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Students' Awareness, Knowledge, and Perceptions of Mandatory Reporting of Sexual Victimization on College Campuses

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

by

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Acknowledgements

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to my family, friends, committee, mentors, and those who have been impacted by any form of sexual misconduct.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations & Acronyms

ASR: Annual Security Report

CI: Confidence Interval

Cleary Act: The Jeanne Cleary Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act

DOJ: Department of Justice

IRB: Institutional Review Board

N: Sample Size

NASPA: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

NCWSVS: National College Women Sexual Victimization Survey

OCR: Office of Civil Rights

OLS: Ordinary Least Squares

POE: Preponderance of Evidence

SaVE Act: Campus Sexual Assault Violence Elimination Act

SD: Standard Deviation

SUNY: The State University of New York

Title IX: Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

U.S.: United States

VAWA: Violence Against Women Act of 1994

VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

VCU: Virginia Commonwealth University

Virginia Tech: Virginia Polytechnic Institution and State University

Wilder School: L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs

Abstract

STUDENTS AWARENESS, KNOWLEDGE, AND PERPCETIONS OF MANDATORY REPORTING OF SEXUAL VICTIMIZATION ON COLLEGE CAMPUSES

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

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The purpose of this study is to identify students' awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of the mandatory reporting policy related to Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX). Mandatory reporting requirements are being implemented in higher educational institutions; however, existing literature does not examine students' perceptions or their knowledge of the specific requirements that apply exclusively to them. This exploratory study examines the perceptions of college students at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) in Richmond, Virginia. Drawing on survey data (N = 501) from a large, public research university, the study explores two outcome variables: students' awareness of the mandatory reporting policy and students' knowledge of the university's Title IX and mandatory reporting policy. It is hypothesized that variation across such views may be predicted by several factors, such as rape myth acceptance, knowing a victim of sexual misconduct, knowing an individual falsely accused of sexual misconduct, and demographic characteristics. Most of the students were aware of the university's mandatory reporting policy, but they were not especially knowledgeable about the specifics. An overwhelming number of students support the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses for sexual misconduct, but fewer individuals stated they are more likely to disclose personal sexual victimization with an enacted mandatory reporting policy. Being

knowledgeable about the university's mandatory reporting policy was positively associated with higher general support of mandatory reporting. In addition, being aware of the enacted mandatory reporting policy also emerged as statistically significant and positively associated with perceptions of disadvantages and advantages of the mandatory reporting policy. Other findings and implications are discussed.

Chapter I: Introduction

Concern about sexual victimization and sexual misconduct on college campuses has led to new discussions about student safety in post-secondary institutions. With sensationalized cases, such as the sexual abuse allegations against Jerry Sandusky and the alleged cover up of the allegations by Joe Paterno at Pennsylvania State University, the gang rape of a female athlete at Baylor University, or the *Rolling Stone* article about an alleged sexual assault committed by a fraternity at the University of Virginia, the media has brought more attention to this subject (Brubaker & Mancini, 2017; Mancini, Pickett, Call, Diehl McDougle, Brubaker, & Brownstein, 2017; Mancini, Pickett, Call, & Roche, 2016; Rosenthal, 2017). Views surrounding this topic differ amongst the public. Some argue that educational institutions and their administrators purposefully cover up sexual misconduct and, therefore, need a mechanism to address the issues. Others strongly believe that all allegations must be investigated thoroughly but must be held to a higher burden of proof and protect individual due process. Consequently, policies surrounding how to address and prevent sexual victimization on college campuses have evolved. For example, under the Obama administration, the U.S. Department of Education released a *Dear Colleague Letter* to provide guidance on how universities should respond to sexual misconduct; however, under the current administration, the guidance was rescinded, and the U.S Department of Education has proposed changes, which are currently open for public comment.

While these policies have been examined to some degree, it has only been in a broad and limited manner. Existing research has reviewed rates of victimization (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Sinozich & Langton, 2014; The White House, 2014); however, very little research has examined the perceptions of those directly impacted by these policies – college students and mandatory reporters. The reality is that the policies and multiple

related guidance and recommendations (e.g., *Dear Colleague Letters*) have changed, but without a true understanding of how college students view or feel about the old policy, the rescission, or the proposed revisions. However, some continue to argue that little research supports the notion that increased federal regulations addressing sexual victimization on college campuses meet their intended goals (Holland, Cortina, & Freyd, 2018; Wies, 2015).

The examination of students' perceptions is important for many reasons. First, the federal government has placed requirements on universities without providing any additional funding to meet the federal guidelines. Failure to comply with the requirements can result in a loss of federal monies to support the university and the students; therefore, an examination of students' perceptions of the requirements will allow lawmakers to understand if their regulations are effective and the student population supports these measures. If these requirements are found to be ineffective, universities that are not compliant may be losing monies for their students unnecessarily, while ineffective compliant schools continue to receive funds. Second, universities have created Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) offices, with additional staff, resources, and responsibilities, which can be costly initiatives. However, because the students' perceptions are unknown, universities cannot make an informed decision when considering how to improve effectiveness and efficiency. Lastly, numerous states have implemented further requirements (e.g., mandatory reporting laws) for their staff. Without a true understanding on how students view such policies and practices, universities may be burdening their faculty and staff with requirements, which may not lead to the intended goals (Holland, Cortina, & Freyd, 2018).

Given this oversight, the current research project aims to examine how college students perceive mandatory reporting policies related to sexual victimization, their understanding of such

policies at their specific university, and their general awareness and knowledge about the university's policies and practices. Furthermore, this project attempts to understand students' perceptions about the rescission of the Obama-era guidelines. This study is important because it can provide the university with an understanding of how the students feel and think about the application of mandatory reporting on a college campus. The study may also assist with making informed decisions, especially when federal guidance is fluid. Furthermore, this study can provide policy- and decision-makers with vital background information for use when considering whether to keep the current implementation processes or explore changes to the universities' requirements and expectations.

The goals of this exploratory study are achieved by examining three main research questions: (i) Do students support mandatory reporting; (ii) What are the expected outcomes of mandatory reporting laws; and (iii) How do mandatory reporting requirements impact students' likelihood to report victimization? The researcher collected a non-probabilistic, convenience sample at Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU). The survey was a traditional pen-and-paper survey. Once the data collection was completed, the researcher conducted reliability scales, descriptive statistics, and ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions in SPSS.

The findings of this study have policy and practical implications, such as informing annual reviews, suggesting procedural changes, and revising training needs.

Chapter II: Literature Review

This chapter will provide a detailed overview of sexual victimization on college campuses. First, I will examine the rates and prevalence of sexual misconduct in the community and on college campuses, particularly against female college students. Existing research finds that although there are low rates of sexual victimization reports, a high rate of sexual misconduct exists (Sinozich & Langton, 2014; The White House, 2014). Then I will review the impact sexual violence can have on a victim, various policies that address sexual misconduct, and legislation related to college campuses, such as Title IX, the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (Clery Act), and the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (SaVE Act). The chapter will summarize the burden of proof debate related to Tile IX investigations and review the history of mandatory reporting, its expansion to different types of victimization, and its application to sexual violence on college campuses. The researcher discusses the benefits and concerns of mandatory reporting and various groups' perceptions of mandatory reporting. This study was executed at VCU in Richmond, Virginia; therefore, the researcher will examine their university's policy and summarize the gap in existing literature. Finally, the researcher discusses the study's purpose and research questions.

Sexual Misconduct Prevalence, Policies, Reporting, and Legislation

Specific policies surrounding sexual misconduct on college campuses were created to protect college victims of rape and sexual misconduct and to hold educational institutions accountable for addressing and preventing sexual assault (Mancini et al., 2016). To recognize the need for such policies and legislation, it is critical to understand the rates of sexual victimization on college campuses, issues that stem from victimization, reporting options, and barriers. Furthermore, while reporting options are in place, issues related to the victim's choice to report

still exist. While the Obama-era legislation's goal was to increase reporting of sexual misconduct and universities' accountability to address past incidents and prevent future sexual misconduct, reporting rates remain low. Although these developments and high-publicity cases have assisted with providing more attention to this issue (Krakauer, 2016), according to scholars, the desired results have not been achieved (Rosenthal, 2017).

Prevalence of sexual misconduct.

Collectively, research has found that female college students are at greater risk of experiencing sexual assault or rape, even compared to nonstudent females in the same age group (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In a report published by the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), Sinozich and Langton (2014) found that females between the ages of 18-24 had the highest rate of sexual victimization compared to any other female age group. Specifically, between 1995-2013, females in this age range experienced the highest rate of sexual victimization (approximately 4.3 victimizations per 1,000) than other female age groups (1.4 victimizations per 1,000) (Rennison, Kaukinen, & Meade, 2017; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Researchers argue female college students are at a higher risk than women in the general community because of the unique opportunities to "come into contact with young men in a variety of public and private settings at various times on college campuses" (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000, p. 1).

Studies have also found some variance in the rate of victimization. While Cantalupo (2014) found approximately 20% to 25% of women were sexually victimized while attending a university, others have found victimization rates to be even higher (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Wilcox, Jordan, & Pritchard, 2007). Cantalupo and Kidder (2018) found that in more than half of the graduate school students' cases against professors consisted of unwelcomed kissing,

groping, receiving massages, being sexual assaulted, and experiencing controlling "domestic abuse-like behaviors" (p. 2). In a study conducted by Jordan, Combs, and Smith (2014), 24% of female students experienced sexual assault in their first semester of college, and another 20% experienced sexual misconduct, including rape, by their second semester. In general, most studies find one in four to one in three female college students report experiencing a form of sexual misconduct, including rape and attempted rape (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014). Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, and Martin (2014) also found that 84% of female student victims were sexually coerced during their first four semesters. Furthermore, female college students seem to have a similar rate of sexual victimization regardless of race (Smith, White, & Holland, 2003).

In addition, approximately five million female college students have experienced sexual harassment (Guziewicz, 2002). Cantalupo and Kidder (2018) also find one in ten female graduate students and "over one in five transgender/genderqueer graduate students" (p. 20) are sexually harassed by university faculty. While female students are less likely to experience rape than nonstudents, 33% of student victims experienced completed rape and another 25% experienced attempted rape or another form of sexual assault (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Rates of rape and sexual assault (6.1 per 1,000) are higher than other violent crimes, such as robbery (3.3 per 1,000), amongst female college students (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In an examination of over 300 cases where a graduate student filed a complaint against a professor, researchers found that 53% of cases consisted of serial sexual harassment (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018).

Fifty-seven percent of student victims suffered from a physical injury; however, only 37% of student victims received medical assistance (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In addition, only 16% of female student victims received support services from a public or private agency.

Koss (2011) also found that female rape victims by a known male were two times less likely to tell anyone about the incident and were more likely to view the incident as a result of miscommunication. They were also eight times less likely to report the incident to law enforcement or to seek support services (Koss, 2011). Furthermore, only half of the victims were likely to consider their victimization as sexual misconduct (Koss, 2011). A separate analysis conducted by Koss (1988) found that the majority (74%) of the attempted or completed sexual assaults and rapes committed by college males were under the influence of alcohol. Similarly, in another study, researchers found that over 70% of women who reported sexual victimization while in college, were under the influence of alcohol when the incident occurred (Mohler-Juo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004). Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews (2017) found that approximately 52% of female college student victims reported being under the influence of alcohol when the incident occurred.

Amongst student sexual assault or rape victims, 80% knew their assailant (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In 50% of these cases, the assailant was a friend or acquaintance, and in 24% of these cases, the assailant was an intimate partner (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Fisher, Daigle, and Cullen (2010) and Krebs et al. (2014) have a higher estimate (90%) of offenders known to the victim. Rennison, Kaukinen, and Meade (2017) similarly found that in between 85% and 90% of cases, the aggressor was an intimate partner, a friend, or an acquaintance of the victim. A majority of the sexual victimization against college females (95%) involved a single assailant and 97% of female student victims reported the assailant to be male (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). However, in a study examining perceptions of crime, the college women respondents reported being more fearful of offenses, such as sexual assault, being committed by unknown individuals rather than known assailants, such as acquaintances or intimate partners (Wilcox, Jordon, &

Pritchard, 2006). Rennison, Kaukinen, and Meade (2017) also found that female college students are more likely to be fearful of victimization than nonstudent females.

When considering acts of sexual misconduct, female college student victims reported that approximately 18% were forced to engage in oral sex, nearly 40% reported forced vaginal penetration, roughly 25% reported anal or vaginal penetration by a finger or another object, and 6% reported being penetrated anally (Spencer et al., 2017). Furthermore, a majority (73%) of female college student victims reported being forcibly touched in a sexual manner (Spencer et al., 2017). Beaver (2017) also found that approximately 11% of undergraduate females reported being forcefully touched in a sexual manner or penetrated. Cantalupo and Kidder (2018) found in approximately 35% of cases against university faculty, the graduate student victim experienced sexual and physical violence; whereas, in 15% of the cases against university faculty, student victims reported non-penetrated sexual touching.

