., 2008). The researcher of this study found the MGRS scale an appropriate instrument for this

research study to evaluate if first-year male students adhered to traditional male gender roles by measuring their reported levels of stress.

Summary

Sexual assault is a real and grave issue facing all students, first-year female college students especially. Although every college student is at risk for sexual assault, statistics show that this specific population is at greater risk than any other on campus. Sexual assault has serious repercussions affecting the survivor's health, including her social, physical, spiritual, psychological, and intellectual health. There is no one cause for sexual assaults, but there are multiple variables that have an association with assaultive behaviors (such as belonging to all-male groups, substance abuse, male socialization, stress, misperceptions of social norms and lack of standard definitions of sexual assaultive behaviors). Although the federal government has passed laws intended to protect students on college campuses (such as Title IX and the Clery Act), university administrators have largely failed to institute effective proactive programs to prevent sexual assaults on most campuses across the country.

One innovative approach to sexual violence prevention and awareness is called the bystander approach; it advocates for community efforts to end sexual assault (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004, Berkowitz, 2002, DeKeseredy, Schwartz, & Alvi, 2000, Foubert, 2000, Foubert & Marriott, 1997, Katz, 1994). Although the bystander approach has demonstrated a very modest and short-term success with men, some university officials have begun providing it as a proactive remedy.

Based on the review of the literature, the author of this research study believes that the bystander approach merits, at best, additional investigation exploring how first-

year male students perceive it if they are determined to be subscribers to a more traditional view of masculinity. Because sexual assault is not merely a women's issue but also a men's issue, men must and should be actively involved in stopping and preventing sexual assault on college campuses. To have men involved in the solution, we need additional empirical data about college male socialization and men's general attitudes toward community efforts (the bystander approach, more specifically). Gathering this information may be a key part of providing a violence-free learning environment for all students.

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

Restatement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The researcher wanted to know if, nowadays, incoming male students (class of 2013) still felt the need to live up to stereotypical male gender roles as implied by societal cultural norms.

Learning about the socialization of boys into men helped the researcher better understand this population and formulate better recommendations for the future—recommendations that were more comprehensive, nuanced, and preventative. In addition, the researcher wanted to know if male socialization had any relationship to male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors indicated that male students were more likely to intervene as bystanders to stop inappropriate or violent behaviors, especially in the context of a sexual assault.

Traditional male gender roles refer to Western cultural ideas of what constitutes appropriate norms for male behaviors that are taught at an early age (behaviors such as acting tough, suppressing emotion, avoiding anything that may remotely be characterized as feminine, assuming positions of authority and dominance, being the breadwinner, and more). Previous research studies have found an association between living up to these male social norms and an increase in stress, depression, aggression, emotional lability, low self-esteem, anxiety, intimate partner violence, negative attitudes toward women, and

sexual prejudice among male perpetrators of sexual violence (Moore et al., 2010; Good & Wood, 1995; & Eisler & Blalock, 1991).

The bystander approach is a model meant to prevent sexual assaults on college campuses. It emphasizes the role of the entire university community, men as well as women--not merely university officials--in preventing sexual assaults on campus (by encouraging everyone to take an active role in intervening if they witness inappropriate behaviors). Thus, the bystander approach advocates for bystanders, on-lookers, to stand up against sexual violence by speaking out, stopping dangerous behaviors, and breaking down social misperceptions facilitating sexual assaults.

University officials are under pressure from student groups, parents, and governmental regulators to develop proactive and awareness-based programs to stop the epidemic of sexual assault. Thus, they, as well as researchers, find the bystander approach a noble and worthy effort to engage the whole campus, and hold the whole community responsible for stopping sexual assault. Accordingly, colleges have started offering it to their students, staff, and faculty members despite its limited and short-term success (Banyard et al., 2007; Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011).

Although the bystander approach has not been effective with male college students, the author of this study was and is not aware of any research studies that have examined the relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles and the attitudes of first-year male students toward bystander behaviors, although the relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles and sexual violence has been studied and documented in the general population (Cohn & Zeichner, 2006; Moore et al., 2010; Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Tritt, 2004). As a result, this study was needed to evaluate

further the bystander approach with male students as an effective model for sexual assault awareness and prevention programming on college campuses.

Research Design

This research study employed a survey research design. A survey research is a type of quantitative research that collects numerical data on a population's attitudes, perceptions, feelings, and characteristics by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). This survey research was not an experimental but a correlational research study that explored whether a statistical and practical relationship existed between the dependent(s) and independent (s) variables.

Correlational research is not causal research but it may be used to test a search study hypothesis and provide evidence about the research study questions. The evidence from the correlational research may be used to inform about casual inferences and thus evidence-based practice (Thompson, Diamond, McWilliam, Snyder, & Snyder, 2005). Correlation research was used in this study to measure the degree of association of scores between stress due to adherence to traditional male gender roles and attitudes towards bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students.

Thus, the author of this research study combined two instruments, male gender role stress scale – revised (MGRS-R) and the bystander attitudes scale – revised (BAS-R), to create one survey to collect data on first-year male students' adherence to traditional male gender roles (the independent variable or I.V.), and bystander attitudes (the dependent variable or D.V.). In this study, the researcher did not employ random assignments of samples and did not manipulate the independent variable because this particular research study explored a possible I.V. (adherence to traditional male gender

roles) that may have a relationship to the D.V. (students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors).

The threat to internal validity was minimal because the research study survey was given to all first-year male students over a two-week period to ensure the highest possible response rate from the students. This approach was used to eliminate a number of extraneous variables that would threaten the internal validity of the study, such as selection bias, test decay, history, maturation, mortality, and selection-maturation interaction. Of note, the external validity was modest because the study used a convenience sample of first-year male students attending a four-year, private Jesuit higher education institution. The study data may not be generalized for all first-year male students because the study sample was not truly representative of all first-year college male students. Despite this, the study result may be generalized to all first-year male students attending a Jesuit-Catholic institution that has admitted a similarly situated male population.

Restatement of Hypothesis and Research Questions

This research study hypothesis was that there was a relationship between first-year male students who adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their level of reported stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The null hypothesis of research study was that adherence to a traditional male gender role as measured by levels of reported stress had no significant relationship to first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Based on the purpose of the research study, and to investigate the proposed hypothesis of the research, the researcher conducted an online survey with first-year male students to answer the following questions:

1. Do first-year male students adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported levels of stress when confronted with instances that would contradict traditional male gender roles?
2. What are first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?
3. What is the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?
4. Does a relationship exist between any of the five stress factors and first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

Research Setting

The study was conducted at a four-year, non-profit university in California. The university's mission and values are aligned with Catholic teachings and therefore promote social justice for its diverse student body of 10,000. The university student population was 64% female. The university has eight residence halls, employs eight residence hall directors and 101 resident advisors, and houses over 2,200 students, mostly in their first year. The university is an NCAA Division 1 school and has an R.O.T.C. (Reserve Officers Training Corps) program. In 2010, the university established the Center for Academic and Student Achievement (CASA) to offer academic and personal support systems promoting holistic student development. Every first-year student is assigned a CASA advisor. At the time of this study, the university did not offer bystander approach training to its first-year students; however, all incoming students were required

to take an online alcohol, drug, and sexual assault prevention course. The course examined drug and alcohol abuse, “hookup” culture, sexual violence, and healthy relationships in social, cultural, and personal contexts, providing, as a result, opportunities for self-reflection and the pursuit of social justice.

In 2009, the school established the Gender and Sexuality Center (GSC) to increase students’ awareness about sexual assaults and provide educational workshops on sexual consent, gender identity, social justice, and more in the residence halls and on campus. Furthermore, university leadership is considering offering bystander approach training to students at the beginning of the Fall semester, 2014, during the New Student Orientation program as a proactive measure aimed at preventing the occurrence of sexual assault on campus and increasing students’ general awareness of these types of issues. This research study finding may influence the school’s decision to offer bystander approach training to its first-year students.

Population and Sample

The sample consisted of 413 (36% of the incoming class) first-year male students based on an incoming frosh population of 1,148 students (64% female) in 2013. The new class of students reported coming from diverse ethnic backgrounds and its demographics are outlined in Table 1. Those from Catholic high schools were 22.4% of the population, from Jesuit Catholic high schools, 3%, from public high schools, 45.9%, from private high schools, 11.9%, and from non-Catholic religious high schools, 3%. The incoming class entered with an average 3.53 G.P.A. and an average combined S.A.T. score of 1,144. Approximately 30% of incoming university students were the first in their families to attend a four-year university.

Table 1. *Population Demographics 2013*

First Year Students	N	Population Breakdown	
		Percent	Count
Gender			
Female	1,148	64%	733
Male	1,148	36%	413
Ethnicity			
Asian/Asian American	1,148	23%	264
White	1,148	26%	299
Hispanic/Latino	1,148	21%	241
African American	1,148	4%	46
Native American	1,148	2%	23
Other (chose not disclose)	1,148	4%	45
International	1,148	20%	230
Visa Status			
Citizen	1,148	80%	918
International	1,148	20%	230

All first-year students are required to reside in university housing per school policy but students who meet certain requirements (such as living within 25 miles of campus) may request an exemption. Because a supermajority of new students come from far away (38 states, the District of Columbia, and nearly 35 other countries), less than 1% of the population requested an exemption. Finally, the sample number dropped from 413 to 403 students; that might be due to the fact that some percentage of male students either

dropped out or did not register by the time the survey was e-mailed to study participants in the Spring, 2014 semester.

Instrumentation

Masculine Gender Role Stress-Revised

The researcher selected two instruments to test the study hypothesis and answer the research questions. The instruments were the masculine gender role stress (MGRS-R) revised scale and the bystander attitudes scale revised (BAS-R); both were used in empirical research studies to assess general male population adherence to male gender roles as reported by their stress levels and to evaluate college students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Richard Eisler and Jay Skidmore (1987) developed the MGRS scale to measure male stress caused by adherence to traditional male gender roles. Because a few of the questions on the MGRS were geared toward the general male population, the author of this research (2013) revised the masculine gender role stress (MGRS), with the written approval of Jay Skidmore, to create the MGRS-Revised for use with college students.

The MGRS consists of 40 items measuring five stress factors resulting from adherence to traditional male gender roles for men. They are physical inadequacy, emotional inexpressiveness, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority, and performance failure. The items of scale are grouped together as follows to calculate the total for each specific dimension or factor of traditional male gender roles as outlined in (Table. 2).

The MGRS scale has been studied for reliability and validity. Moore et al. (2010) reported that MGRS scale has a high 2-week test/retest reliability of $r = 0.93$; (Eisler, Skidmore, & Ward, 1988) and internal consistency reliability of $\alpha s = 0.88$ to 0.94 for the five dimensions.

Table 2.

The Five Stress Factors of MGRS

MGRS Scale	
Stress Factors	Scale Items
1 Physical Inadequacy	1, 6, 8, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36
2 Emotional Inexpressiveness	2, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37
3 Subordination to Women	3, 7, 9, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38
4 Intellectual Inferiority	4, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39
5 Performance Failure	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40

Moore et al. (2010) reported that MGRS has construct validity because men scored higher than women did on the scale. The MGRS scale's scores are positively correlated with maladaptive behaviors such as anger, anxiety, and hostility (Moore et al., 2010).

Finally, in a study of 339 men who were court-mandated to attend a sexual violence awareness program, Moore et al. (2010) reported that the total of MGRS scores was associated with a number of maladaptive behaviors, such as physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological aggression.

Bystander Attitude Scale-Revised

The second instrument used in this research study survey was the bystander attitudes scale revised (BAS-R) by McMahon (2010) for use with college students. BAS-R contains 16 statements outlining behaviors that college students may use to intervene before, during, and/or after a potential sexual assault. BAS-R is based on the bystander attitude scale (BAS). Banyard et al. (2005) developed the bystander attitude scale (BAS) in consultation with professionals and sexual violence prevention advocates, in addition to a formative evaluation with a sample of college students. BAS consists of 52 “potential bystander-helping” behaviors that may be practiced by individuals to stop an assaultive behavior, support one another, and assist in creating a conscientious college community.

The BAS-R measures individuals’ attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors and the likelihood that they would act if witness to an act on the sexual assault continuum. To gauge individuals’ attitudes, the BAS-R asks each one to rate action statements on a Likert scale from one to five, with “one” corresponding to a “not likely” to intervene response and “five” corresponding to an “extremely likely” to intervene response. A couple of examples of these action statements include, “Say something to my friend who is taking a drunk person back to his/her room at a party,” or “Report a friend who committed a rape.”

Banyard et al. (2007) found that the BAS has a strong internal consistency reliability with Cronbach’s Alpha measuring 0.94 with $M = 198.17$ and $SD = 27.77$. Cronbach’s Alpha measures how a set of items on an instrument is related as a group. The BAS-R has face validity for bystander intervention behaviors that encourage action

and pro-social behavior to stop potential assaultive behavior. The scale also has a construct validity as it correlates with other measures of similar constructs (Banyard, 2008).

Data Collection

After receiving the IRBPSH approval, the researcher requested permission from the Office of Vice Provost for Student Life to send the survey to the all first-year male students. The permission was granted on the condition that the Office of Communication staff, not the researcher, send the link of the survey to maintain the anonymity of the students' responses. Subsequent to agreeing on the said condition, the researcher combined the MGRS-R and BAS-R scales into an online electronic survey using Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey is a web survey development and management website founded in 1999 by Ryan Finley. Usage of an electronic form of the survey is important because college students are more likely to complete it online (as opposed to on paper with a conventional writing instrument). A research study by Dillman (2000) indicated that online surveys are cost effective methods in reaching a higher number of participants in a shorter period of time (Dillman, 2000). Dillman (2000) also added that online surveys could include interactive features that would appeal to study participants.

The researcher purchased a Gold Plan with Survey Monkey because it offered interactive features, data encryption, and SPSS integration for data analysis. The researcher used a number of interactive features to increase students' responses such as a progress line at the bottom of the survey, and logics to survey questions to prevent non-sample participants from taking the survey. Students were unable to forward the survey to

another e-mail address. The use of this feature was intended to reduce the chance of non-study participants taking the survey.

The researcher sent the Office of Communication the introductory e-mail for the study sample indicating that the survey was voluntary, confidential, and that the students had the option to opt out from receiving a reminder e-mail to take it. The introductory e-mail also informed the students of the opportunity to enter into a drawing to win one of the three free iPod Nanos as incentive.

The survey's introductory page included information about the purpose of the survey, confidentiality, survey instructions, and directions on how to obtain aggregate data of results by the participants from the researcher if they wished to do so.

In designing the survey, the researcher elected to add student demographic questions at the end to increase the likelihood of the participants finishing (because some percentage of the participants might be reluctant to provide any personal information for fear of being identified) (Orcher, 2007). The researcher also met with the university's Director of Survey Trend Analysis to ensure the demographic questions were inclusive of the student population at the school. As the survey is about male socialization, the author added a question about sexual orientation to control for this extraneous variable, which could affect the study results.

The Office of Communication sent the survey on a Wednesday during the first week of the Spring semester to all first-year registered male students ($n = 403$). Students who took a leave of absence were not invited to take the survey. The following Tuesday, the Office of Communication staff sent a reminder e-mail to the students who did not take the survey. The number of respondents who took the survey after the e-mail

reminder was sent was much lower than when the survey was sent the first time. The online survey closed after a two-week period in order to analyze the data in a timely fashion.

Data Analysis

The researcher requested the assistance of a statistician to input and code the survey aggregated data in IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). First, missing data from six respondents who logged in but failed to complete the online survey was not included in the statistical analysis. Furthermore, in discussion with the statistician, a decision had to be made to set the cut point between low and high score categories in the absence of population means or norms, for both instruments.

As both instruments were scored on a Likert-type scale with MGRS-R scale from 0 (not stressful) to 5 (extremely stressful), and the BAS-R scale from 1 (not at all likely) to 5 (extremely likely), “3” was selected as the cut point for both scales because “3” divided respondents’ scores into one-third low and two-thirds high for both scales. Because SPSS software required study data coded as 1 and 2, respondents’ scores were recoded as follows:

- MGRS-R total scores (lowest through 2.99 = 1) was considered a low score and (3 through highest = 2) was considered a high score.
- BAS-R Total scores (lowest through 3 = 1) was considered a low score and (3 through highest = 2) was considered a high score.
- Stress Factors 1 through 5 scores (lowest through 2.99 = 1) was considered a low score and (3 through highest = 2) was considered a high score.

After removing missing data and then recording the data, the descriptive and inferential statistical analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the study variables and to draw conclusions about the study's findings, which were presented in conjunction with the four research questions.

Research Question 1

“Do first-year male students adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress when confronted with instances that would contradict traditional male gender roles?”

The researcher calculated the total scores of the MGRS-R, and total score of each of the stress factors, as well as the means and standard deviations of all of the scores. The total MGRS-R score, the independent variable, was calculated to assess how first-year male college students felt about traditional male gender roles as measured by reported levels of stress. Higher total scores on the MGRS-R indicated that the students were more likely to adhere to traditional male gender roles. In addition, the total score for each factor/dimension of masculinity was calculated to investigate whether students adhered to certain traditional gender role dimensions (as opposed to others) based on the five outlined factors of the MGRS by its developer.

Research Question 2

“What are first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?”

For the second question, the total score, mean, and standard deviations on the BAS-R, the dependent variable, were calculated to assess participants' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. In addition, an independent t, effect size, and f-test,

Cohen's d , were conducted to assess any difference in scores between students who identified as gay/bisexual and straight for BAS-R and the five stress factors.

Research Question 3

What is the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?"

The study data was analyzed with the use of cross tabulation (contingency tables) and chi-square statistics that are most commonly used tools in survey research. Cross tabulation (contingency tables) were used to illustrate the frequency distribution between categorical variables and the Chi-square was used to test the statistical significance between two categorical variables displayed in a contingency table (Salkind, 2008).

Thus, The Chi-square test was used to reject or accept this research study's null hypothesis that there was no relationship between adherences to traditional male gender roles as reported by level of stress and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among frosh (study sample). For this question, the researcher assumed the risk level Alpha assumed at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Research Question 4

"Does a relationship exist between any of the five stress factors and first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?"

Contingency tables were used to analyze the relationship between BAS-R and each of the five stress factors. In addition, a Chi-square test was used to determine if there was a statistical and practical significance between each stress factors and BAS-R, with the assumption that risk level Alpha was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Protection of Human Subjects

Before conducting this research study, the researcher filed an application with the university's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRBPHS) to get clearance to conduct the research study. An IRBPHS application is required to ensure that all research is conducted ethically and does not cause any undue harm or stress to study participants. Because participating in this research study did not place any subject at risk physically, psychologically, and socially, the IRBPHS committee granted the research study an exemption from a full review by the committee. A copy of the approval is included in the Appendices section (Appendix E).