Sinozich and Langton (2014) also found that female college students are less likely to report sexual victimization than nonstudents of the same age range. Approximately 80% of student victims did not report the rape or sexual assault to law enforcement, compared to 67% of nonstudent females; thus, making sexual assault and rape one of the most underreported violent offenses (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Students do not report victimization for various reasons. While nine percent of female student victims stated that they believe the police could not or would not provide assistance, approximately 26% of victims stated they did not report the offense(s) to authorities because they believe the incident was a personal and private matter (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). In addition, students were more likely to believe that the incident's severity was not high enough or the event was not important enough to report (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Another 20% stated they feared retaliation or reprisal for reporting. The majority

of sexual assault and rape against students occurred while the individual was away from their primary residence and between the hours of 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. (Greenfeld, 1997; Sinozich & Langton, 2014).

Studies evaluating self-reported data on personal offending found that 25% to 57% college male students disclosed having committed an act that would be considered sexual assault (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014). In addition, up to 15% of college male students acknowledged committing an act consistent with the legal definition of rape (Abbey, McAuslan, & Ross, 1998; Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck, 2001). Abbey and colleagues (1998) also found that among college male students who disclosed engaging in sexual misconduct, nearly 66% admitted to committing multiple acts of sexual offenses. In another study, researchers found 20% of male college students disclosed engaging in sexual dating violence (Schwartz, DeKeseredy, Tait, & Alvi, 2001).

Sinozich and Langton (2014) also found that sexual victimization rates for males between the ages of 18-24 were lower compared to females and 17% of sexual victimizations against students are male victims, compared to 4% of males among nonstudents. The U.S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (OCR) (2011a) estimated that 6% of male college students fall victim to attempted or completed sexual assault. Spencer and colleagues (2017) reported 5% of undergraduate male college students experienced sexual contact by force or while incapacitated after enrolling in their university, compared to 23% female undergraduate students (Cantor, Fisher, Chibnall, Bruce, Townsend, Thomas, & Lee, 2015). When examining rates of sexual harassment amongst males, Uggen and Blackstone (2004) found males report experiencing sexual harassment at a lower rate (14%) than females (32%). Similar findings also were discovered when examining graduate students and sexual harassment. Cantalupo and

Kidder (2018) found male graduate students (roughly 30%) reported lower rates sexual harassment compared to female graduate students (approximately 44%). Transgender and genderqueer graduate students reported the highest rates of sexual harassment amongst graduate students (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018).

It is evident that sexual misconduct against college students is a prevalent issue. Studies have found sexual misconduct to have an impact on the physical health and emotional well-being of the victim. Negative effects on victims include, but are not limited to, depression, post-traumatic stress, eating disorders, anxiety, and even substance abuse (Campbell, Dworkin, & Cabral, 2009; Ullman & Najdowski, 2009). Researchers compared the outcomes of rape victims to the victims of nonsexual offenses and found that rape victims experienced higher levels of anxiety, eating disorders, and depression (Faravelli, Guigni, Salvatori, & Ricci, 2004). Krakauer (2016) found higher drop-out rates and changes to the victim's education plan after the incident in college.

Sexual victimization can also impact the victim's academic performance. Female students who are sexually victimized during their first semester are more likely to have a lower grade point average at the end of the semester than their non-victimized counterparts (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014). The severity of the offense (e.g., physical injuries or completed rape) also correlates with the victim's grade point average. Female victims who experienced rape, compared to other forms of sexual misconduct, are more likely to have a grade point average of 2.5 or below (Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014). In instances of sexual harassment, victims can experience stress and anxiety, which may lead to lower class attendance, a decrease in the quality of academic work and academic performance, and disconnection from their courses (Amar & Gennaro, 2005). Cantalupo and Kidder (2018) also found that sexual harassment increases the

gender gap in certain professional fields. Specifically, sexual harassment has impacted the numbers of female graduate students, post-doctoral fellows, and even assistant professors in male-dominated fields (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). Fusilier and Penrod (2015) found that sexual harassment results in a loss of work productivity to be valued over $22,000 for each victim.

Fisher, Daigle, and Cullen (2010) argue that university campuses uniquely facilitate certain types of sexual misconduct such as stalking. Stalking consists of an individual having the time to pursue, engage with, and have regular access to the victim (Fisher et al., 2010). While different studies have found a great variation in the rates of stalking reports from female college students, Fisher et al. (2010) found that over 43% of stalking victims reported the aggressor to be an acquaintance, approximately 40% reported the stalker to be an unknown individual, and nearly 16% reported the stalker to be an intimate partner.

The high prevalence of sexual misconduct on college campuses is unmistakable; therefore, the examination of how universities are addressing this issue is vital. Existing research has found a gender gap in the prevalence of sexual misconduct, attesting that females are more likely to be victims, especially female students (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). College campuses are unique and considered a "natural" environment, which can facilitate the occurrence and engagement in certain types of sexual misconduct. This is due to the frequent overlap of academic and recreational activities, close proximity to the campus community, and easier access to individuals due to consistent schedules (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Consequently, the investigation of policies, practices, and perceptions are vital to informed decision-making (Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010).

Policies of sexual misconduct.

Sexual misconduct is an overarching term for various types of offenses: sexual harassment, sexual assault, and attempted or completed rape (OCR, 2011a). Title IX defines sexual harassment as "unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature. It includes unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favors, and other verbal, nonverbal, or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Sexual violence is a form of sexual harassment prohibited by Title IX" (OCR, 2011a, p. 3). Sexual violence is defined as "physical sexual acts perpetrated against a person's will or where a person is incapable of giving consent due to the victim's use of drugs or alcohol…including rape, sexual assault, sexual battery, and sexual coercion" (OCR, 2011a, p. 1).

Sexual harassment has historically received more attention than other forms of sexual misconduct (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015; Rosenthal, 2017). There are two main forms of sexual harassment that are recognized by United States federal laws: hostile work environments and quid pro quo. According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (n.d.), in hostile work environments, unwelcomed sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal comments or physical gestures in a sexual nature are severe and offensive to the extent it impairs an individual's ability to properly engage and participate in work activities. In addition, it interferes with the victim's ability to interact in their environment due to intimidation. Quid pro quo is a form of sexual harassment where an aggressor places sexual requests on the victim. In a quid pro quo scenario, the aggressor may request sexual favors or make demands in exchange for something, such as a course grade, promotion, or a specific position on an athletic team (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, n.d.).

As the intent of federal legislation implies, universities must set standards of conduct that respond to victimization and seek to prevent future victimization of students; however, the

methods and implementation of this requirement vary. According to the U.S. Department of Education's OCR (1997), "policies and procedures specifically designed to address sexual harassment…are a very effective means of making students and employees aware of what constitutes sexual harassment, that conduct is prohibited sex discrimination, and that it will not be tolerated by the school. That awareness, in turn, can be a key element in prevention sexual harassment" (para. 52).

Some scholars, however, have argued that the mere existence of policies is not a sufficient solution on its own. Fusilier and Penrod (2015) recommend that policies must be easily accessible and known amongst the students and university community. Additionally, the authors claim there should be insight into the policies and procedures implemented to address sexual violence, such as all available methods to make a complaint to university officials and local law enforcement. The existence of sexual harassment policies and the accessibility to such policies significantly vary across the classification of the institution. According to one of the only national examinations for quality and availability of sexual harassment prevention policies across different types of educational institutions, 97% of institutions have an existing formal policy (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). The study found 99% of public state universities have their policy readily available online; 86% of private non-profit universities and only 23% of for-profit institutions have published their sexual harassment policy on the institutions' website (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). Research also found that over 50% of female and 40% of male students wanted their university's sexual harassment and related policies to specifically describe what is defined and constitutes as sexual harassment and would like their university to have a clear zero-tolerance stance (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015).

Although the existence of the sexual misconduct policies and easy accessibility are the first few steps to addressing these issues, many concerns remain. For example, training is an important component of understanding university policies and expectations. Fusilier and Penrod (2015) found that 75% of universities in their study had sexual harassment and prevention trainings for their students, and approximately 66% of universities had faculty and staff trainings. On the contrary, 29% of universities did not address the availability of sexual harassment or prevention trainings in their policy or on their website (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). In another study, when female college student victims were asked if they had received training, only 37% stated they received training regarding sexual assault on college campuses (Spencer et al., 2017).

Another concern is the validity of the application of these policies. According to Anderson (2014), students attending the University of Virginia, who violated their university's honor code, were significantly more likely to be expelled compared to those who violated the university's sexual misconduct policies. In an analysis conducted by Kingkade (2014), it is reported that a majority of students who were found responsible for acts of sexual assault typically receive consequences significantly less severe than the maximum sanction (i.e., expulsion). In the analysis of approximately 36 colleges and universities, only 30% of perpetrators who were found responsible for sexual misconduct were officially expelled (Kingkade, 2014). In contrast, most students who were found responsible for acts of sexual violence were permitted to retain their status as students and received relatively less severe sanctions, such as academic suspension or probation (Kingkade, 2014). Specifically, Kingkade (2014) reported that 47% of those whom were found responsible for sexual misconduct received suspension and 17% received educational sanctions, in which outcomes were not clearly outlined.

Given disparities in institutional policy, an attendant concern involves measurement of the prevalence and reporting practices of sexual misconduct at a university. Prior work has established that universities which encourage the reporting of sexual victimization will seemingly have higher rates of victimization, which makes the university appear unsafe; however, scholars argue that the reality is educational institutions that ignore or minimize the importance of victims' reports have lower reporting rates, hence only superficially appearing to be safer (Cantalupo, 2014).

In addition to the existence of and easy access to sexual misconduct policies, it is imperative for institutions to inform their students of other support services that are available to victims. Support services and available resources vary greatly between universities. Services can include, but are not limited to medical, emotional, academic, legal, or financial support (Koss, Wilgus, & Williamsen, 2014). Although universities differ, most include remedial services, which can be temporary or permanent for all involved parties. For example, VCU's Sexual Misconduct/Violence and Sex/Gender Discrimination (2016) policy states that temporary or permanent remedial or protective measures may include assistance with changing residences on campus, academic support, counseling and medical services, or no-contact orders. Specifically, the University Student Health Services provides health examinations, consultations, and/or treatment to victims of sexual misconduct (VCU, 2016). VCU's support services are examples of how universities can support student victims, regardless if a student reports the victimization to law enforcement, in a timely manner.

Reporting of sexual misconduct.

While the existence of a policy, easy access to the policy, and support services are important, it is also imperative to understand how reporting of sexual misconduct functions and

where reporting and legal reforms are lacking. Sexual misconduct is the most underreported crime (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Mancini, 2014; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006) and the decision to report victimization can be influenced by many factors.

According to the National College Women Sexual Victimization Survey (NCWSVS), less than five percent of attempted or completed rapes are reported to the police (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Similarly, a study found that an estimated 90% of student victims did not report the incident (Cantalupo, 2014). Furthermore, a majority of college student victims stated they would inform a friend, but not family or a school official (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Fusilier and Penrod (2015) found that victims were not aware of their university's policies; consequently, they did not report the incident. Peirce, Rosen, and Hiller (1997) argue that the predominance of underreporting is not due to the absence of a policy. The issue of easy accessibility to the policies and the lack of alternative or informal methods of reporting an incident were discovered to be significant contributors to underreporting.

There are many other reasons why individuals may not report, such as the fear, lack of information, and more (Cantalupo, 2014; Greenfeld, 1997; Sable et al., 2006). Cantalupo (2014) found that victimization was not reported because the victim feared that he or she would not be believed. Similarly, Sable et al. (2006) found that the leading causes for not reporting sexual victimization were (i) feeling a sense of shame, guilt, and/or embarrassment, (ii) fear of not being believed, and (iii) confidentiality concerns related to reporting victimization. When examining barriers to reporting, research has found that male students also feared having their sexuality judged or being labeled as "gay," while female students were more likely to fear retaliation for reporting (Fisher et al., 2000; Sable et al., 2006). Due to these barriers, male students are

significantly less likely to report, especially due to perceptions that victimization can potentially threaten the individual's masculinity (Sable et al., 2006).