Although study participants were not required to sign an informed consent form, the study author stated in the e-mail that was sent to students to solicit their responses that study participants had the right to refuse to take the survey and that survey results would be kept entirely confidential.

Researcher Profile

For the past twenty years, the researcher has worked continuously in various higher education institutions promoting public health among students who come from diverse backgrounds. The researcher earned an undergraduate degree in health science and a Master's in public health from San Jose State University, California. His educational background cemented his formal training in health promotion, peer education, group dynamics, cultural sensitivity, public health administration, public health theories, research methodology, public health program development, and evaluation.

Early in his public health career, the researcher worked as a health promotion specialist for San Francisco State University, where his experience covered a wide range

of public health issues such as sexually transmitted infections, tuberculosis, health insurance, immunization, smoking cessation, reproductive health, stress management, and men's health issues. The researcher was instrumental in establishing the Men's Health Clinic within SFSU's Student Health Services Department to address men's specific health needs. The Men's Health Clinic received national attention and the researcher had an opportunity to present, in collaboration with a SFSU physician, a model of men's health clinics at the American College Health Association (ACHA) in 1996.

As the director of Health Promotion Services at University of San Francisco, the researcher is a part of the USF leadership team that formulates university health policies with respect to health insurance, immunization, alcohol and drugs, and sexual assault prevention and awareness. As director, the researcher took the lead to advocate for and pass successfully a restrictive smoking policy on campus by working with student groups, staff, and faculty. The new policy, which restricted smoking to two areas on campus, was well-received by the campus community, though enforcement has been difficult as it is dependent on bystander support. Often, bystanders refuse to enforce the ban in order to avoid conflict.

The researcher's experience with the restrictive smoking policy, six years of practical experience in counseling male students on health issues, and personal bias prompted the researcher to study first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander intervention as an approach to stop sexual violence on college campuses.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional gender roles and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The researcher created an online survey combining the MGRS-R and BAS-R scales and e-mailed the survey to first-year male students after securing approval from IRBHS and university officials. The correlative study hypothesis was that a relationship exists between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The study had four questions that dealt with the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In answering the research study questions and proving or disproving the research hypothesis, the statistical analysis of the study data included calculating the total scores of the MGRS-R and BAS-R and determining score variation and internal consistency liability for each dimension, correlation coefficient, one sample *t*-test, *f*-test and Cohen's *d*. In addition, a practical significance of the study findings, a regression analysis, was conducted to determine what stress factor(s) had the highest correlation with students' negative or positive attitudes toward the bystander approach. Finally, the finding of this research study may provide university officials with empirical data on bystander approach behaviors and first-year male students at a private, Catholic university.

CHAPTER IV FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the research study that was conducted at the beginning of Spring, 2014 with first-year male students at a four-year Catholic university. The survey research study investigated the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional gender roles as measured by their level of reported stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The study employed an online survey composed of two instruments, the male gender role stress revised scale (MGRS-R) and the bystander attitude scale revised (BAS-R), to collect students' responses to answer the four research study questions and study hypothesis.

Survey results indicated that first-year male students did adhere to traditional male gender roles and did have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Furthermore, the null hypothesis of the research study, that there was no relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles (independent variable) and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors (dependent variable), was rejected because there were statistically and practically significant correlations between the aforementioned independent and dependent variables. Hence, this chapter provides a brief overview of a research problem, discusses the response rate, outlines students' demographic data, and discusses in greater detail the statistical analysis for rejecting the null hypothesis and answering the four research study questions.

Overview

Sexual assault has reached epidemic levels on college campuses where university leadership officials are under pressure from the federal government as well as student

groups to institute effective sexual assault awareness and prevention programs to stop the alarmingly high rates of sexual assault. One of the most popular and promoted models to end sexual assault on university campuses is the bystander approach (Banyard et al., 2005). The bystander approach promotes the role of the community through the empowerment of bystanders to intervene in stopping a potential/in-progress sexual assault. Moreover, the bystander approach also encourages individuals (bystanders) to advocate for healthful behaviors and stand up against offensive language and behaviors that may perpetuate sexual assault.

Although the bystander approach has been widely used on college campuses, the approach has had modest and short-term success with male students. This survey research study explored the correlation between men who adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their level of reported stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Response Rate

The online survey was composed of two instruments, the MGRS-R and BAS-R; they were sent to 403 first-year male students. The survey was available for students for 10 days. During that period, 49 (12%) students volunteered to take it. The researcher closed the survey after ten days when there was no response from anyone after 48 hours from the last person who took the survey after sending an e-mail reminder.

Although 49 students logged in to take the survey, six of them failed to complete it. These six students' incomplete responses were excluded from the final tabulation of survey data. These students included three who were 17 years of age who failed to complete the survey and three others who had blank answers on every item of the online

survey. Additionally, one respondent who answered 30 items of the MGRS-R but skipped 10 was included in the final tabulation of the data. Finally, the response rate of the survey was 10% of the study sample for first-year male students despite offering a drawing for three free iPod Nanos.

Demographic Data

University officials insisted that the Office of Communication staff send the survey to the study sample to protect students' anonymity. The office staff identified 403 students who were first-year males who registered for Spring semester of 2014. The 403 students included frosh who started school in the Fall of 2013 and new frosh who began their academic career in the Spring of 2014.

Student registration was an important component in ensuring that only students who were currently enrolled were sent the survey. The majority of the students who elected to take the survey were identified as Asian/Asian American ($n = 18$) and white ($n = 10$), who represent 23% and 28% (respectively) of the frosh class sample at the university.

The age of the respondents ranged from 18-19 ($n = 39$) and reflected accurately the age of the majority of those in their first year at the designated university. Although 20% of the frosh class is international, only 4% of them were represented among the respondents. Furthermore, the majority of respondents ($n = 37$) identified as heterosexual, with 6 students identifying as gay or bisexual. Table 3 provides a glimpse of the respondents' demographics for the research survey study.

The research survey asked students about their activities or school affiliations (such as belonging to athletics programs or the ROTC program). Their activity data will

not be discussed because the majority of the respondents failed to answer consistently all of the questions about their school affiliations.

Table 3.

Demographics of Study Sample (n = 43)

Respondents	N	Percentage	
		Percent	Valid Percent
Age			
18 – 19	39	90.7	90.7
20 – 22	4	9.3	9.3
Ethnicity			
Asian/Asian American	18	41.9	41.9
White	10	23.3	23.3
Multi-ethnic/racial	5	11.6	11.6
Hispanic/Latino	4	9.3	9.3
Others	6	13.9	13.9
Visa Status			
Citizen	38	88.4	90.5
International	4	9.3	9.5
Sexual Orientation			
Straight	37	86	86
Gay-Bisexual	6	14	14

Main Data Findings

The research study author worked closely with a statistician to process the aggregated data from Survey Monkey into IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) to generate descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis after a thorough discussion with the researcher about the study hypothesis and the four research questions was had. Analysis of the raw data began by analyzing the internal consistency reliability of both instruments. Internal consistency reliability was critical in assessing whether the items on each instrument were closely related in measuring the intended construct. Research studies most commonly measured the internal consistency reliability by calculating the Cronbach's Alpha (McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011) as was the case with this research study.

Internal Consistency Reliability of Instruments

The internal consistency reliability of each instrument and the five stress factors of the MGRS-R were calculated and found to be from good to excellent. MGRS-R internal consistency reliability was excellent, with Cronbach's Alpha equal to (.972), thus the items on the instrument do measure students' reported stress. Also, the five stress factors of the instruments had good internal consistency reliability as follows: Performance Failure (.84); Subordination to Women (.73); Physical Inadequacy (.74); Intellectual Inferiority (.75); and Emotional Inexpressiveness (.73). The second instrument, the BAS-R, had a very good internal consistency of Cronbach's Alpha equal to (.808). Therefore, the instrument' items as a group did measure the intended construct of male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

As both instruments had high to moderate internal consistency reliability, that

indicated that both scales were valid measuring tools in assessing students' adherence to traditional male gender roles as well as their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Statistical Analysis for Each Question

Internal consistency reliability was confirmed for both instruments and the values for high stress scores due to adherence to traditional male socialization and high bystander attitudes were assigned a cut point "3" for both scales. The cut point "3" was somewhat arbitrary because of the absence of population means for both instruments. However, as it turns out, the cut point of 3 divided the sample into 1/3 and 2/3 on both scales. That ensured consistency in analyzing the aggregated data to answer the following four research questions:

Research Question 1

Do first-year male students adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress when confronted with instances that would contradict traditional male gender roles?

The study finding indicated that first-year male students attempted to live up to the majority of traditional male gender roles as reported by their total scores on MGRS-R and four of the five stress factors. Respondents' total scores on MGRS-R ($M = 3.35$; $SD = .74$) highlighted the fact that respondents did adhere to traditional male roles and experienced stress if they were faced with situations that contradicted these stereotypical and restrictive roles. In addition, respondents reported high stress levels with respect to all four stress factors except one, which was subordination to women. Table 3. provides the mean and standard deviations for the MGRS-R total score as well as the total scores

for each of the five stress factors (composed of specific MGRS-R items) grouped by Richard Eisler and Jay Skidmore (1987) when they developed the MGRS scale to assess the different aspects of traditional male gender roles or masculinity.

Respondents' high stress scores were for performance failure, physical inadequacy, emotional inexpressiveness, and intellectual inferiority (respectively). Performance failure included conditions such as being unemployed ($M = 4.39$; $SD = 1.49$), or not having enough money ($M = 4.90$; $SD = 1.28$), or getting fired from a job ($M = 4.95$; $SD = 1.18$).