Additional reasons for not reporting a sexual misconduct incident include: (i) not wanting to prosecute a family member or friend; (ii) believing that the aggressor would not be prosecuted successfully; (iii) a lack of awareness of the importance of seeking and receiving treatment; (iv) being unaware of how to receive assistance; (v) a lack of available support services; and (vi) distrust and/or dislike of the police and criminal justice system (Sable et al., 2006). In a study conducted by Spencer et al. (2017), results indicated that female student victims were 94% less likely to formally report the victimization if the perpetrator was an intimate partner and 90% less likely if the perpetrator was an acquaintance, compared to if the perpetrator was a stranger. Female students were more likely to report financial barriers or financial dependence on the aggressor as a reporting barrier compared to male students (Greenfeld, 1997; Sable et al., 2006).

Another factor that influences underreporting is procedural limitations. For example, at some universities, if a student is victimized off-campus or not on university property, disciplinary charges against the assailant cannot be filed or pursued by the victim or university (Wies, 2015). In many cases, victims would like to pursue a university-led judicial process, rather than formal criminal charges (Wies, 2015). Due to a lack of alternative or informal processes, some students who do not want to pursue formal criminal charges are left with no reporting options and the incident goes unreported altogether (Jordan & Wilcox, 2004; Wies, 2015).

Older studies have found that demographic characteristics have an association with the likelihood to report sexual victimization to law enforcement. For example, Gartner and MacMillian (1995) found that younger victims were less likely to report victimization to the

police, compared to older victims. Greenfeld (1997) found that majority of victims under the age of 12 are victimized by assailants that are known to them. In 43% of such cases, young victims were sexually assaulted by a family member (Greenfeld, 1997). Consequently, in cases where the victim is young, the victim-offender relationship can have an impact on the decision to report (Greenfeld, 1997; MacMillian, 1995).

Lizotte (1985) found a negative relationship between education and reporting. Educated females were less likely to report sexual misconduct to the police because they fear losing their status and are more likely to view attempted incidents to be different from victimization by completed acts (Lizotte, 1985). Pino and Meier (1999) found that individuals with a higher income were also less likely to report. Furthermore, Feldman-Summers and Ashworth (1981) found that minority women (e.g. African American females) were less likely to report the victimization to law enforcement due to a long history of distrust of the police. They also found that Caucasian women were more likely to report sexual victimization due to having a less conflict-ridden historical relationship with law enforcement compared to females from other racial groups (Feldman-Summers & Ashworth, 1981). Interestingly, however, Smith et al. (2003) found that female college students have a similar rate of sexual victimization, regardless of race.

It is important to note that while underreporting to campus or legal authorities remains high, it does not equate to complete nondisclosure by the victim. Fisher et al. (2000) found that although less than five percent of victims reported the incident to law enforcement or campus authorities, all reported incidents were also disclosed to another individual, such as a friend, family member, or a trusted school official. Spencer et al. (2017) found that 22% of victims did not report the incident to anyone; however, 69% disclosed to another individual, and only 9% reported the incident to the police or a university official. In many cases, victims disclosed the

incident to a friend (Fisher et al., 2000). Additionally, approximately 17% of stalking incidents were reported to the police; however, nearly 90% of victims informed a friend, roommate, or family member of the stalking (Fisher et al., 2000). Similarly, in a later study, Fisher et al. (2010) found that over 90% of stalking victims disclosed the occurrence to someone. While nearly 4% reported to a school official and 3% reported to a residence assistant, most victims disclosed to a friend or family member (Fisher et al., 2010).

While underreporting is an issue that influences accurate victimization rates, which can impact accessibility to victim services, there are also issues or negative results related to reporting, which can directly affect the victim. For example, many victims who report may not be satisfied with the outcome of the report or investigation (Shapiro, 2014). Krebs et al. (2014) found that certain types of victimization are negatively associated with the level of outcome satisfaction. For instance, victims who were conscious while forcefully penetrated were more likely to be dissatisfied with the outcome of their case than victims who were sexually assaulted while incapacitated (Krebs et al., 2014).

Similarly, individuals who are dissatisfied with the outcome are more likely to regret their decision to report the victimization (Krebs et al., 2014). For example, Campbell (2006) found many rape victims felt like police officers were blaming the victim when they were asked questions regarding their personal sexual history and in incidents where police officers did not write a formal report. Stephens and Sinden (2000) also found that rape and domestic violence victims were highly dissatisfied with the interviews conducted by law enforcement when the victims perceived that the interviewing officers did not show concern towards the individual, dismissed the severity of the offense, and/or expressed disbelief in the victim's statements. On the other hand, victims who felt the police officers treated them with respect and expressed

concern, were more likely to be satisfied with the process and outcome (Stephens & Sinden, 2000). Krakauer (2016) illustrates several examples of how the victims' perceptions of distrust and feelings of being disrespected by the line and tone of police questioning can negatively impact victims' satisfaction with the criminal justice system; thus, leading to victims who do report being dissatisfied with the case's outcome. This dissatisfaction can also contribute to the underreporting of personal victimization in the future and can lead to these individuals discouraging others from reporting sexual assaults (Krakauer, 2016).

In a study by Rennison, Kaukinen, and Meade (2017), between 32% and 36% of female students believed that university officials would address sexual misconduct and its contributing factors on campus. Spencer et al. (2017) found that individuals with higher positive perception of the school's overall climate were more likely to report victimization and believe that the university would properly address the issue compared to individuals with lower positive perception. Female students with a positive perception of the university's overall climate were six times more likely to report the incident formally (Spencer et al., 2017).

Existing research has found that the decision to report or not to report sexual misconduct varies depending on the victims' demographic characteristics, fear of being believed, severity of the incident, victim's relationship to the perpetrator, and even the students' perceptions of the university's climate (Spencer et al., 2017). In addition, easy accessibility to and the knowledge of university policies, support services, and available trainings on sexual misconduct can impact a student's decision to report victimization. Now that the prevalence of sexual misconduct, certain school policies, prevalence of reporting, and factors that may influence one's decision to report have been examined, it is important to understand how policies, such as Title IX and the Clery Act, play a major role on college campuses.

Legislation Related to Safety of College Campuses

In order to prevent and/or reduce violent crimes, sexual offenses, and the risk of victimization, a number of federal laws have been passed since 1990. Each piece of legislation focuses on various important factors and promotes transparency. Prior to the Clery Act, educational institutions did not have any legislation addressing campus crime and disclosure of such offenses (Mancini, 2015). When examining sexual misconduct on college campuses, it is imperative to understand why these policies were created, how the policies individually address sexual misconduct, and how universities have interpreted legislation. This section will discuss Title IX, Clery Act, and the guidance outlined in the *Dear Colleague Letters*.

What is Title IX?

Title IX is one of the federal statutes of the Education Amendments of 1972 and impacts colleges and universities that receive federal funding. Title IX provides college students with protection against sex-based discrimination. Universities must comply with Title IX requirements to receive or continue receiving federal financial assistance (Triplett, 2012). Approximately 7,000 postsecondary institutions, 16,500 local school districts, charter schools, vocational rehabilitation agencies, education agencies, libraries, museums, and some for-profit schools must comply with Title IX requirements (OCR, 2015b).

Specifically, students cannot be excluded from participating in any educational programming or activities due to their sex; therefore, programs that receive federal financial assistance must operate in a non-discriminatory manner (OCR, 2015b). A majority of universities are required to comply because many of their students receive federal financial aid (Veidlinger, 2016).

Title IX applies to many areas of education: (i) recruitment processes; (ii) admissions; (iii) financial assistance; (iv) athletic programming; (v) single-sex education; (vi) sex-based harassment; (vii) the treatment of pregnant and parenting students; (viii) disciplines (e.g. women in engineering, math, and sciences); and (ix) employment (OCR, 2015b). Applicants cannot be denied admission or be discriminated against during the admission process based on the applicant's sex. In addition, individuals cannot be excluded from educational programs, such as research, trainings, and extracurricular activities based on their sex at universities that received federal financial assistance (34 C.F.R §106, 1979). Additionally, if a single-sex course or activity exists at universities, a "substantially equal" course or activity can be required for the excluded sex (34 C.F.R §106, 1979). Similarly, Title IX states that separated athletic teams for different sexes shall be provided with equal athletic opportunities. In instances where an equal athletic opportunity or team does not exist, the minority sex can try out for the school's existing team, as long as it is not a contact sport, such as boxing, wrestling, football, or basketball (34 C.F.R §106, 1979).

Title IX also states that counseling resources and treatments cannot be different for individuals solely based on their sex. Financial aid services, funds, and amounts cannot be provided differently to students due to their sex (34 C.F.R §106, 1979). In addition, universities that receive federal funding cannot discriminate against a student for their "actual or potential parental, family, or marital status" nor can they be discriminated against in programs and activities due to pregnancy, termination of a pregnancy, childbirth, or a false pregnancy (34 C.F.R §106, 1979). Individuals who file a complaint against a university for violating Title IX requirements must be protected against retaliation. If retaliation occurs, it is considered as another form of being noncompliant with Title IX (OCR, 2015b; Triplett, 2012).

The U.S. Department of Education's OCR is responsible for the enforcement of Title IX. OCR completes compliance reviews, evaluates, investigates, and resolves sex discrimination complaints. OCR is also responsible for providing universities with technical assistance, guidance, and resources (OCR, 2015b). As Title IX has a broad scope in ensuring sex equity in education, sexual misconduct falls under this regulation. Universities that receive federal funding are required to prohibit sexual misconduct and sexual harassment towards both staff and students (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015).

Although OCR has put forth guidance to clarify the requirements of Title IX, a number of cases have discussed various violations of Title IX amendments and established the precedence for its applicability. In *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984), Grove City College argued that the university reserved the right to refuse federal financial assistance, but students, independently, received federal financial assistance; therefore, the institution would not be able to comply with Title IX requirements. However, the Supreme Court ruled (7-2) that the college receives federal financial assistance indirectly via the students, but because the assistance is limited to financial aid programs, Title IX only applied in part (Grove City College, 1984). The court ruled that Title IX protections do not extend and apply to athletic programs because such programming does not receive federal financial assistance (Grove City College, 1984).

In 1988, the *Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987* reversed the ruling of *Grove City College v. Bell* (1984), finding that Title IX protections applied to athletic programs because Section 901(a) of Title IX prohibits sexual discrimination in any education program or activity. Later, in *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools* (1992), the U.S. Supreme Court unanimously voted that students were protected against sexual harassment by teachers under Title IX and monetary damages were available to the victims in Title IX violation cases

(Franklin, 1992). In *Gebser v. Lago Vista Independent School District* (1998), the Supreme Court in a 5-4 decision clarified the applicability of *Franklin*, stating that the school must be informed of the issue in order to take corrective action and must have deliberately acted in an indifferent manner (Gebser, 1998). Separately, in *Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education* (1999), the Supreme Court ruled (5-4) that student-on-student sexual harassment was also prohibited under Title IX and institutions are liable for violations of Title IX when the school is notified of the incident and acts in a deliberately indifferent manner (Davis, 1999). According to this interpretation, as Cantalupo (2014) states, deliberate indifference refers to having actual knowledge of the incident, but acting in an inappropriate manner, which violates Title IX.

Courts have found universities to have acted in a "deliberate indifferent manner" when the institution: (i) takes no action at all; (ii) investigates the allegation in a biased manner; (iii) informs the victim to not tell anyone else about the victimization, including the police or parents; (iv) pressures or requires the victim to confront the perpetrator prior to filing a formal complaint; (v) investigates an incident, but significantly disrupts the victim's education and schedule, but not the perpetrator's (e.g., school schedule changes, moving residences, etc.); (vi) investigates in a very slow manner; (vii) interviews the perpetrator, who denies the claim, and the school fails to continue the investigation and/or makes a determination of which version is more credible, and does not protect the victim against retaliation; and (viii) determines that the incident occurred, but does not discipline the aggressor and/or disciplines the victim (Cantalupo, 2014). Furthermore, some courts have found that a teacher knowing about an incident is equivalent to the institution knowing about sexual misconduct (Cantalupo, 2014). According to court precedence, to be compliant with Title IX, a school must promptly address complaints, and take

corrective actions against the perpetrator and/or the systematic issues related to the incident (OCR, 2015b).

Title IX guidance.

In addition to court precedence and rulings, OCR has published guidance to facilitate the proper application of Title IX protections. While OCR's guidance focuses on the entire application of Title IX, this section will focus on the guidance related to sexual misconduct.

In 2011, OCR released a guidance document titled *Know Your Rights: Title IX Requires Your School to Address Sexual Violence*, which provides students with additional information regarding their Title IX protections. OCR reminded students that schools are required to provide a prompt and effective response against sexual violence, provide interim measures and remedies as needed, inform students of confidential support services that are available to victims, and ensure all sexual violence investigations are conducted in an impartial, adequate, and reliable manner (OCR, 2011b). Students have the right to report sexual violence to the university (OCR, 2011). If the student decides to report an incident, the school is responsible for conducting a timely, impartial investigation, and must resolve the complaint (OCR, 2011a; OCR, 2011b). A student victim also reserves the right to choose to report the victimization to law enforcement or campus authorities; however, if a student elects to report to law enforcement or both local law enforcement and campus authorities, the university is still responsible for responding in a prompt manner, regardless of any ongoing criminal investigations (Cantalupo, 2014; OCR, 2011b).

Universities must create, enforce, and publish sexual discrimination and sexual violence procedures to address complaints and provide students with a solution (OCR, 2011b). Support services, such as counseling, housing assistance, and health services, for sexual violence victims should be available and well-advertised for students (OCR, 2011b). In addition, Title IX

protections are afforded to all students without prejudice (OCR, 2011b). Universities must provide temporary protections to the students, even prior to the completion of an investigation. Any form of retaliation, by the school, university staff, alleged assailant, or others, is strictly prohibited and is another form of a Title IX violation (OCR, 2011b). OCR emphasizes, "mediation is not appropriate in cases involving sexual assault," and that "both parties are allowed to hire their own attorneys, if they wish, and a university must establish… an appeal process, which is accessible to both the complainant and the alleged perpetrator" (OCR, 2011b, p. 1).

Another important aspect of the guidance provided by OCR is the clarification regarding confidential support services. Students should be made aware of who they can speak to in a confidential manner, "without the worry of triggering a school's investigation," (OCR, 2011b, p. 1) and universities "should clearly explain the reporting obligations of all school employees" (OCR, 2011b, p. 2). Furthermore, university staff should disclose sexual victimization to the university "individuals who are responsible for handling the school's response to sexual violence," such as the university's Title IX Coordinator (OCR, 2011b, p. 1). According to the Title IX manual (2015), each school must have at least one Title IX Coordinator and their contact information must be accessible to the entire university community (DOJ, 2015). A Title IX Coordinator is an individual responsible for ensuring school's compliance with Title IX requirements, such as developing procedures, implementing regulations, and monitoring investigations of Title IX complaints (DOJ, 2015).

Once an investigation is complete, if sexual violence is found, universities must take reasonable steps to address the incident and prevent similar incidents from reoccurring (OCR, 2011b). OCR (2011b) considers "reasonable steps" to include taking disciplinary action against

the aggressor, assisting the victim with academic support and counseling, and providing other services to the victim as interim measures. Remedies, such as trainings, can be provided to the larger university community (OCR, 2011b). At the conclusion of the investigation, the university must notify the involved parties of the outcome and any sanctions, if applicable (OCR, 2011b).

Notably, while incidents can occur off-campus, they can still impact the environment and culture on campus, even creating a hostile environment (Cantalupo, 2014; DOJ, 2001a). Universities should consider the type of offense that occurred, the duration and frequency of the issue, location of the incident, the victim-perpetrator relationship, and the number of individuals involved in the incident (OCR, 2001).

The U.S. Department of Education's OCR also published a *Dear Colleague Letter* (2011), which provided additional guidance and clarification regarding how universities can be compliant with Title IX requirements. The *Dear Colleague Letter* (2011a) emphasized that sexual violence violates Title IX because it fails to provide students with a discrimination-free learning environment (OCR, 2011a). The letter clarified that Title IX protections apply to students in all school and academic-related activities, regardless of the incident's location (OCR, 2011a). Therefore, even if an incident occurred off-campus, the victim is still entitled to Title IX protections through the university. The Title IX protections include prompt responses to complaints and respect of the victim's confidentiality, if requested (OCR, 2011a).

A major clarification addressed in this letter is the burden of proof that should be utilized for Title IX investigations. OCR (2011a) stated that universities must use preponderance of evidence (POE) as the set evidentiary standard to resolve complaints to be compliant with Title IX (OCR, 2011a). This evidentiary standard was selected because the Supreme Court applied it to other discrimination-related civil litigation, such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964,

which also prohibits sex-based discrimination (OCR, 2011a). POE, an evidentiary standard, is based on the evidence, there is a 51% chance that the incident occurred or did not occur, meaning more likely than not an incident occurred, or more likely an incident did not occur (OCR, 2011a). In addition, all involved parties must be notified of the investigation timeline, any outcome and sanctions, and the appeals process (OCR, 2011a).

The *Dear Colleague Letter* (2015) provided clarifications about the role of Title IX Coordinators. OCR (2015a) states that Title IX Coordinators should report directly to senior leadership at the university (e.g. the university's president) to provide independence and minimize any conflict-of-interest (OCR, 2015a). Furthermore, Title IX Coordinators must be full-time employees, which will allow them to perform all duties in a responsible and timely manner. Depending on the size of the institution, multiple coordinators may be necessary (OCR, 2015b). The coordinator is responsible for "monitoring outcomes, identifying and addressing any patterns, and assessing effects on the campus climate" (OCR, 2015b, p. 3). The coordinator must be visible to the university, such that all students and employees are provided with the coordinator's contact information and the school's procedures and other related materials (OCR, 2015a). Title IX Coordinators must be trained professionals who have comprehensive knowledge about the university, its policies, Title IX guidelines, laws, and other related regulations (OCR, 2015a).

Under the Trump administration, OCR published another *Dear Colleague Letter* on September 22, 2017. According to the new guidance, the Department of Education formally withdrew the guidance put forth in the 2011 *Dear Colleague Letter* (OCR, 2017). The new guidance stated that the previous guidance provided universities the power to "investigate, adjudicate, and resolve allegations of student-on-student misconduct…" by using a minimal

standard of proof (OCR, 2017, p. 2). The OCR also claimed that universities were not providing students with fundamental fairness in Title IX investigations because it, arguably, lacks proper due process (OCR, 2017). Consequently, the new guidelines have opened the door for universities to use the higher standard of proof, clear and convincing evidentiary standard, rather than the previously required, POE (OCR, 2017).

While OCR's 2017 guidance has changed and become, arguably, less firm on the standard of proof universities must apply to Title IX complaints, some universities are not revising their policies and procedures. Radford University and VCU have both publicly stated the institutions will not be changing their procedures based on the new federal guidelines (Mastrangelo, 2017). In addition, according to the *Roanoke Times*, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech) did not respond to the newspaper regarding their formal stance on the new guidance (Mastrangelo, 2017); however, their procedure has not been significantly revised (Virginia Tech Office for Equity and Accessibility, 2018). While federal guidance has increased the recommended burden of proof requirements at universities, numerous universities have remained firm on their stance against sexual violence, by using a less strict evidentiary standard to create a safer college community. Although the new guidance allows universities to use a stronger burden of proof, many institutions are not revising their procedures. In order to understand different stakeholders' perspective, the next section will briefly examine the various arguments regarding the most appropriate evidentiary standard for Title IX allegations.

The burden of proof and due process debate.

Major contentions with the various elements of OCR's guidance have focused around the burden of proof standard and the accused's due process rights. An examination of the burden of

proof standard related to mandatory reporting is important, as it directly impacts the number of disciplinary hearings and the amount of resources and supports necessary for universities and law enforcement. Under mandatory reporting policies, previous allegations that may have gone unreported will now be forwarded onto the university's Title IX Office and review committee. Consequently, the burden of proof that is applied to the university's investigation may prolong the process and/or require additional investigatory resources to comply with mandated reporting.

The POE standard was the initial evidentiary burden established for compliance with Title IX requirements under the 2011 *Dear Colleague Letter*; however, in the 2017 *Dear Colleague Letter*, OCR advocates the use of a higher standard, such as "clear-and-convincing" (OCR, 2017, p.1). While the alleged assailant must be provided with due process, Title IX also requires that due process must not interfere with or unnecessarily delay protection for the victim (Edwards, 2015). Supporters of the lower evidentiary standard argue that the use of POE is consistent with the standard utilized for other civil right law violations (Edwards, 2015).

There is a debate concerning this standard and its impact on due process. For example, once Harvard University adopted the lower evidentiary standard, 28 Harvard Law School faculty members petitioned, claiming that the standard excluded basic due process elements, such as the absence of opportunity to discover facts and defend oneself at an adversarial hearing (Edwards, 2015). Furthermore, the use of the Title IX Coordinator/Office as a "lodging of functions of investigation, prosecution, fact-finding, and appellate review" is not structurally impartial (Edwards, 2015, p. 129). Meaning, the Title IX Office, which is responsible for auditing compliance, also facilitates the review committee who investigates the claims, leads the disciplinary hearings, and declares a finding for the complaint. The placement of these duties and responsibilities in one office/organization makes the unit inherently extremely influential.

Consequently, this entity is not fully impartial, as it is responsible for ensuring compliance; therefore, some scholars argue that the Title IX Coordinator/Office may not be fully unbiased and impartial (Edwards, 2015).

The petition also argues that the standard results in the absence of adequate representation for the accused individuals who cannot afford it (Edwards, 2015). While proponents of the POE standard argue the disciplinary hearings at educational institutions are not criminal proceedings, scholars who oppose the use of the standard emphasize that the adjudicatory process may involve allegations of criminal behavior; therefore, to protect all parties' due process, legal representation should be made available to those who cannot afford it (Ingersoll, 2017). Rubenfeld (2017) found that while some universities allow attorneys to participate in adversarial hearings, others do not permit the use of attorneys. Scholars argue that when attorneys are allowed to be present at disciplinary hearings, students who cannot afford an attorney are at a disadvantage (Edwards, 2015). However, differing institutional practices also complicate the burden of proof debate, as an identical case may result in different outcomes (Mann, 2018). Furthermore, supporters state that this standard balances the interest of both the alleged assailant and the victim (Edwards, 2015). For example, while the victim's allegations are analyzed with a lower burden of proof, the accused has the benefit of a required unanimous vote from the review committee for findings and sanctions (Edwards, 2015).

In *Mathews v. Eldridge* (1975), the U.S. Supreme Court evaluated the use of the appropriate burden of proof to fulfill procedural due process. The U.S. Supreme Court found that due process is deprived when: (i) an individual's private interests are impacted by the action; (ii) there is an "erroneous deprivation of a student's private interest in continued education"; and (iii) the public's interest would be impacted by alternative procedures being required in a particulate

action (Edwards, 2015). For the first balance measure, the U.S. Supreme Court found that while the accused student's educational growth, reputation, and other relationships may be negatively impacted, these stakes are not considered as "fundamental as permanent civil commitment"; therefore, the "clear-and-convincing" standard does not apply for Title IX allegations (Edwards, 2015; Mann 2018). When examining the second balance measure, some scholars have argued that the POE standard is the appropriate one because the risk of error is equally distributed between the victim and alleged aggressor; hence, the associated risk is not directed towards one party (e.g., only the accused or only the alleged victim) (Edwards, 2015). Specifically, the standard may lead to two errors: (i) an innocent student's reputation and educational opportunities may be adversely impacted; and (ii) a victim's aggressor may be found innocent and the victim is forced to share the university with their perpetrator. In both negative outcomes, the risk of error is distributed equally between both parties under the POE standard. Villasenor (2015) examined false Title IX "convictions" by utilizing probabilistic modeling framework. The study found that if an allegation used the beyond a reasonable doubt standard, a "guilty" result would be found among a student who is not responsible 1% of the time; however, when utilizing the POE standard, a "guilty" result would be found for a student who is not responsible 19% of the time (Villasenor, 2015). While the U.S. Supreme Court's balance test finds that the risk of error is equally distributed, Villasenor (2015) finds that the risk is not equally distributed.

In the last balance measure used by the U.S. Supreme Court, the public interest is characterized by both substantive and administrative costs (Edwards, 2015). For the substantive costs, when utilizing a higher evidentiary standard, a higher number of aggressors will remain at the university, sending the message that the college does not take allegations seriously and does not sanction aggressors, thereby leading to a hostile and discriminatory learning environment.

For administrative costs, when using the "clear-and-convincing" evidence standard, universities may be forced and burdened with a process that is nearly impossible to implement with limited resources (Edwards, 2015). Supporters of the POE standard for Title IX allegations recommend that institutional review panels consist of one legal expert who thoroughly comprehends the standard and assists the panel to avoid making an erroneous finding (Edwards, 2015).