Table 4.

Respondents' Total Scores

Total Scores	N	Mean Scores	
		M	SD
Total MGRS-R	43	3.35	.74
Physical Inadequacy	43	3.39	.88
Emotional Inexpressiveness	43	3.07	.97
Subordination to Women	43	2.68	.76
Intellectual Inferiority	43	3.04	.94
Performance Failure	43	4.34	.97

These high stress scores for first-year male college students ranging in age from 18 to 22 spoke to their socialization into traditional male gender roles dictating that men must be self-reliant, tough, reserved, and financially independent.

The physical inadequacy stress factor included factors such as feeling in poor physical condition ($M = 3.55$; $SD = 1.46$), being perceived by someone as gay ($M = 3.34$;

SD = 1.70), and losing in a sporting competition (M = 3.74; SD = 1.38). Hence, first-year male students felt the need to live up to the image of traditional men who are competitive, strong, and would be concerned if perceived as being gay or having feminine characteristics.

Emotional inexpressiveness included questions related to telling someone of hurt feelings (M = 3.67; SD = 1.61), having friends see your cry (M = 3.93; SD = 1.68), and admitting that you are afraid of something (M = 3.27; SD = 1.56). Male students are human beings who experience a whole range of emotions, but they are hesitant in expressing those emotions for fear of having their masculinity challenged by their peers.

The intellectual inferiority stress factor included questions such as working with people who seem more ambitious (M = 3.53; SD = 1.42), having others say that you are indecisive (M = 3.23; SD = 1.46), and working or studying with people who are brighter (M = 3.14; SD = 1.63). Therefore, male frosh want to be perceived, especially by their female counterparts, as decisive, successful, and bright.

The subordination to women stress factor included questions pertaining to being outperformed at work by a woman (M = 2.58; SD = 1.41), having a female boss (M = 1.74; SD = 0.92), and letting a women take control of a given situation (M = 2.51; SD = 1.16). Respondents reported a low score on this stress factor, which indicated a change in men's perceptions of women.

In conclusion, the study finding indicated that the majority of incoming students adhered to traditional male gender roles, and stereotypical male behaviors were part of their repertoire on how men should behave within their social group, although their attitudes changed toward treating women as equal partners, socially and intellectually.

Research Question 2

What are first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

Survey respondents reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach overt behaviors as reflected in their total scores on the BAS-R ($M = 3.4$; $SD = 0.09$). The standard deviation being low for their BAS-R total score indicated students' responses were cluster closer to the mean, suggesting that most respondents had reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach overt behaviors. Table 5. lists respondents' reported high scores for bystander approach behaviors against overt threats or serious transgressions by their friends. They were more willing to confront what was socially considered a violent behavior or an "obvious" aggression. For example, 85% of respondents indicated they would report a friend who had committed rape and 79% of respondents would confront a friend if he had forced someone to have sex with him, as well as confronting a friend who might be taking a drunken person to his room.

Table 5.

Bystander Behaviors with High Scores

High Scores for BAS-R items	Mean		
	N	M	SD
Total BAS-R	43	3.40	0.09
Would stop having sex if she asked to stop?	43	4.25	1.00
Would confront a friend who is hooking up with someone who was passed out?	43	3.95	1.13
Would not use derogatory terms to describe girls/women.	43	3.60	1.32
Would confront a friend who plans to give someone alcohol to get sex.	43	3.67	1.20

On the other hand, respondents reported low scores for bystander approach behaviors that did not constitute an immediate threat to a specific person and/or was not an overt or violent behavior, such as using demeaning descriptions for women. Table 6. lists all BAS-R items that received low scores.

Table 6.

Bystander Behaviors with Low Scores

Low Scores for BAS-R Items	Mean		
	N	M	SD
Challenge a friend who made a sexist joke.	43	2.58	1.15
Express my concern if a family member made a sexist joke.	43	2.58	1.15
Challenge a friend who used “ho,” “bitch,” or “slut” to describe girls.	43	2.65	1.25
Refuse to participate in activities where girls’ appearances are ranked.	43	2.53	1.22
Listen to music that includes “bitch,” “ho,” and/or “slut”.	43	2.67	1.39

In addition, an independent *t* test compared the mean scores on the BAS-R for two distinct groups, heterosexual men and self-identified gay/bisexual men (12%), to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the two group’s scores toward bystander approach behaviors. Heterosexual males’ total BAS-R score ($M = 3.31$; $SD = 0.60$) was compared to that of the gay/bisexual male total BAS-R score ($M = 3.89$; $SD = 0.45$). The risk level or Alpha level was assumed at α (alpha) = 0.05; the independent *t* test determined ρ (probability) = 0.029. Because ρ is smaller than $\alpha = 0.05$, there was a statistically significant difference between the two distinct groups.

Furthermore, Cohen d was calculated at d (effect size correlation) = 0.994, which was greater than 0.5, and indicated a practical significance for the difference in mean scores between gay/bisexual and heterosexual males. This study finding suggested that sexual orientation was an important variable that influenced students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Gay/bisexual males were more likely to hold more positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors than their heterosexual counterparts.

In conclusion, the study research participants reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors to prevent or stop overt violent acts compared to covert aggression or sexism that might lead to sexual assault. An interesting finding was that participants who self-identified as gay/bisexual were more likely to hold overall positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors compared to their heterosexual counterparts.

Research Question 3

What is the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

The research study findings also suggested that there was a correlation between respondents' adherence to traditional male gender roles as reported by their level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The relationship was indirect between the independent (adherence to masculinity) and dependent (participants' attitude) variables as depicted in Figure 3, the scatterplot.

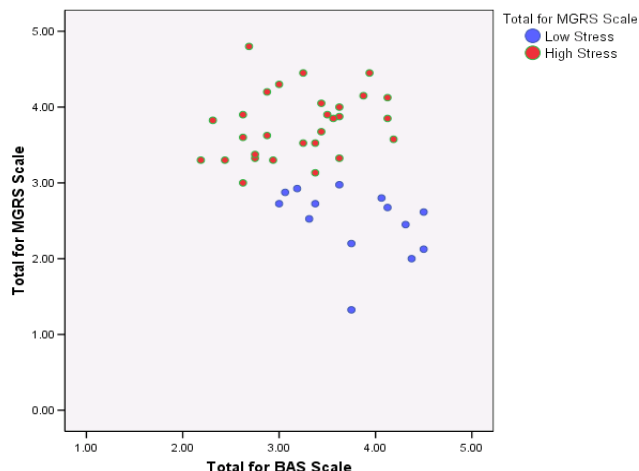


Figure 4. Correlation between MGRS-R and BAS-R Scores

The scatterplot shows that respondents who reported low stress scores due to traditional male gender roles were more likely to hold positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The casual relationship was moderate and statistically significant. Thus, the casual relationship between the two variables was not due to chance alone.

Furthermore, students who reported high stress scores also reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. However, this casual relationship between high MGRS-R scores and high BAS-R scores was not found to be statistically significant between the two variables. Hence, students who adhered to traditional male gender roles and reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors might have done so due to other extraneous variables or chance, not to the study variable effects.

That study finding was determined by conducting cross tabulation analysis and a Chi-square test. Cross tabulation (contingency table) revealed that 92% of respondents who reported low stress also reported high BAS-R scores, compared to only 55.2% of respondents who reported high stress and reported high BAS-R scores (Table.7).

Table 7.

Cross Tabulation of MGRS-R S and BAS-R Scores

MGRS-R Scale	BAS-R Scores		
	Low BAS-R	High BAS-R	Total
Low MGRS-R	1 (7.1%)	13 (92.9%)	14 (100%)
High MGRS-R	13 (44.8%)	16 (55.2%)	29 (100%)
Total	14 (32.6%)	29 (67.4%)	43 (100%)

The correlation between the two variables was further investigated with the Chi-square test to accept or reject the null hypothesis of the research study. The risk level or Alpha was assumed at $\alpha = 0.05$, Chi-square test determined ρ (sig) = 0.013 and Phi = -0.333. As $\rho < \alpha$, the study null hypothesis (adherence to a traditional male gender role as measured by levels of reported stress had no significant relationship to first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors) was rejected. With the null hypothesis being rejected and Phi (Correlation Coefficient) = -0.333, the research study findings suggested a moderate indirect correlation between respondents with low stress due to adherence to traditional gender roles and positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Based on this study finding, the research hypothesis that there was a relationship between the two variables was correct.

In conclusion, there was an indirect relationship between participants reporting high stress due to adherence to traditional male gender roles as well as participants reporting low stress scores. However, only participants with low scores were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander intervention. As the research study found a

relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the research study null hypothesis was rejected and the study hypothesis held true that there was a casual relationship between male socialization and bystander approach behaviors.

Research Question 4

Does a relationship exist between any of the five stress factors and first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

The fourth question of the study survey was answered using cross tabulation and a chi-square test as well. Of the five stress factors, there were two which had a statistical and practical significance (not due to chance) between respondents' scores on MGRS-R and their BAS-R scores. Those two stress factors were subordination to women and intellectual inferiority. Table. 8 presents a summary of this study finding.

Table 8.