Other legal academics have taken issue with a different manner. That is, there is concern that administrators who have little knowledge about the laws related to sexual misconduct, the nature of sex crimes, and sexual misconduct on campuses are presiding over disciplinary hearings; therefore, universities run the risk of not being fair and impartial at various stages of the process (e.g., procedure creation and implementation, fact finding, and/or adversarial hearing) (Damron-Litchford, 2015; Pappas, 2015). For example, both accused students who are labeled as "responsible" by their universities and alleged victims who feel as if their university did not protect them in a fair manner are suing educational institutions. The argument advanced by those concerned about this issue is that lawsuits against universities can be minimized if universities used a higher burden of proof, because the current "process is inherently unreliable and error-prone" (Edwards, 2015, p.130). Numerous lawsuits attest to the conflict between individual's due process and violations of Title IX requirements, resulting in diverse court findings (Johnson & Taylor, 2017). For example, at James Madison University, an accused student was found "not guilty"/ "not responsible" of violating the university's misconduct policy involving an incident of a sex crime where the victim was intoxicated and could not consent; however, the victim appealed, presented new evidence, and the appeal's review board overturned the panel's original decision (Johnson & Taylor, 2017). The accused student sued the university because the accused student was not allowed to review and respond to the new evidence prior to

the appeal's finding (Johnson & Taylor, 2017). In cases against Georgia Institute of Technology and Montana University, the institutions provided six-figure settlements to the accused students to resolve the matter with as little recognition as possible (Johnson & Taylor, 2017).

Relatedly, when staff are well-trained and follow the appropriate protocol, changes in the sanctions at the end of the appeals process should be limited (Mencarini, 2017). At Michigan State University, the Vice President of Student Affairs and Services reviews disciplinary hearing appeals and issues the final decision for the case (Mencarini, 2017). The single reviewer has changed the issued sanctions in 50% of the appeals cases (15 out of 30 cases) between January 2012 and December 2016 (Mencarini, 2017). In three cases, the Vice President increased the sanction; however, in the remaining 12 cases, the Vice President decreased the sanctions recommended by the review committee and issued by the university (Mencarini, 2017). Scholars argue that an appeal process is necessary in order to make certain that the review committee and the university have not missed newly found facts or made a mistake. However, scholars also argue that high rates of changing sanctions "is problematic" when the university has a "proper protocol for the procedures" and has well-trained staff (Mencarini, 2017, p.1). Furthermore, scholars argue that the appeals process must also ensure unbiased practices for all parties, as should the entire process (Mencarini, 2017).

In *Doe v. Brandeis University* (2016), the accused student was found guilty without a hearing process, as required by the university's policy. In addition, the accused student did not have access to the evidence/facts against himself and was found responsible by the university (Johnson & Taylor, 2017). The student who was found "guilty" sued the university. Judge Saylor stated:

> "I don't understand how a university…could possibly think that that was a fair procedure to not allow the accused to see the accusation…And it is not enough simply to say that such changes are appropriate because victims of sexual assault have not always achieved justice in the past. Whether someone is a 'victim' is a conclusion to be reached at the end of a fair process, not an assumption to be made at the beginning" (Johnson & Taylor, 2017, p. 87).

While the court rulings vary based on the state and judge, universities struggle to maintain the balance. Furthermore, many of these lawsuits arose from unfair practices that contradicted the university's policy, leading to a gross violation of individual student's due process. The evidentiary standard was not the cause of the lawsuits, but rather stemmed from the prejudicial practices.

Edwards (2015) emphasizes the importance of the using appropriate legal terms. For Title IX investigations, the accused is found either "responsible" or "not responsible," which holds a much lower weight than a guilty adjudication in criminal court. A finding of "responsible" indicates punishment, such as mandatory counseling, disciplinary probation, suspension, or other sanctions specific to the university setting; in contrast, criminal findings can hold sanctions of fines, jail or prison time, requirements for the sex offender registry, or other legal penalties.

Supporters of a higher burden of proof in disciplinary review proceedings at the institutional level allege that universities receive incentives for wrongfully finding an accused student "guilty" of sexual misconduct. Finding a student "not guilty" of the offense holds the risk of the OCR imposing authority over the university and revoking federal funding (Edwards, 2015). However, Edwards (2015) found that the OCR has not yet terminated federal funding for universities. In addition, scholars argue removal of federal funding is not contingent upon a

quota of students found responsible for sexual misconduct, but rather compliance of the regulation; consequently, universities are not incentivized by falsely finding innocent students responsible for sexual misconduct (Edwards, 2015). In *Goss v. Lopez* (1975), the Court found that "to impose…trial-type procedures might well overwhelm administration facilities in many places, and by diverting resources, cost more than it would save in educational effectiveness."

The table below summarizes the common reasons scholars support the use of the POE standard and some of the reasons why others support the use of a higher evidentiary standard for Title IX cases.

Table I: Advantages and Disadvantages of the POE Standard

Support for the POE Standard	Reasons Against the POE Standard
▪ Sexual misconduct on college campuses is sex-based discrimination and should be treated similarly to other civil litigation; ▪ The U.S. Supreme Court uses this standard in other discrimination related civil litigation; ▪ Adversarial hearings are not the same as criminal court; ▪ "Prompt and equitable" fact-finding and hearings procedures; ▪ Utilizes the institution's resources in an effective manner, without undue burden; and ▪ The standard provides a balanced and unbiased protection to both the victim and alleged aggressor throughout the process.	▪ Sexual misconduct is serious criminal conduct and should be a treated as such by being held to a higher evidentiary standard; ▪ Individuals' various due process rights are violated (e.g., access to a lawyer if you cannot afford one, having an attorney present, the right to cross-examine a witness, etc.); ▪ Increased legal repercussions for universities; ▪ More room for erroneous findings; ▪ The sanctions can result in life-altering consequences (e.g., suspensions, expulsions, failing courses, etc.); and ▪ Unwarranted, negative media attention that may be caused due to baseless accusations.

In addition to the OCR's guidance, a related, but distinct piece of federal legislation that is designed to respond to campus crime is the Clery Act, which is explored next.

The Clery Act and Title IX.

The Clery Act is a separate piece of legislation that is commonly associated with Title IX. The act was created and enacted in honor of a victim of a high-profile campus sexual assault and murder. In April 1986, college freshmen Jeanne Clery was raped and murdered in her dormitory at Lehigh University. The assailant, a fellow student at Lehigh University, entered her unlocked residence hall on campus (Peterson, 2011). Jeanne's assailant was found guilty of multiple offenses and her parents began to advocate for stronger and better protections for students (Peterson, 2011).

During their daughter's murder investigation, the Clerys became aware of several undisclosed violent crimes that occurred at the university during the three-year period prior to their daughter's murder (Peterson, 2011). The Clerys lobbied for the Clery Act, which required, in part, campus crime information to be disclosed to current students and staff as well as prospective students and staff, and mandated additional provisions to increase institutional accountability. The Clery Act was enacted in 1990 and, as a result, all colleges and universities that participate in federal student aid programs must disclose crime information and security policies and procedures on an annual basis (Cantalupo, 2014; Clery Act, 2016; Wies, 2015).

Specifically, the Clery Act required educational institutions to gather and report information related to seven different types of offenses: homicide, robbery, aggravated assault, sex offenses, arson, burglary, and theft of a motor vehicle (Mancini, 2015). Furthermore, educational institutions must also gather and report incidents involving drug violations, liquor law violations, and illegal weapon possessions (Mancini, 2015).

The Clery Act has been revised since its initial enactment. A major revision and expansion of the Clery Act, the SaVE Act occurred in 2013. The SaVE Act focused on

strengthening federal regulations to better address sexual violence and transparency (Clery Act, 2016; Mancini et al., 2017). This expansion included additional offenses that must be reported under the Clery Act, such as suspected hate crimes. The suspected hate crime offenses include incidents that occurred against an individual due to their perceived gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion, and/or disability (Mancini, 2015).

The Annual Security Report (ASR) must include three years of crime statistics and the college or university's security policies and procedures (Cantalupo, 2014; Clery Act, 2016; Wies, 2015). Institutions must ensure that the ASR is publicly available by October 1st of every academic year. Schools that have on-campus housing must also publish an annual fire safety report, which publicly discloses the number of fires that have occurred in student housing and "must maintain a log open to public inspection detailing fire reports" (Mancini, 2015, p. 20). In addition, the Clery Act requires colleges and universities that have their own police departments to maintain a daily police log. This log must be available to the public and requires the police department to track information such as date of the log, date of the incident, a description of the incident, and dispositions (Mancini, 2015). In addition to gathering and disclosing crime information on an annual basis, the Clery Act mandates that educational institutions must implement emergency response policies, including a notification system of potential threats and incidents to provide alerts to students, faculty, staff, and even members of the public (Cantalupo; 2014; Mancini, 2015). With the addition of the SaVE Act, the ASR must have a statement describing the university's available prevention programs and any policies and procedures related to reporting victimization (Wies, 2015).

The Clery Act mandates that universities must provide "prevention education related to domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking" (Wies, 2015, p. 279).

Prevention education must be offered to all incoming students and new university employees (Wies, 2015). Similar to the Title IX guidance, the Clery Act also provides student victims the right to have others, such as a representative, counsel, or family member, present during any disciplinary hearings (Shapiro, 2014). Furthermore, the Clery Act informs students of their right to report the incident to law enforcement, have accessible support services, and obtain interim and/or post-investigation accommodations (Shapiro, 2014).

Title IX and the Clery Act are important legislation that address sexual violence on college campuses. The various *Dear Colleague Letters* released by the OCR also provide clarifications to the proper application of Title IX and its requirements, but it is also important to understand how some states have gone further to protect students and prevent future victimization on campuses, with a specific emphasis on increasing reporting, such as mandatory reporting.

Mandatory Reporting

With the purpose to contextualize mandatory reporting at universities, first it is important to discuss the historical use of mandatory reporters nationally. This section will examine the background on mandatory reporting policies, specific laws, and consequences. The discussion will close by explaining the connection between mandatory reporting and Title IX on college campuses.

Background on mandatory reporting.

In 1974, the U.S. federal government passed the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act. This legislation required states to establish and implement mandatory reporting provisions for suspected abuse and neglect against children. States that did not create such provisions could lose federal funding for other criminal justice programs (Mancini et al., 2016). All 50 states, and

the District of Columbia, have implemented some form of mandatory reporting requirements for the maltreatment of children (Ainsworth, 2002; Mancini et al., 2016). While the original child abuse mandatory reporting laws were limited to medical professionals, mandated reporting requirements were later expanded to include others (Mathews, 2015). It is important to note the requirements laid out by each state varies in multiple domains, such as who is considered a mandated reporter, the type and extent of the abuse, neglect, or harm that must be reported, the duties of the reporter, and the type of detailed information needed for the report (Mathews, 2015). For example, while a majority of states consider teachers and doctors to be mandatory reporters, 36% of states also consider members of the general public to be mandatory reporters as well (Mancini et al., 2016; National Conference of State Legislature, 2014).

Individuals identified as mandatory reporters are generally required to report any suspicion of or knowledge of physical abuse, sexual abuse, or neglect of a child (Mancini et al., 2016). While the timeframe of when a mandatory reporter must disclose the abuse to law enforcement varies, in many cases, the timeframe is limited to reporting with 24 hours of learning about the potential abuse (Mancini et al., 2016). In many states, mandatory reporters tend to be professionals who may encounter children on a frequent basis, such as doctors, teachers, school staff, and social workers (Crenshaw, Crenshaw, & Lichtenberg, 1995). Furthermore, mandated reporters who fail to report their suspicions or knowledge of abuse can face legal penalties, criminal and/or civil, depending on the state's laws (Mancini et al., 2016). Due to the sensitive nature of mandatory reporting, reporters are protected from being sued by the alleged perpetrator in cases where the abuse was unfounded or unsubstantiated (Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2012). Anderson and Mangels (2006) found that it was rare for noncompliant reporters to be prosecuted or receive another sanctions for failing to report

(Mancini et al., 2016). Due to such systematic failures, critics of mandated reporting argue that these statutes are ineffective (Mancini et al., 2016).

While the focus of mandatory reporting legislation initially targeted children, it now covers other vulnerable populations, such as elders, prisoners, and intimate partner violence victims (Mancini et al., 2016; Prison Rape Elimination Act, 2003). Most recently, mandatory reporting reforms have started to include sexual violence victims attending post-secondary institutions (Bidwell, 2015). While most college students are legal adults, they are considered a vulnerable population when considering sexual violence. Put differently, scholars have explained that the emergence of mandatory reporting policies are an attempt to address concerns about the high rates of sexual violence victimization among college-aged adults, the vulnerability of students being away from home, and the severe underreporting of victimization (Bidwell, 2015; Fusilier & Penrod, 2015; Rennison, Kaukinen, & Meade, 2017; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Research has examined the application of mandatory reporting requirements against child abuse and elder abuse; however, the extension of mandated reporting to college campuses is a fairly recent and understudied development (Mancini et al., 2016).

The use of mandatory reporting for sexual violence victims in higher education is not a surprise due to the mixture of underreporting, high prevalence rates, and an increase in sensationalized and public cases calling for university accountability (Mancini et al., 2016). Many federally funded studies have found that approximately 15% to 20% of college students are victims of sexual violence sometime during their college experience (Cantor et al., 2015; Fisher et al., 2000; Krebs et al., 2014). Mancini (2014) also reports that less than 33% of victims disclose rape or sexual assault to law enforcement and this rate is even lower for college students. Sinozich and Langton (2014) found that approximately 80% of female college student

victims did not report the sexual assault or rape to law enforcement, which is a 13% higher non-reporting rate than for nonstudent females. In addition, sexual violence is the most underreported violent offense (Brubaker & Mancini, 2017; Cantor et al., 2015; Sinozich & Langton, 2014).

Recent media coverage has highlighted not only the prevalence of campus sexual assault, but also the extent of university accountability in ensuring safe campuses. Detailed media accounts illustrating the sexual abuse committed by Jerry Sandusky and allegations of a cover-up at Pennsylvania State University, the gang rape of a female athlete at Baylor University, and a *Rolling Stone* article about an alleged sexual assault committed by a fraternity at the University of Virginia are just a few examples of highly publicized cases (Mancini et al., 2016). Although this latter coverage of the *Rolling Stone* account was discredited, the emphasis on a lack of university accountability and appropriate responses to sexual violence complaints continued to lead the discussion about victimization of students and increased accountability at the University of Virginia (Mancini et al., 2016).

While the intent of using mandated reporting is to increase the accountability of colleges and universities, the concept of mandatory reporting has drawn criticism. Some argue that the aim of mandatory reporting is to bring assailants to justice and it does not focus on providing victims with the support and services they may need (Ainsworth, 2002), whereas others view mandatory reporting as a mechanism to provide better well-rounded assistance to victims (Mancini et al., 2016). Others argue that mandated reporting systems are ineffective, overburdened with referrals, and costly in time and resources (Ainsworth, 2002), and supporters of mandatory reporting argue that its implementation assists in increasing reporting rates (Mancini et al., 2016). For example, because mandatory reporters are required to disclose knowledge of sexual victimization to the Title IX Coordinator or local law enforcement,

universities will not be able to ignore the complaints (Bidwell, 2015; Mancini et al., 2016; Mathews, 2015).

The increase in reporting and full investigations would lead to higher sense of safety on campuses because perpetrators would be identified and potentially arrested or receive academic, criminal, and/or civil sanctions that could deter others from offending (Mancini et al., 2016). However, critics argue that due to the high number of unsubstantiated allegations and cases, abuse and victimization is less affective and desensitizes people to the issue (Ainsworth, 2002). A system overburdened with notifications is also less able to focus on high-risk cases, such as those that represent an ongoing or immediate threat to other students (Ainsworth, 2002).

On the other hand, supporters claim that more victims would have access to services by reporting; however, critics argue that the victim is potentially being re-traumatized because his or her autonomy and control over the situation is removed (Bidwell, 2015; Deamicis, 2013; Mancini et al., 2016; Wilson, 2014). For example, if a student victim truly did not want to report the incident to law enforcement, but disclosed victimization to a trusted professor or mentor, who is considered a mandated reporter, the staff member would be forced to initiate a complaint against the victim's will, hence, potentially creating another traumatic experience (Mancini et al., 2016). On the contrary, some commentaries argue that addressing and preventing future offending outweighs the invasion of the victim's autonomy and privacy (Richards, 2015).

Notably, the argument that victims would have access to government services that they may not have had access to without the disclosure is based on the assumption that with the implementation of mandated reporting, students will disclose victimization to faculty and staff, whom will then report to the proper authorities (Mancini et al., 2016). Critics argue that with mandated reporting enacted, students may opt to not report to university staff altogether

(Mancini et al., 2016). Furthermore, the financial cost of mandated reporting and related cases are not calculable; therefore, the true cost-benefit analysis of compelled disclosure remains unknown (Ainsworth, 2002).

Another concern is that reports initiated by mandatory reporters only account for 50% to 60% of all reports (Mathews, 2015); therefore, many sources who are not considered mandated reporters inform the proper authorities of the victimization. Flaherty (2015) found that a large proportion (up to 50%) of doctors, social workers, teachers, principals, psychologists, and other childcare providers fail to report their suspicions of abuse and/or neglect. Professionals who are mandated reporters often fail to report because they are not certain that abuse or neglect definitely occurred (Flaherty, 2015). Crenshaw et al. (1995) found that many educators do not report their suspicions for various reasons. Educators fail to comply with mandatory reporting requirements because they do not comprehend the expectations for compliance, they believe someone else will report (a type of bystander effect), or some failed to recognize the signs (red flags) of abuse and neglect. In one study, less than 10% of participants felt confident in their ability to recognize signs of abuse and neglect (Crenshaw et al., 1995).

Mandatory reporting and Title IX.

While there is a debate about the application of mandated reporters, some states have moved towards the extension and execution of this practice on college campuses. The adoption, implementation, and expectations of mandatory reporters for sexual violence at universities vary across different states, jurisdictions, and even universities. In 2013, California became the first state to introduce a mandatory reporting bill, AB1433, which required universities to report violent crimes to law enforcement immediately, without any identifiable information about the victim (Mancini et al., 2016; National Association of Student Personnel Administrators

(NASPA), 2015). Under this bill, the universities can release the victim's identifiable information to the authorities only after they have received the victim's consent (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015). The bill passed and became a law in September 2014 (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015). However, if a victim decides to withhold his or her identifiable information, then the victim is only eligible to receive support services offered by the university (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015).

In 2014, Virginia SB712 proposed that employees of public universities must report sexual violence allegations to the police within 24 hours of learning about the incidents; the bill was revised slightly prior to becoming a law (Mancini et al., 2016). Based on the enacted legislation in Virginia, mandatory reporters at public colleges and universities must inform the university's Title IX Coordinator about the allegations (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015). The Title IX Coordinator is responsible for reviewing the allegation with a formal review committee within 72 hours of being notified (NASPA, 2015). The review committee must consist of the university's Title IX Coordinator, a representative from student affairs, and a law enforcement representative (NASPA, 2015). The review committee also decides if the information will be reported to the police (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015). Additionally, the review committee decides if the victim's identifiable information will be shared with law enforcement (Mancini et al., 2016; NASPA, 2015). If the review committee decides that the incident must be disclosed to local law enforcement, the victim must be notified of the committee's decision (NASPA, 2015). Under this statute, which went into effect in 2015, mandated reporters who fail to inform the universities' Title IX Coordinator about an incident can face a misdemeanor charge for non-compliance (Mancini et al., 2017).

In 2015, Minnesota enacted a law in which public and private institutions that receive state financial aid must allow sexual assault victims the option to disclose the victimization to law enforcement, and the option to preserve their privacy and the description of the victimization (NASPA, 2015). In 2015, New York also passed a law that addresses campus sexual assault. In Assembly Bill 8244, New York requires all universities to develop and publish a Students' Bill of Rights, which includes a statement about the students' right to report victimization to campus security/law enforcement, or local or state police (NASPA, 2015).

In addition, all universities are responsible for providing victims with protections and necessary accommodations (NASPA, 2015). Other states, such as New Jersey and Rhode Island, have introduced bills to address mandatory reporting in sexual violence cases on college campuses; however, they have been referred for further consideration. For example, Rhode Island Bill H5034 would require immediate disclosure of a sexual assault allegation to a local law enforcement agency (Mancini et al., 2016). While this bill was referred to the House Judiciary Committee in January 2015, it later died in the committee. Notably, all states have enacted at least one law to address sexual violence on college campuses; however, all of these statutes are not specifically related to the use of compelled disclosure at colleges and universities (Mancini et al., 2017).

Mandatory reporting laws, as related to Title IX, apply to various employee positions. Mandated reporters or responsible employees "(1) have authority to take action to redress harassment, (2) have the duty to officially report the harassment to the school's Title IX Coordinator, and (3) is a person whom a student could reasonably believe has this authority" (Pryal, 2016, p. 7; Deamicis, 2013). Responsible employees can include faculty, staff, teaching assistants, residential housing assistants, advisors, athletic coaches, and campus security (OCR,

2014; Veidlinger, 2016). While the application of responsible employees varies, in most cases, medical staff and counselors are excluded from this designation (Deamicis, 2013). Each university must notify all employees of who is considered a responsible employee and their related duties (OCR, 2014). Positions that are excluded from the responsible employee designation are confidential employees. Confidential employees should not disclose sexual victimization information to the university's Title IX Coordinator without the victim's permission (OCR, 2014). Confidential employees can include advocacy and counseling staff, medical and sexual assault service providers, and mental health support staff (OCR, 2014). There are instances where confidential employees are required to disclose the victimization. For example, if the victim is dangerous to someone or him- or herself, the confidential employee can disclose to the appropriate authorities (OCR, 2014).

While states that have implemented the use of compelled disclosure on college campuses, concerns of those classified as responsible employees exist. The concept of mandatory reporting serves the purpose of protecting the victims, whom are vulnerable, and consequently making the campus a safe place for everyone (Mancini et al., 2016); however, some responsible employees fear that their reporting requirements may hinder their relationship and rapport with their students (Wilson, 2014). Some responsible employees are astonished that they are required to disclose incidents to the proper authorities, even if it is against the victim's wishes, because it can lead to mistrust between the mandated reporter and the student (Deamicis, 2013). Furthermore, some also worry that due to responsible employees' reporting obligations, students will not confide in staff and mentors they trust; thus, leading a decrease in the number of disclosures and reports (Mancini et al., 2016).

It is notable that during the 2016-2017 school year at VCU, in Richmond, Virginia, the reports of rape have nearly doubled at their Monroe Park Campus (Mattingly, 2017). According to the university's ASR, during that academic year, 15 rapes were reported, and two of those incidents occurred at a campus residential facility (Mattingly, 2017). The university expected an increase in the number of sexual violence reports received due to the emphasis on student and staff trainings on how to report such incidents (Mattingly, 2017). However, between the two VCU campuses, only nine rapes were reported during the 2017-2018 academic year (Mattingly, 2018). Eight of the incidents occurred at a campus residential facility (Mattingly, 2018). In addition, between five major four-year universities in the Richmond region, the number of reported allegations have decreased by approximately 20% (Mattingly, 2018). Furthermore, some are concerned that responsible employees will mishandle sensitive information, knowingly or mistakenly, but it is vital that responsible employees receive appropriate training in order for them to fully understand the duties of being a mandated reporter, know how to advise the victims, properly relay the information gained from the disclosure to the Title IX Coordinator, and be more confident and comfortable with the requirements (Pryal, 2016).

It is noteworthy that while responsible employees play a critical role in the success and effectiveness of compelled disclosure as a strategy to address and prevent sexual victimization on college campuses; however, very little research addresses their perceptions. A qualitative study found that the majority of participants supported mandatory reporting, some had mixed feelings, and a very small number of participants outright opposed the practice on college campuses (Rosenthal, 2017). Branch, Hayes-Smith, and Richards (2011) sought to examine if students were disclosing sexual victimization to their professors, and, if so, what type of incidents were being reported. Specifically, the researchers were interested in learning about how

incidents are being disclosed, how the disclosures are impacting the professors, and what resources professors need to address the disclosure and issue with care.

Branch et al. (2011) interviewed professors and found that 93% of participants experienced a student disclosure of a sexual violence incident during their teaching profession. Majority of disclosures (77%) were from current students, in which 59% were sexual assaults and 41% were intimate partner violence incidents (Branch et al., 2011). Furthermore, almost all of the disclosures came from female students and 31% believed that the disclosure happened when the victim was experiencing crisis (Branch et al., 2011). In a majority of the incidents, the victim initiated the contact that led to the disclosure (Branch et al., 2011). In approximately one third of the cases, the victim approached the professor after class, and another one third of disclosures occurred during the professor's office hours (Branch et al., 2011). Approximately 16% of disclosures occurred in an assignment or during a discussion or discussion board for the course (Branch et al., 2011). In addition, 87% of professors reported feeling impacted by the disclosure (Branch et al., 2011). Specifically, 23% stated that it was vital for the classroom to be a safe environment and 20% of respondents stated they reached out to the student due to noticeable distress or falling behind in course work (Branch et al., 2011). Furthermore, 17% stated they provided all students with resources in the course syllabus due to previous disclosures, while 10% exclaimed that they told their "students that the classroom was not a safe environment for disclosure" (Branch et al., 2011, p. 65).