Correlation Between Stress Factors and Total for BAS-R Scale

Stress Factors	N	Std.		P (sig)	Phi
		Mean	Deviation		
Physical Inadequacy	43	3.60	0.88	0.33	0.14
Emotional Inexpressiveness	43	3.07	0.97	0.22	-0.18
Subordination to Women	43	2.68	0.76	0.01	-0.38
Intellectual Inferiority	43	3.04	0.94	0.03	-0.31
Performance Failure	43	4.34	0.97	0.70	0.05

First, the subordination to women stress factor ($M = 2.68$; $SD = 0.76$), assuming $\alpha = 0.05$, the chi-square test calculated $\rho = 0.01$ and $\Phi = -0.389$, indicated that there was a statistically and practically significant relationship between first-year male students'

scores on the subordination to women stress factor and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The relationship had also an indirect correlation between respondents' scores on the subordination to women stress factor and their BAS-R scores.

The respondents' scores on the intellectual inferiority stress factor also had an indirect correlation with their scores on the BAS-R. The chi-square test calculated $\rho = .037 < \alpha = 0.05$ and $\text{PHI} = -0.318$. The study findings showed a statistically and practically significant relationship between the two variables. Thus, first-year male students who did not feel they were intellectually superior to women or more intelligent were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

In conclusion, the research study findings were consistent for question 3, and question 4, as first-year male students who did not adhere to traditional male gender roles (gay/bisexual considered women as equal socially and intellectually), they were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

Summary

The research study data was analyzed and processed using SPSS software. The findings indicated that first-year male students adhered to traditional male gender roles as measured by their scores on MGRS-R scale. They also reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors as indicated by their scores on BAS-R scale. The study findings also showed that respondents who reported high and low scores on MGRS-R scale reported high scores on BAS-R scale.

In conducting cross tabulations (contingency tables) and chi-square tests, the relationship was only found to be statistically and practically significant between study samples with low scores on MGRS-R scale and high scores on BAS-R scale. Furthermore,

sexual orientation was determined as a statistically significant variable in respondents' high scores on the BAS-R.

Based on this study finding, the research null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, the research study finding supported the research hypothesis that there was a relationship between men who adhered to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The relationship was an indirect correlation between the independent and dependent variables.

Finally, the data finding indicated that respondents' scores on two stress factors, subordination to women and intellectual inferiority, had an indirect correlation with their scores on BAS-R scale. First-year male students who did not believe they were superior to or more intelligent than women were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,
RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Summary

Going away to college is an exciting moment in a person's life. Since the 1600s, American secondary institutions have helped to shape students' attitudes, values, and beliefs (Pascarella & Terenzin, 1991). As college life shapes students' development, it also presents first-year students, men as well as women, with additional responsibilities and challenges. One serious challenge to the health and well-being of students is sexual assault, which has reached an epidemic level on university campuses.

University administrators have been addressing sexual assault with educational and awareness programs that have had mixed success rates. One of the most common frameworks to address sexual assault has been the bystander approach, which promotes the role of community through bystanders to stop sexual assault. This approach highlights the role of bystanders (observers) of a potential incident of sexual assault to intervene on the behalf of the victim (survivor) to eliminate the danger and/or provide needed support. A number of research studies evaluating the bystander approach with college students reported that the model has been effective in providing female college students with good strategies, skills, and knowledge to intervene, but the approach has shown very modest and short-term efficacy with male college students (Banyard, et al., 2007 & Coker et al., 2011). With the limited success of the bystander approach with male students, one variable that has not been investigated as a possible factor is traditional male socialization. Hence, this survey research study investigated the relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles as reported by levels of stress and

attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students at a 4-year Catholic institution of higher education in California.

The study researcher employed a survey research design to collect the data from the study sample by combining two instruments, the male gender role stress scale-revised and the bystander attitude scale-revised, into one online Survey Monkey. Approximately 10% of the study sample responded to the online survey within 10 days of e-mailing it to 403 first-year male students. Moreover, the researcher conducted descriptive and inferential statistical analysis to draw conclusions from the study data in order to test the study hypothesis and answer the four research questions.

The research study findings indicated that first-year male students adhered to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported stress. They also reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Furthermore, an indirect moderate correlation was only found between low MGRS-R scores and high BAS-R scores with the study sample. As a result, the null hypothesis of no relationship was rejected between the two variables, and an indirect correlation was found to exist between adherence to traditional male gender roles and bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students of the study sample.

Finally, this chapter will discuss the findings in detail, draw the research study conclusions, highlight implications of the research study finding, and suggest recommendations for future research and for practices to stop sexual assault on university campuses. In addition, the researcher will share his concluding thoughts about the challenge of conducting scholarly research.

Discussion

The discussion of the study findings and data analysis is organized around the four research questions in relation to the theoretical framework and literary review that have guided this survey research study.

Research Question 1

Do first-year male students adhere to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress when confronted with instances that would contradict traditional male gender roles?

The overall study findings indicated that first-year male students did adhere to male gender roles and that these restrictive roles did cause stress among those in the study sample. Therefore, first-year male students, ranging in age from 18 to 22, reported that being self-reliant, aggressive, reserved, and financially independent were important characteristics of being a man. Lacking or being perceived as having deviated from these restrictive male gender role characteristics caused them to feel stressed out as reflected on their MGRS-R scores for the four stress dimensions, which were performance failure, physical inadequacy, emotion inexpressiveness, and intellectual inferiority.

O'Neil's (1982) theory on traditional male gender roles, one of the guiding theories of this research, postulated that stereotypical masculinity caused gender conflict that resulted in serious health consequences such as stress, anxiety, depression, substance abuse, negative attitudes toward women, and sexual prejudice. In addition, in a study of 339 men who were court-mandated to attend a sexual violence awareness program, Moore et al. (2010) reported that the total MGRS scores was associated with physical aggression. A high score on physical inadequacy factor accounted for unique variance in

sexual coercion and a high score on performance failure factor could be related to psychological aggression.

Despite being young, educated, and exposed to new ideas and perspectives, male college students are no different than men in the general population who feel the need to adhere to masculinity ideology, which has long been documented in research studies, and includes characteristics such as being self-reliant, achieving high status, appearing tough and aggressive, and resisting emotionality (Levant & Pollock, 2008; & Edley & Wetherell, 2001).

Therefore, their behaviors and attitudes were influenced by their perceptions of what is considered appropriate male behavior—such as being tough, forceful, reserved, and heterosexual according to the social norm theory, one of the frameworks for this study. Furthermore, the males would adjust their behaviors or attitudes whether they wanted to or not, in order to match the definition of “masculine,” especially when being observed by their fellow male friends.

The popular media also cements these outdated gender constructs through film, television, and advertisements. Men are still portrayed as heroes, aggressors, & sexually experienced because they always get the woman whether she consented or not (Jozkowski, & Peterson 2013). The effect of these roles is reflected in the daily behaviors of two male students who would, for example, leave an empty seat between them at a theatre so as not to be viewed as a gay couple by other movie patrons.

As a result, the bystander approach, which promotes behaviors or attitudes that might be considered “feminine” or go against traditional male social norms, will not probably be employed by these male students even though the study participants reported

positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. In further analysis of this finding, the casual relationship was not found to be statistically significant.

In conclusion, this research study's findings indicated that first-year male students did adhere to traditional male gender roles, and were therefore more likely to behave according to these restrictive roles when around their friends or social circles, according to the social norm theory. In addition, study participants who scored high on stress factors such as performance failure and physical inadequacy were found to experience gender conflicts resulting in stress, depression (O'Neil, 1981) and serious maladaptive behaviors such as physical aggression and sexual coercion (Moore et al., 2010).

Research Question 2

What are first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

The data findings suggested that first-year male students had positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors and were therefore more likely to intervene as bystanders if they observed an assaultive behavior by their friends or a stranger. Based on the research findings, the study sample reported that they were more likely to intervene in overt violent behaviors instead of covert behaviors or a stereotypical male behavior, such as using profane or sexist language, or listening to sexist and demeaning songs about women.

For example, respondents would not confront a friend for using a derogatory term such as the word "slut," and would, themselves, listen to songs characterizing women as hos and/or sluts. These actions were and are condoned by traditional male groups. The study sample indicated these men were less likely to confront their friends for using such deeply offensive language.

Although the term “slut” may not be viewed as profoundly serious, it perpetuates a negative culture and sexual harassment against women. Stereotypical male groups tend to perceive employing this offensive language as a normal masculine behavior. Note the male Yale fraternity students who chanted, incredulously, “No means yes! Yes means anal!” all over their campus. In addition, society in general has adopted a double standard for sexually active women and men (Jackson & Cram, 2003).

Jackson & Cram (2003) state that, “within the sexual double standard, an active, desiring sexuality is positively regarded in men, but denigrated and regulated by negative labeling in women.” (p. 113). For example, a “slut” connotes a sexually “loose” woman—one who has had intimate relations with multiple partners, and was therefore game for anything at all. A man with the same number of sex partners was often referred to as a “stud.” The connotation here is one of power, high stature, charm, success and other favorable attributes.

This study’s finding concurred with that of McMahon (2010), which reported that that male students were more likely to intervene in situations where the sexual assault involved more overtly violent behavior (as opposed to, say, the “mere” use of objectionable/misogynistic language).

Thus, this finding spoke to the concept of pluralistic ignorance among male students as noted in Berkowitz’s (2004) social norming theory with respect to usage of profane language as an accepted and expected universal male behavior. This belief was reflected in the study sample’s low score ($M = 2.58$; $SD = 1.15$) in terms of whether they would confront a friend for using sexist language.

Importantly, respondents clearly reported that they would step in if they observed overtly violent behaviors. Their high scores on these items could be due to their adherence to traditional male gender roles—the notion of what constitutes a hero, saving the distressed damsel, and more. Another possible explanation was that the social desirability bias that referred to respondents answering questions in a socially favorable manner (Grimm, 2010). That was difficult to ascertain because the study was a survey research study based on self-reported data.