Participants provided recommendations for other professors who may experience student disclosures. Professors recommended that their peers should: (i) familiarize themselves with resources available to the students; (ii) listen attentively to the disclosure; (iii) be able to provide student victims with easy and accessible resources; (iv) receive training to learn how to properly

respond during and after a disclosure; and (v) allow themselves to have a "debriefing" or "self-care" moment in order to avoid personal distress and burn out after experiencing a student disclosure (Branch et al., 2011).

In addition to the responsible employees' concerns, understanding the public's concerns is also important, as their opinions also shape the individuals who are in political offices and influence the statutes that are passed and implemented.

Societal perceptions of mandatory reporting on college campuses.

Little research has examined the public's perception of the methodology used by universities to address sexual violence on college campuses. It is argued that the public's perception is very important to how this issue is addressed, considering taxpayers' money is utilized to fund higher education at public state universities, making the public a stakeholder (Mancini et al., 2017). In one of the only examinations of Title IX and public perceptions, 90% of Virginia residents supported mandatory reporting laws, as related to Title IX; however, this sample did not include students (VCU, 2015). A study conducted by Mancini et al. (2017) examined the data collected from a poll of Virginia residents and found that 64% of Virginians supported the notion that universities and their administrators can assist to reduce sexual victimization significantly. Specifically, respondents with a higher level of education had a positive relationship with perceptions of campus policies being able to prevent sexual violence (Mancini et al., 2017). In turn, this finding indicates that those with a higher educational level were more likely to believe that campus policies could prevent and reduce sexual victimization. In addition, approximately one third of Virginians stated that regardless of university actions, sexual assaults would continue to occur (Mancini et al., 2017). This study also found that 93% of Virginia respondents believe that colleges and universities "should be required to report all

allegations of sexual assault to law enforcement rather than implement and follow their own internal procedures" (Mancini et al., 2017, p. 11).

Regardless of demographic characteristics, such as race, age, sex, political ideology, and educational level, the majority of participants in all demographic groups supported the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses (Mancini et al., 2017). Specifically, 91% of respondents under the age of 53 supported mandatory reporting, and 96% of those who believed college campuses are not safe also supported mandatory reporting (Mancini et al., 2017). The researchers found that individuals who viewed college campuses to be safe were 44% less likely to support the idea that universities can successfully reduce sexual violence on campuses (Mancini et al., 2017). Furthermore, those that identified as a Democrat were also more likely to support the notion that campus policies could assist in sexual violence prevention (Mancini et al., 2017). In summary, this study found that older individuals who view college campuses to be unsafe, and Virginia residents who believed university policies could reduce and prevent sexual violence on campus, were more likely to support compelled disclosure (Mancini et al., 2017). However, some still fear that if students do not report victimization to trusted faculty and staff due to their reporting requirements, their access to victim services will also be limited (Mancini et al., 2016).

The views of staff and the public have been researched in an exploratory manner; however, those that are most affected by mandatory reporting policies, students, have received significantly less empirical attention.

Victims' and students' perceptions of mandatory reporting.

Many studies have examined victims' perceptions of mandatory reporting for other offenses, such as intimate partner violence victims in states that have a mandatory reporting

requirement. When intimate partner violence victims were asked about the use of mandatory interventions, majority of the victims supported its use (Smith, 2000). In all of these cases, the victims believe interventions would be more beneficial to others, compared to their perception of personal benefit (Smith, 2000). The researcher recommends additional examination of this finding to understand the victims' reasoning better (Smith, 2000). Most female victims reported that they would not have prevented the mandated reporter from disclosing the incident, as required (Antle, Barbee, Yankeelov, & Bledsoe, 2010). However, 29% of victims stated they would like to have the option to stop the disclosure to the proper authorities (Antle et al., 2010). Various other studies have also found that female intimate partner violence victims prefer to have control over the decision to disclose (Sullivan & Hagan, 2005). Evidence suggests that female abuse victims, compared to non-victim females, are more likely to disapprove of mandatory reporting (Gielen, O'Campo, Campbell, Schollenberger, Woods, Jones, Dienemann, Kub, & Wynne, 2000).

Furthermore, a very low percentage (nearly eight percent) of victims reported to believe that mandatory reporting practices would not be beneficial to others (Smith, 2000). In addition, more than half of the victims stated they would report future abuse if mandatory interventions were in place, whereas 20% of victims stated they would be less likely to seek medical treatment if abused in the future and if compelled disclosure was enacted for medical staff (Smith, 2000). Another 15% conveyed they were less likely to report the abuse at all (Smith, 2000). Similarly, Gielen et al. (2000) found that two thirds of participants are less likely to speak openly to healthcare providers. A majority of the victims reported having a positive experience with the support service providers post-disclosure and believed that the disclosure led to services the victim may not have had access to otherwise (Antle et al., 2010). On the contrary, female victims

were more likely to be dissatisfied with their interactions with the criminal justice system's key players, such as the responding police officers, the assigned prosecutors, and the court's judges; therefore, these victims were disengaged and less cooperative with the system, even if the abuse continued (Sullivan & Hagan, 2005).

While those who received support services had a positive experience, approximately 20% of victims claimed they were not ready for assistance and feared authorities would not believe them (Antle et al., 2010). Female victims were more likely to be afraid of retaliation or fear an increase in risk if the assailant found out they disclosed the abuse to another individual (Sullivan & Hagen, 2005).

These studies focused on intimate partner violence victims and included some college students in their sample; however, when examining students' perceptions of sexual violence and mandatory reporting on college campuses, few studies exist. An exploratory study aimed to examine if students supported or opposed compelled disclosure, their likelihood to report if mandatory reporting was implemented at their university, students' perceptions of professors' compliance with the requirements, and how compelled disclosure would impact different types of outcomes (Mancini et al., 2016). The study found over 65% of participants either supported or strongly supported mandatory reporting laws; whereas, approximately 19% neither supported nor opposed, 11% opposed, and four percent strongly opposed mandatory reporting laws, as related to sexual victimization on college campuses (Mancini et al., 2016). In addition, over 56% of students reported that under mandatory reporting laws, they were more likely or much more likely to report their victimization (Mancini et al., 2016). Less than 10% of students claimed that they would be less likely and six percent reported being very less likely to report victimization (Mancini et al., 2016). A startling 29% of students claimed that mandatory reporting laws would

have no impact on their decision to report victimization (Mancini et al., 2016). Almost 55% of students claimed their faculty would likely comply with the mandatory reporting requirements, and another 31% of participants believed that faculty were very likely to comply (Mancini et al., 2016). Less than 15% of students reported that faculty members were unlikely or very unlikely to comply (Mancini et al., 2016).

This study also found that at least 80% of the student participants believed that compelled disclosure would lead to more support services and assistance for the victim, increase the possibility of arrest for the assailant, hold universities more accountable, prevent the university from covering up such incidents, and increase the punishment for the offender (Mancini et al., 2016). While 56% of students believed they were more likely to report victimization with enacted mandatory reporting laws, 62% of participants feared that their peers would be less likely to report (Mancini et al., 2016). Over 75% of participants believed that mandatory reporting reduces the victim's control and autonomy, 65% believed mandatory reporting laws can potentially re-traumatize the victims, 60% believed that compelled disclosure could lead to a less efficient use of official resources, and 57% believed that victims would be less likely to seek assistance (Mancini et al., 2016).

An exploratory study interviewed student victims and found that 60% of participants supported mandatory reporting, and the remaining 40% had mixed feelings about the policy at their university (Rosenthal, 2017). All five victim participants believed that the responsible employee designation should be applied more broadly across the university in order to include all faculty and staff (Rosenthal, 2017). The majority of student victims believed that student employees should not be considered as responsible employees, and 60% of the victims stated that they are knowledgeable and informed about their school's policy (Rosenthal, 2017).

As this exploratory study seeks to contribute to prior efforts to understand how mandatory reporting laws might affect the college population, I focus on one university that has recently incorporated a mandatory reporting policy – VCU. This study is important because existing research does not examine the individuals who are directly impacted by this mandatory intervention – students. By understanding students' perceptions, the university administrators and Virginia policymakers will be able to evaluate if their existing law meets the intended goal. Furthermore, the results will provide insight on how to address regulatory and procedural changes at the state- and university-level in a more informed manner, while maximizing efficiency and effectiveness. Furthermore, the effects of sexual assault go beyond the involved individuals (Krakauer, 2016). Consequently, this study will also provide some foundation for future studies examining compelled disclosures related to Title IX and assist with providing some basic insight on how communities, such as university staff, law enforcement, other criminal justice actors can work together to address a complex issue (Krakauer, 2016). VCU's specific policies of mandated reporting will be reviewed next.

VCU's Title IX and mandatory reporting procedure.

VCU's Sexual Misconduct/Violence and Sex/Gender Discrimination is an administrative policy that was approved on August 5, 2015 and was most recently revised on March 3, 2016 by the Equity and Access Services under the Office of the President (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The university provides victims multiple methods to report incidents. Students can contact the local or university police or they can report to a responsible employee, the university's Title IX Coordinator or one of the multiple Deputy Title IX Coordinators in person, over the phone, or email (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Furthermore, students can use an incident reporting

form that can be found on the university's Title IX website (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The complainant, the victim, or an individual on behalf of the victim, can file a complaint within two years from when the most recent incident occurred (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). All complaints and reports must be preserved so the university can analyze patterns over time (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Furthermore, the university will not pursue disciplinary actions against individuals who report or those who cooperate during an investigation if the incident involved the "personal consumption of drugs or alcohol" and if the reports are made in good faith (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 7).

In order to be compliant with Title IX, the university offers temporary or permanent remedial and protective measures. Such measures may include, but are not limited to, no-contact directives, changes to one's current residential placement on campus, academic support and modifications, and schedule modifications (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The university must take reasonable steps to protect the victim.

VCU's policy also explains the designation of confidential employees with whom students can privately discuss incidents without it being reported to the Title IX Coordinator by default. Confidential employees can be medical and clinical service providers, including administrative staff, ordained clergy, and counselors. Confidential employees cannot disclose information related to the incident unless: "(1) the individual gives written consent for its disclosure; (2) there is a concern that the individual will likely cause serious physical harm to self or others; or (3) the information concerns conduct involving suspected abuse or neglect of a minor under the age of 18" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President,

2016, p. 11). On the other hand, responsible employees are all university employees who are not confidential employees (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Therefore, all responsible employees must report any incident and relevant information that is directly or indirectly received from a victim of sexual assault, sexual exploitation, and/or partner or relationship violence to the university's Title IX Coordinator (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Responsible employees who acquire information about an incident from a classroom assignment, discussion, a research study, or public awareness event do not need to be reported to the Title IX Coordinator (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). All responsible employees who fail to comply with this requirement can "face disciplinary consequences up to and including termination of employment with the university" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 12).

The university's policy defines the terms sexual assault, sexual exploitation, partner or relationship violence, sex or gender-based discrimination, retaliation, complicity, and affirmative consent (see Appendix A). The university uses affirmative consent as their standard when investigating incidents (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016).

Once the university's Title IX Coordinator is notified of a complaint, the coordinator will conduct an initial assessment where he or she examines the victim's safety and well-being, informs the victim of their rights (e.g., seeking medical treatment, informing or not informing law enforcement, support services and resources, seeking resolution, requesting confidentiality, the university's retaliation policy), and determines if the incident "triggers any Clery Act obligations, including entry of the report in the daily crime log and/or issuance of a timely

warning, and take steps to meet those obligations" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 21). The coordinator will then contact the individual the allegation is against (the respondent) and inform him or her of the available resources (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016).

After the initial assessment, the Review Committee will evaluate the report within 72 hours of receipt (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The Review Committee consists of the Title IX Coordinator and representatives from the VCU Police Department and Division of Student Affairs (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The Review Committee will conduct a threat assessment to evaluate the risk factors involved with the complaint. Risk factors can include but are not limited to the alleged assailant's prior arrest history or history of complaints received, failure to comply with the remedial or protective measures, threats of committing another incident, and the use of physical force, drugs, or alcohol (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Once the threat assessment is complete, the Review Committee will decide if the report will be forwarded to the local law enforcement and what remedial or protective measures are necessary.

If the victim requests "confidentiality, that no investigation occur, and/or that no disciplinary action be taken, the university will seek to honor this request" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 23). However, if the Review Committee determines that it must be reported for the health and safety of the university and its members, it can move forward with referring the report to law enforcement, despite the victim's wishes (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). If this situation arises, the victim must be notified of the referral to law enforcement and the university

will make its best efforts to protect the victim's privacy (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). In addition, the victim is not required to participate with the investigation process (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016).