In conclusion, the study findings indicated that students would generally only intervene in overtly violent situations. That posed a major challenge for the bystander approach to overcome because the majority of sexual assaults were committed by an acquaintance, not a total stranger. The acquaintance often uses various covert behaviors, such as drugging the victim, manipulation, and/or meeting her in her dorm room where the highest percentage of sexual assaults take place.

Research Question 3

What is the correlation between adherence to traditional male gender roles and students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

The preliminary study results suggested that a statistically significant relationship between students' low MGRS-R scores and their high BAS-R scores existed. Thus, there was an indirect relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles as reported by the level of stress and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students. Freshmen not restricted to traditional male behaviors were more likely to express support for the survivor (victim) of sexual assault and have generally positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Furthermore, respondents with

high MGRS-R scores also had high BAS-R scores. The relationship, however, was not statistically significant and may be attributed to other extraneous variables or social desirability bias, which is quite common on self-reported survey research studies.

Respondents' sexual orientation was a statistically significant variable for positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among the study sample, too. Most self-identified gay and bisexual men did not adhere to a traditional construct of masculinity and reported positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Openly gay/bisexual men were less likely to fret if perceived as what they were open as. This finding further supported the importance of male socialization in practicing bystander approach behaviors by first-year male students. Hence, traditional male socialization was a critical factor over first-year male students' attitudes and behaviors (O'Neil, 2013; Moore et al. 2010; & Eisler 1988) as documented by male gender role theory, which was one of the guiding theoretical models for this study. Therefore, the bystander approach must take into consideration addressing stereotypical male socialization while developing strategies and skills needed in stopping sexual assault.

In conclusion, the research study hypothesis that there was a relationship or correlation between male socialization and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors was found to be true based on the study findings. The relationship was an indirect moderate correlation between students who did not adhere to traditional male gender roles and their positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. That meant that students who did not subscribe to or behave according to the restrictive male gender role did have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors to stop or prevent sexual assault.

Research Question 4

Does a relationship exist between any of the five stress factors and first-year male students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors?

In this study, the only stress factors of MGRS-R that had a significant statistical correlation with students' attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors were subordination to women and intellectual inferiority. The correlation was an indirect and moderate casual relationship. Hence, students who did not subscribe to the traditional male notion that women should subordinate themselves to men and were intellectually inferior were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. This finding indicated that college men's attitudes toward women were evolving. College male students were more likely to view women as equal because they were much more exposed to women at universities where women form the majority (60%) of the student body (Jacob, 2002). The Catholic university where the research study was conducted is no different; the majority of its student population is 64% female. Therefore, being exposed to and interacting daily with women on campus was an important factor in dispelling any myths or misperceptions about men being superior to women.

One of the guiding theories for this research study was the social norms theory (Berkowitz, 2004), which stipulated that in order to change college students' misperceptions and consequently misguided behaviors, they needed to be exposed to actual and correct facts through social norms marketing campaigns.

In conclusion, this particular study finding indicated that first-year male students who viewed women as equal were likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander

approach behaviors to prevent sexual assault. Thus, being a college student has influenced male students' attitudes toward their female counterparts in certain regards. This societal cultural shift must be supported and promoted through college programming based on the social learning theory by university leadership as well as by students, staff, and faculty.

Conclusions

Sexual assault is a pressing issue on university campuses where its occurrence rate has persisted for the past 50 years. Although sexual assault may affect anyone, women are disproportionately affected, with one in four college women reporting attempted rape and/or rape since their 14th birthday.

In an attempt to rectify the problem, many have advocated for the community-based model called the bystander approach. The model encourages bystanders (observers) to intervene to stop a potential situation in which a friend may be the target of sexually assaultive behaviors and/or rape. The purpose of this survey research study was to investigate the relationship between first-year male students' adherence to traditional male gender roles as measured by their reported level of stress and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

The study findings suggested that first-year male students adhered to traditional male gender roles as measured by their level of reported stress as well as positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. However, analysis of the study results found only a statistically significant relationship between a low score on MGRS-R and a high score on BAS-R. That relationship was an indirect correlation. Hence, first-year students who experienced less stress because they did not adhere to traditional male

gender roles were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors.

This particular research study finding was further confirmed when data was analyzed by taking into consideration respondents' sexual orientations. First-year male students who self-identified as gay/bisexual had a statistically significant relationship with their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. The relationship was an indirect correlation, meaning gay/bisexual students were more likely to employ the bystander approach behaviors than their heterosexual counterparts. Another finding of this study was that first-year male students were more likely to intervene as recommended by the bystander approach for overtly inappropriate behaviors compared to covert behaviors in relation to potential sexual assault incidences.

Based on the study results, the research study hypothesis was that there was a relationship between first-year male socialization and bystander approach behaviors. Thus, the null hypothesis that there was no relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students was rejected. The study findings also suggested that college male attitudes toward women were changing, especially with respect to equality and intelligence; the university's female majority is a contributing factor.

In conclusion, this research study added new and interesting empirical data about first-year male socialization, and their attitudes towards bystander approach behaviors. Therefore, the bystander approach must tailor its messaging and strategies to traditional males if it wishes to improve its efficacy at stopping sex assaults. Further research is necessary.

Implications

This survey research study investigated the relationship between adherence to traditional male gender roles and attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors among first-year male students to stop sexual assaults on college campuses. The findings of the study provided new empirical data that have serious implications for the current bystander approach behaviors to improve its efficacy with male students expected to employ these behaviors and strategies to prevent or stop a sexual assault in progress if given the chance.

Based on the study's findings, the implications were in two areas, male socialization and failure to identify covert behaviors that may lead to sexual assault. First, first-year male students reported that they did adhere to traditional male gender roles as they conformed to Western ideas of masculinity, of being tough, of avoiding anything perceived as feminine, and would likely not confront their male friends about sexist behaviors if they perceived their behaviors as a part of the repertoire of male social norms. Therefore, some behaviors that are being promoted by current bystander approach training such as "refuse to participate in activities where girls' appearances are ranked/rated" will fall on deaf ears as reflected in participants' scores ($M=2.53$, $SD=1.22$) on the bystander approach scale-revised.

Thus, bystander approach proponents must develop new strategies, skills, and behaviors that take into consideration traditional male socialization to educate college male students on how to intervene as a bystander on the behalf of victim/survivor in a potential sexual assault case. The current bystander approach model of offering the same training and messages for both men and women clearly has not been effective with men.

Furthermore, many new studies have also called for more specific training regarding sexual assault, the bystander approach, and sexual consent. (Gidycz et al., 2011)

Another important finding of this study was that male students who did not adhere to traditional male gender roles were more likely to have positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Thus, this study's findings implied that the bystander approach must also address the concept of masculinity to promote a new understanding of what constitutes a man to address a few of most first-year male students' misperceptions about masculinity.

Another important finding of the research study that has an implication on the bystander approach was that most participants reported that they would be more likely intervene (apply bystander approach behaviors) against overt and violent behaviors but would not against covert and sexist behaviors that might also lead to sexual assault. Thus, bystander approach methods must also take into consideration this finding and evolve. Male students must be also educated on recognizing covert behaviors/sexist ideology to increase the odds of them intervening to prevent a potential case of sexual assault.

In conclusion, this research study added new, fascinating data to the body of knowledge on bystander approach as a model to stop and prevent sexual assault with male students. The new finding was that bystander approach training must take into consideration male socialization in developing methodology, address traditional notions of masculinity, and discuss covert, malicious behaviors and sexism ideology that might lead to sexual assaults.

Recommendations

Recommendations For Future Research

This research study only investigated the relationship between first-year male students' socialization and their attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors at a small, non-profit, Catholic university due to time constraints. The findings of the study indicated that first-year male students did adhere to traditional male gender roles, which opens the possibility for future research—more specifically with respect to investigating male socialization with a bigger sample size at various post-secondary higher education institutions. A larger sample size from public and private universities would confirm or refute this study's findings and could be generalized for the frosh population.

In addition, one major limitation of this research study was the absence of a population means for MGRS-R and BAS-R. The cutoff point was chosen arbitrarily based on students' responses and the midpoint of the Likert scale. Thus, future research studies should investigate and identify a population mean or norm for MGRS-R and BAS-R among college students. The means for population would provide researchers with an average and would be invaluable in assessing future research findings about male socialization and the bystander approach in the United States.

Another area of future research would involve controlling for social desirability bias because it may have been a factor in the study's findings regarding all respondents' positive attitudes toward bystander approach behaviors. Social desirability bias is a common limitation in self-reported survey research.

Finally, this study was a survey research study that investigated a specific model, the bystander approach, and male socialization, in order to address sexual assaults against

heterosexual women, although it may affect anyone on campus. However, in reviewing the literature on sexual assault, there was little information about the incidences and prevalence of sexually assaultive behaviors against men by women or within a gay relationship. Thus, a future study might investigate the prevalence and incidence rate of sexual assaults against heterosexual men by women and/or in same sex couples. The research study findings could be used to document any common factors that could provide us with a deeper understanding of the complexity of sexual assault in various populations.

Recommendations For Practice

Based on the literature review, study theoretical framework, and the research study findings, the researcher identified a number of recommendations to add to bystander approach training or to use alone in order to increase male students' awareness of sexual assaults and improve prevention strategies on college campuses.

The first recommendation is changing male students' perception of masculinity, and the second is a single gender educational program on sexually assaultive behaviors, verbal sexual consent, and identifying covert behaviors which may lead to sexual assault.

Changing male students' concept of masculinity may also be achieved by a social norm marketing campaign as advocated by Berkowitz's social norm theory (2004) to change first-year male students' perceptions about masculinity in order to reduce their stress levels and consequently strengthen their inclination to abide by bystander approach behaviors to curb sexual assault. Evidence-based research studies of social norms marketing campaigns have documented its efficacy in changing students' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors by delivering normative messages about alcohol use, tobacco,

eating disorders, and sexual assault (Schultz, Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2007; & Berkowitz, 2004).

This study's findings indicated that first-year male students still adhered to a rigid concept of masculinity that promoted restrictive male gender characteristics, such as self-reliance, aggression, reservedness, and toughness. These outdated notions of masculinity are causing a number of health problems, including unacceptably high stress levels in male students. Therefore, the ultimate goal of social norms marketing is to deliver normative messages about an evolved notion of masculinity—one based on courage, respect, and moral integrity, as called for by Jackson Katz in the video, "Violence Against Women (*Violence against women—it's a men's issue*, 2013). He said, "We need more men with the guts, with the courage, with the strength, with the moral integrity to break our complicit silence and challenge each other and stand with women and not against them."

In order for a social norm campaign to achieve its intended goal, school officials must recruit popular, decidedly masculine men to be its proponents; they have credibility. Public Service Announcements, for example, could feature the star of the football team, or widely respected campus political leaders; they would gain the attention of a greater number of students and be would be convincing in delivering their message.

Another example could involve something like featuring prominently a poster with a famous quotation by a famous male leader, exhorting students to challenge themselves. Disraeli's "Life is too short to be little. Man is never so manly as when he feels deeply, acts boldly, and expresses himself with frankness and with fervor" could be effective, as cited by (McKay & McKay, 2011, p. 31). To quote another popular male

leader, Theodore Roosevelt, “We do not admire the man of timid peace. We admire the man who embodies victorious effort; the man who never wrongs his neighbor, who is prompt to help a friend, but who has those virile qualities necessary to win in the stern strife of actual life.” (Roosevelt, Speech Text, *Strenuous Life*, 1899). Ideas like these, promoted by figures like these, could very well effect change, and quickly.

Therefore, these new normative messaging campaigns about a more civilized kind of masculinity would play a role in countering popular culture media marketing that constantly portrays men and women in traditional gender roles from their teen years (Dill & Thill, 2007).

The second recommendation would involve having educational workshops led by peer male educators; this would facilitate frank discussions about an unpleasant subject and discover solutions for it from a decidedly male perspective. According to the literature review, 60% of men do not consider their (problematic) actions as sexually assaultive behaviors. In addition, a stereotypical male will generally only discuss three topics when women are not around: sports, money, and sex. Thus, a basic education on what constitutes sexually assaultive behaviors, rape myths, and the importance of verbal sexual consent, is needed for college men.

Single male gender sexual health workshops have proven effective with male groups who are hesitant to express their ideas or emotions within a mixed groups (Gidycz, et al. 2011). The learning outcomes of the workshop would include:

- Promoting personal responsibility among male college students;
- Defining verbal consent in context of an intimate relationship;
- Defining sexual assault and recognizing various assaultive behaviors;

- Listing situations when sexual consent cannot be given;
- Developing skills and strategies to ask for verbal sexual consent;

Moreover, the workshop(s) should be led by male peer educators who would model skillfully the appropriate bystander approach behaviors used when intervening in a possible sexual assault. It is important that peer educators lead the workshop as a longitudinal study on peer education. They are effective at promoting behavioral changes with other students with regard to alcohol consumption and sexual health (White, Park, Israel, & Cordero, 2009).

Finally, the bystander approach may be an excellent framework to increase students' awareness of sexual assault, but its efficacy in curbing sexual assault is questionable because there are many variables at play. In addition, the drive to stop and prevent sexual assaults has mostly been pushed by a bottom-up leadership style (student activists, women advocates, non-profit groups, etc.) with a little effort from school leadership, at least not until President Obama called them to action to provide a safe learning environment.

Therefore, a top-down leadership mechanism, a strong directive leadership (Hallinger, 2003), is needed and is overdue to create a cultural shift against sexual assault on university campuses. The literature review revealed that many schools have failed to comply fully with federal laws in investigating, documenting, disciplining, and reporting sexual assaults to create a safe learning environment for all students. Hence, university officials and top leadership must take the lead in developing clear policies and procedures in collaboration with students groups, faculty and staff, and governmental agencies to put a stop to sexual assault on college campuses.

Concluding Thoughts

I believe this research study provided me with the basic skills and strategies needed to conduct future empirical research studies to understand human behaviors and evaluate research studies based on scientifically tested methods instead of relying on anecdotal evidence. The process of conducting this research study and writing the dissertation was a daunting one, at times, because of the challenge of scholarly writing and the rigorous process of empirical research. The challenge of conducting empirical research is that it requires a systematic approach to investigate a problem, the conducting of a review of the literature, the identification of research questions and hypotheses, the basis of the research study on a tested theory, the analysis of the study data, the reporting of the findings of the study, its implications, and recommendations for future research and practice, and more.

My decision to select this topic/problem for my dissertation stemmed from the fact that sexual assault rates have not dropped for the past 50 years, President Obama's inspiring call to action, and my personal views/prejudices (along with those of many others) against the bystander approach as it relates to men. My personal bias stemmed from my vast experience in developing programs for male students on college campuses as well as my experience in enforcing a restrictive smoking policy that mostly depended on bystander participation.

For example, in 2008, I chaired a taskforce that lobbied to restrict smoking on campus. Although the policy was approved and the campus became smoke-free except for two designated areas, enforcement of the policy was a major challenge because it was

dependent on peer enforcement or bystanders (observers) of a smoking person then reporting that behavior. Achieving real success was difficult to say the least.

Although the smokers were a minority on campus, the majority of non-smokers (students, staff, and faculty) were not keen on enforcing the policy. The campus community insisted on a separate entity/body to enforce the rules, such as health promotion services staff or public safety officers; the community at large did not believe it was its responsibility to enforce the policy on campus. As the complaints persisted, I hired four students to be marshals; it was their role to patrol the campus and remind smokers of the two designated smoking areas.

Although smoking is not as charged or as complicated an issue as sexual assault is, bystanders were hesitant to intervene for a number of reasons. They did not think the responsibility was theirs and they feared particularly aggressive responses from those they confronted. Given the similarity in constructs, one can see from where my skepticism of the bystander approach emanated.

This research study gave me the opportunity to investigate the bystander approach in a scientific method, although the findings of this study did not provide conclusive evidence that traditional male socialization had a strong correlation with bystander approach ineffectiveness as model for men to prevent or stop sexual assault. However, the study findings highlighted the need to revise or augment the bystander approach to be more effective with male students by addressing masculinity and covert behaviors.

Finally, conducting this research study using a “real” sample, getting actual data, and writing up the results gave me the confidence I need in conducting future research to continue my contribution to the wealth of public health general knowledge.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Masculine Gender Role Stress (MGRS) rating scale

Directions: Please rate the following items according to how stressful the situation would be for you. Give each item your own rating on a scale from 0 (*not stressful*) to 5 (*extremely stressful*). Examples might be:

- A. Driving a car 0
- B. Discovering you have a serious illness 4
- C. Losing your keys 2

1. Feeling that you are not in good physical condition _____.
2. Telling your girlfriend or boyfriend that you love her/him _____.
3. Being outperformed at work by a woman _____.
4. Having to ask for directions when you are lost _____.
5. Being unemployed _____.
6. Not being able to find a sexual partner _____.
7. Having a female boss _____.
8. Having your lover say that s/he is not satisfied _____.
9. Letting a woman take control of the situation _____.
10. Not having enough money _____.
11. Being perceived by someone as *gay* _____.
12. Telling someone that you feel hurt by what they said _____.
13. Being in a relationship with someone who makes more money than you _____.
14. Working with people who seem more ambitious than you _____.
15. Finding you lack study skills to succeed _____.
16. Losing in a sports competition _____.
17. Admitting that you are afraid of something _____.
18. Being with a girlfriend who is more successful than you _____.
19. Talking with a *feminist* _____.
20. Being unable to perform sexually _____.
21. Being perceived as having feminine traits _____.
22. Having your friends see you cry _____.
23. Being outperformed in a game by a female friend _____.
24. Having people say that you are indecisive _____.
25. Being too tired for sex when your lover initiates it _____.
26. Appearing less athletic than a friend _____.
27. Talking with a woman who is crying _____.
28. Needing your family support while you are at college _____.
29. Having others say that you are too emotional _____.
30. Being unable to become sexually aroused when you want _____.
31. Being compared unfavorably to men _____.
32. Comforting a male friend who is upset _____.
33. Admitting to your friends that you sew _____.
34. Working and/or studying with people who are brighter than you are _____.
35. Getting passed over for a scholarship or financial aid award _____.
36. Knowing you cannot hold your liquor as well as others _____.

37. Having your male friend put his arm around your shoulder _____.
38. Being with a girlfriend or boyfriend who is much taller than you _____.
39. Staying in your dorm during the day with a sick friend _____.
40. Getting fired from your job _____.

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Appendix B: The Masculine Gender Role Stress (MGRS)-Revised rating scale

Directions: Please rate the following items according to how stressful the situation would be for you. Give each item your own rating on a scale from 0 (*not stressful*) to 5 (*extremely stressful*). Examples might be:

- A. Driving a car 0
- B. Discovering you have a serious illness 4
- C. Losing your keys 2

1. Feeling that you are not in good physical condition _____.
2. Telling your spouse that you love her/him _____.
3. Being outperformed at work by a woman _____.
4. Having to ask for directions when you are lost _____.
5. Being unemployed _____.
6. Not being able to find a sexual partner _____.
7. Having a female boss _____.
8. Having your lover say that s/he is not satisfied _____.
9. Letting a woman take control of the situation _____.
10. Not making enough money _____.
11. Being perceived by someone as *gay* or *lesbian* _____.
12. Telling someone that you feel hurt by what they said _____.
13. Being married to someone who makes more money than you _____.
14. Working with people who seem more ambitious than you _____.
15. Finding you lack the occupational skills to succeed _____.
16. Losing in a sports competition _____.
17. Admitting that you are afraid of something _____.
18. Being with a woman who is more successful than you _____.
19. Talking with a *feminist* _____.
20. Being unable to perform sexually _____.
21. Being perceived as having feminine traits _____.
22. Having your children see you cry _____.
23. Being outperformed in a game by a woman _____.
24. Having people say that you are indecisive _____.
25. Being too tired for sex when your lover initiates it _____.
26. Appearing less athletic than a friend _____.
27. Talking with a woman who is crying _____.
28. Needing your spouse to work to help support the family _____.
29. Having others say that you are too emotional _____.
30. Being unable to become sexually aroused when you want _____.
31. Being compared unfavorably to men _____.
32. Comforting a male friend who is upset _____.
33. Admitting to your friends that you do housework _____.
34. Working with people who are brighter than you _____.
35. Getting passed over for a promotion _____.
36. Knowing you cannot hold your liquor as well as others _____.

37. Having a man put his arm around your shoulder _____.
38. Being with a woman who is much taller than you _____.
39. Staying home during the day with a sick child _____.
40. Getting fired from your job _____.

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Appendix C: Bystander Attitude Scale (BAS) –Revised

1. Ask for verbal consent when I am intimate with my partner, even if we are in a long-term relationship.
2. Stop sexual activity when asked to, even if I am already sexually aroused.
3. Check in with my friend who looks drunk when s/he goes to a room with someone else at a party.
4. Say something to my friend who is taking a drunken person back to his/her room at a party.
5. Challenge a friend who made a sexist joke.
6. Express my concern if a family member makes a sexist joke.
7. Use the word “ho,” “bitch,” or “slut” to describe girls.
8. Challenge a friend who uses “ho,” “bitch,” or “slut” to describe girls.
9. Confront a friend who plans to give someone alcohol to get sex.
10. Refuse to participate in activities where girls’ appearances are ranked/rated.
11. Listen to music that includes “ho,” “bitch,” or “slut.”
12. Confront a friend who is hooking up with someone who was passed out.
13. Confront a friend if I hear rumors that s/he forced sex on someone.
14. Report a friend who committed a rape.
15. Stop having sex with a partner if s/he says to stop, even if it started consensually.
16. Decide not to have sex with a partner if s/he is drunk.

Appendix D: Bystander Attitudes Scale (BAS)

Please list other behaviors you have engaged in that involved helping someone in a situation involving sexual or intimate partner abuse and that are not listed in the set of questions above.

Acquaintances are people you know a little but not enough to consider friends. For example, you may have taken a class with them or be part of the same organization.

Strangers are people you may even recognize by sight but have not met before and are people you have not really ever had any formal contact with before.

Sexual abuse refers to a range of behaviors that are unwanted by the recipient and include remarks about physical appearance, persistent sexual advances that are undesired by the recipient, as well as unwanted touching and unwanted oral, anal, or vaginal penetration. These behaviors could be initiated by someone known or unknown to the recipient, including someone they are in a relationship with.

Intimate partner abuse refers to a range of behaviors experienced in the context of any type of intimate relationship or friendship. These behaviors include use of physical force or threats of force against a partner including slapping, punching, throwing objects, threatening with weapons or threatening any kind of physical harm. It can also include extreme emotional abuse such as intimidation, blaming, putting down, making fun of, and name-calling.

Please read the following list of behaviors and check how likely YOU ARE to engage in these behaviors using the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all likely				Extremely likely

1. I have developed a specific plan for ways I might safely intervene as a bystander if I see sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse happening around me.
2. I try to get others to help me before trying to do something about sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse that I see going on.
3. I think through the pros and cons of different ways I might help if I see an instance of sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse.
4. I get advice from others about how to help someone who has experienced sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse.
5. I get further training in skills to confront and prevent sexual abuse and/or intimate partner abuse.
6. I refuse to remain silent about instances of sexual abuse and/or intimate partner abuse I know about.
7. I speak up if I hear someone say, “she deserved to be raped.”
8. If I hear what sounds like yelling and fighting through my dorm or apartment walls I knock on the door to see if everything is okay.

9. I encourage others to learn more and get involved in preventing sexual or intimate partner abuse.
10. I educate myself about sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse and what I can do about it.
11. I ask for verbal consent when I am intimate with my partner, even if we are in a long-term relationship.
12. I stop sexual activity when asked to, even if I am already sexually aroused.
13. I make sure I leave a party with the same people I came with.
14. I talk with people I know about going to parties together and staying to get her and leaving together.
15. I talk with people I know about watching each other's drinks.
16. I talk with people I know about sexual abuse and intimate partner abuse as issues for our community.
17. I express concern to someone I know if I see their partner exhibiting very jealous behavior and trying to control my friend.
18. If someone I know has had too much to drink, I ask him or her if they need to be walked home from the party.
19. I tell someone I know if I think their drink may have been spiked.
20. I talk with people I know about what makes a relationship abusive and what the warning signs might be.
21. If the partner of someone I know is shoving or yelling at them, I ask the person being shoved or yelled at if they need help.
22. I see a man talking to a female I know. He is sitting very close to her and by the look on her face, I can see she is uncomfortable. I ask her if she is okay or try to start a conversation with her.
23. I see someone I know and their partner. They are in a heated argument. The partner has their fist clenched around the arm of the person I know and the person I know looks upset. I ask if everything is okay.
24. I express concern to someone I know who has unexplained bruises that may be signs of abuse in their relationship
25. I stop and check in with someone I know who looks very intoxicated when they are being taken upstairs at a party.
26. If someone I know said that they had an unwanted sexual experience but they do not call it "rape" I express concern or offer to help.
27. I ask someone I know who seems upset if they are okay or need help.
28. I approach someone I know if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I am here to help.
29. I let someone I know who I suspect has been sexually assaulted know that I am here to help.
30. I share information or resources about sexual assault and/or intimate partner abuse with someone I know.
31. I support someone I know who wants to report sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse that happened to them even if others might get in trouble.
32. I confront people I know who make excuses for abusive behavior by others.
33. I express disagreement with someone I know who says using physical force in a relationship is okay.

34. I express disagreement with someone I know who says forcing someone to have sex with you okay.
35. I express disagreement with someone I know who says having sex with someone who is passed out or very intoxicated is okay.
36. I indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist, racist, homophobic jokes or catcalls made by someone I know.
37. I say something to someone I know if I saw them grabbing or pushing their partner.
38. If I hear someone I know insulting their partner I would say something to them.
39. If I see someone I know taking an intoxicated person back to their room I say something to them.
40. If I hear someone I know talking about forcing someone to have sex with them, I speak up against it and express concern for the person who was forced.
41. If I hear someone I know talking about using physical force with their partner, I speak up against it and express concern for their partner.
42. I refuse to remain silent if someone I know asks me to keep quiet about instances of sexual abuse or intimate partner abuse I know about.
43. I walk someone I know home from a party who has had too much to drink.
44. I watch the drinks of people I know at parties.
45. I make sure people I know leave the party with the same people they came with.
46. I go with someone I know to talk with someone (e.g., police, counselor, crisis center, resident assistant) about sexual abuse or physical abuse in their relationship.
47. I call 911 if someone needs help because they are being hurt sexually or physically.

48. I talk to people I know to make sure we do not leave an intoxicated friend behind at a party.
49. I enlist the help of others if an intoxicated person I know is being taken upstairs at a party.
50. I call 911 or get help if I hear someone I know calling for help.
51. I call crisis center or talk to a resident counselor to get information to help someone I know who told me they experienced sexual or intimate partner abuse.
52. If I hear that someone I know has been accused of sexual or intimate partner abuse, I speak up about any information I have.

Appendix E: Institutional Review Board Approval

Kamal Harb,

Protocol #202

10/18/2013

The Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (IRBPHS) at the University of San Francisco (USF) has reviewed your request for human subjects approval regarding your study.

Your project (IRB Protocol #202) with the title **Adherence to Traditional Male Gender Roles and Perceptions of Bystander Intervention Behaviors Among Incoming College First-year male Students** has been approved by the University of San Francisco IRBPHS as **Exempt** according to 45CFR46.101(b). Your application for exemption has been verified because your project involves minimal risk to subjects as reviewed by the IRB on 10/18/2013.

Please note that changes to your protocol may affect its exempt status. Please submit a modification application within ten working days, indicating any changes to your research. Please include the Protocol number assigned to your application in your correspondence.

On behalf of the IRBPHS committee, I wish you much success in your endeavors.

Sincerely,

Terence Patterson,

Chair, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects

IRBPHS - University of San Francisco

Counseling Psychology Department

Education Building - Room 017

2130 Fulton Street

San Francisco, CA 94117-1080

[\(415\) 422-6091](tel:(415)422-6091) (Message)

IRBPHS@usfca.edu