The university has two types of resolutions available, depending on the type of incident. An alternative resolution is an informal process in which neither the victim nor the alleged aggressor is required to participate and either participant can withdraw consent at any time (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Examples of alternative resolutions can include mediation, or a written agreement between the individuals, and must be completed within 30 business days (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The Title IX Coordinator will maintain records of such reports (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). An alternative resolution may not be available if several risk factors are involved in the reported incident (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). In addition, as recommended by Title IX and the ORC, alternative resolutions, "such as mediation, are not available in cases involving sexual assault" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 24).

A formal resolution can take place in several different scenarios. A formal resolution can occur when a victim reports an incident and requests the Title IX Coordinator to conduct an investigation and provide a resolution (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Additionally, a formal resolution can be initiated when an alternative resolution does not address and/or resolve a previously reported incident (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). A formal resolution can also occur when the Review Committee completes the threat assessment and concludes that one or more risk factors

exist and an investigation must occur for the welfare of the university's community, even if the victim does not want an investigation to take place (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The investigation is a "neutral fact-gathering process" and the alleged perpetrator is assumed "not responsible" until the investigation concludes and an outcome is reached (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 26).

For a formal resolution case, the victim(s) and alleged assailant(s) must be notified of the investigation's findings and must include key pieces of information (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The investigation process, in most cases, will not exceed 60 business days, and a final investigative report must be documented. The outcomes can be "Recommended Finding(s) of Responsibility" or "Recommended Finding(s) of No Responsibility." If the investigation's outcome is "Recommended Findings of Responsibility," the alleged assailant will have five business days to notify the Title IX Coordinator on his or her decision to accept or appeal the findings (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). If an appeal is filed, the victim will also have five business days to respond to the appeal, and the appeal proceedings will be initiated (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). If the investigation's outcome is "Recommended Finding(s) of No Responsibility," the victim will have five business days to accept or appeal the finding (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). If an appeal is filed, the alleged perpetrator will have five business days to respond to the appeal, and the appeal proceedings will occur (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Once all investigations are completed, the recommendations for the investigation are made, the Vice Provost for Student Affairs makes the final decision on the

investigation, and no "further recourse or appeal" can be made by either party (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). The outcome letter will be sent to the involved parties and the Title IX Coordinator.

The policy also outlines the training requirements for all incoming students and staff on prevention and awareness at their specific orientations and returning students and current employees are required to participate in ongoing trainings and programs (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016). Furthermore, VCU's Equity and Access Services, which reports directly to the university's president, reviews their procedure on an annual basis to ensure compliance with any legal requirements and to evaluate the university's resources (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016).

Notably, the OCR changed its guidance in September 2017 and the Office of the President at VCU sent out an important announcement to the entire VCU community. Although the OCR rescinded certain guidelines that previously clarified the application of Title IX on college campuses, VCU made a decision to remain committed to campus safety, to "exceed compliance," and to continue required training for the VCU community (M. Rao, personal communication, September 22, 2017). Furthermore, VCU will not "roll back [its] support for any member of our community affected by sexual violence… [has] no tolerance for sexual violence not the forfeiture of due process in any case" (M. Rao, personal communication, September 22, 2017).

Gaps in the Literature and Current Study Aims

Many studies have examined the prevalence and rates of reporting sexual victimization in the community and on college campuses (Cantalupo, 2014; Fisher et al., 2000; Koss et al., 1987; Rennison, Kaukinen, & Meade, 2017; Sinozich & Langton, 2014; Wies, 2015). In addition,

public and victim perceptions of mandatory reporting practices related to other offenses, such as child abuse and intimate partner violence, have been investigated, but very little research has evaluated the implementation of Title IX related compelled disclosure practices. This is a major gap in the literature, as numerous states have enacted this practice to address and prevent sexual violence on campuses. While existing literature has studied societal perceptions, and nonstudent victims' views, an examination of students' perceptions is the next necessary investigation. This study is important because researchers, policymakers, and university administration will be able to make well-informed decisions when evaluating current practices and policies, due to the expansion of and the ability to understand sexual discrimination and the views at this specific university better. Furthermore, this study will allow individuals to grasp the modern cultural expectations of current students better (Wade, 2017) and the impact of those expectations on students' views towards reporting victimization and the implementation of mandatory reporting.

The purpose of this study is to identify students' awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting policies and requirements related to Title IX at their specific university. Mandatory reporting requirements are being implemented in higher educational institutions; however, existing literature does not examine students' perceptions or their understanding of the specific requirements, which apply exclusively to them. By researching student perceptions, policymakers, Title IX Coordinators, and educational institutions can better understand what mechanisms and resources are needed to be address and better emphasize the information in the Title IX trainings and how to gain the trust and "buy-in" of students. In addition, both supporters and critics of the mandatory reporting policy have made their own arguments. By examining student perceptions, the public will have a better understanding of which arguments have empirical support and which arguments lack support.

This study's primary research questions are as follows:

1. Do students support mandatory reporting?
2. What are the expected outcomes of mandatory reporting laws? These will include positive or negative outcomes, such as diminished victim autonomy, increased accountability at the university, greater sexual victimization reporting, deterring victims from reporting, better assistance to victims, and the risk of re-traumatization.
3. How does mandatory reporting impact students' likelihood to report victimization?

This study's secondary research questions are as follows:

1. Are students aware of mandatory reporting, as related to Title IX?
2. Do students comprehend the specifics of the mandatory reporting policy, as implemented at their educational institution?
3. What factors predict views about mandatory reporting?

Chapter III: Data and Methods

This section will review this study's research methodology, describe the sample and sampling method, introduce the survey instrument, outline the predictor and outcome variables, review the hypotheses, and discuss the analyses.

Research Methodology

This quantitative study explores the students' awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of the use of mandated reporting related to Title IX at their university. Very little research has thoroughly examined these perceptions among college students (Mancini et al., 2017; Rosenthal, 2017); thus, this dissertation will evaluate "trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (Creswell, 2003, p. 153). The self-administrated survey was cross-sectional in nature since students' opinions were gathered at one point in time, rather than over a course of time. In order to examine students' perceptions in a generalizable manner with a large sample size, quantitative data was collected. Due to the goals of this study, a multivariate analysis utilizing quantitative data was conducted, rather than applying qualitative methods.

The time dimension for this study was a maximum of one semester (Fall 2018). The rationale for employing this timeframe was two-fold. First, it is in line with prior studies (Mancini et al., 2017; Newins & White, 2018), and it is judged to be less intrusive as such a timeframe allowed the researcher to be flexible and accommodating to the recruited professors' scheduling conflicts.

This exploratory study was also correlational because it examined the relationship between two or more variables (McMillian, 2016). The researcher examined the relationship between students' support for mandatory reporting, perceptions of advantages of mandatory

reporting, and disadvantages of mandatory reporting in addition to the following independent variables: students' awareness and knowledge of Title IX-related mandatory reporting policy and students' acceptance of rape myths and sexual behaviors. Correlational research allowed the investigator to determine what factors are associated with support of mandatory reporting among college students. One potential issue with correlational research is that spurious relationships can be identified, which can lead to a lack of reliability and validity in the findings (Isaac & Michael, 1995). However, because this was an exploratory study, this design was acceptable because the researcher examined if an issue existed rather than determining the extent or causation of an existing problem (Henry, 1999).

The findings from such an analysis do not "prove" that a relationship exists nor do they establish causality (McMillian, 2016). Thus, to address potential spurious relationships, various theoretically relevant control variables were also examined (Feldman-Summers & Ashworth, 1981; Greenfeld, 1997; Lizotte, 1985; Smith et al., 2003; Streng & Kamimura, 2017). These include academic/class standing, student type (i.e., in-state versus out-of-state/international student), age, race/ethnicity, political affiliation, gender identity, sexual orientation, religious association, hometown type, household income, respondents' knowledge of sexual misconduct victims, and respondents' knowledge of someone falsely accused of sexual misconduct. Including these control variables allowed the researcher to "eliminate the influence of the other possible variables" and understand the true nature of the association between the independent and dependent variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p.50).

The data were collected through surveys completed by the participants; therefore, the unit of analysis was individuals. This was the appropriate unit of analysis because the researcher collected survey data from individual students who were on campus regarding their perceptions.

The instrument was designed to delve into several conceptual themes related to Title IX and campus sexual assault knowledge and policy. Researchers have emphasized that the mere existence of a policy is not enough to address sexual victimization (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). Rather, easy access to the Title IX guidance, the university's policy, and all reporting options (i.e., to university officials and/or local law enforcement) are necessary (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). Thus, researchers recommend that new and existing students and employees have access to the university's Title IX Coordinator and information regarding the process of how to report Title IX violations (Fusilier & Penrod, 2015). Consequently, one section of the survey examined participants' awareness of their university's mandatory reporting policy. It is equally vital that the individuals impacted by such policies and procedures understand the material that is developed and implemented by their university. For this reason, subsequent sections of the survey focused on the participants' knowledge of their university's Title IX and mandatory reporting policies and procedures. The researcher notes here that some of these questions were derived from VCU's mandatory sexual violence training program, *Not Anymore*. Such questions were purposely added to determine if students truly comprehend the material covered in the required trainings.

Furthermore, in addition to the general knowledge of Title IX, it seemed relevant to examine the extent of understanding and knowledge of university's mandatory reporting policy among students. While students may or may not understand the university's mandatory reporting practices, it is important to examine students' individual perceptions of mandatory reporting, as related to sexual violence on college campuses. Some of the questions on the advantages and disadvantages of mandatory reporting were adopted from a survey created by Dr. Justin Pickett, Associate Professor in the School of Criminal Justice at the State University of Albany (SUNY),

as these questions (available upon request) were used in prior research (Mancini et al., 2016). Participants were also asked about their opinions and views on sexual behaviors and hypothetical scenarios to evaluate students' views on rape myths. The questions in this section were adopted and slightly amended from the Revised Version of the Updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (available upon request) to incorporate the use of social media (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). Lastly, in line with prior scholarship (Feldman-Summers & Ashworth, 1981; Gartner & MacMillian, 1995; Greenfeld, 1997; Lizotte, 1985; Pino & Meier, 1999; Smith et al., 2003), student participants were asked demographic questions, such as their age, race, gender identity, and other theoretically-relevant characteristics.

As required, VCU's Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed this study. The submission was reviewed as an exempt review research study. The study was approved on June 19, 2018 (Appendix B). Due to some minor changes in the Resources for Student Participants (Appendix C), an amendment was submitted and approved by the IRB.

The instrument was administered as a traditional pen-and-paper survey. After receiving approval from professors, the researcher attended 16 classes from various disciplines to ask their students to participate in this study, on an agreed upon date and time. The researcher introduced herself to the students, provided a general overview of the survey and student information sheet, and asked if anyone had any questions, comments, or concerns related to the survey. If there were any questions or concerns, the researcher addressed them. Because the researcher surveyed multiple courses within a semester, the researcher asked students not to participate if they were in another class that was previously surveyed. All students, except those who indicated that they were in a previously surveyed course, received a copy of the survey packet. If the students decided to participate in the survey, they were asked to place the completed packet at an agreed

upon location in the room where the survey was being administered. While the researcher anticipated that the survey would take approximately 25 minutes, the administration of the survey was scheduled for about 40 minutes to ensure all participants had enough time to ask any questions and complete the survey without feeling rushed.

To calculate response rates, the researcher counted the number of students who were in attendance the day the survey was administered and the number of surveys that were completed. If there were any students in the course who previously participated in another class, they were asked not to participate again and were deducted from the number of students in attendance, reducing the incidence of duplicate surveys. Between the 16 courses, 542 surveys were distributed, and 506 surveys were returned partially or fully completed. The survey had a response rate of 93%. Due to the high response rate, nonresponse bias was not a major concern (Groves, & Peytcheva, 2008).

Sample description.

To interpret the overall generalizability of the study's sample, it is important to understand the demographic makeup of the university as a whole. Currently, there are 31,231 enrolled students at VCU (VCU, 2018). The population is comprised of 24,212 undergraduate students, 5,259 graduate students, and 1,760 professional students (VCU, 2018). In addition, 85% of students are Virginia residents, 82% are full-time students, and 46% come from an underrepresented population (VCU, 2018). Among the underrepresented populations, 16% are African American, 12% are Asian, seven percent are Hispanic/Latino, five percent identify as two or more races, and five percent are international students (VCU, 2018). This study's sample was recruited from students taking at least one on-campus course in the L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs (hereafter, Wilder School) at VCU. Based on the

Wilder School's Enrollment Count (2018), the program has 1,035 undergraduate and 241 graduate students. Furthermore, 622 students are White, 292 are Black/African American, 60 are Asian, five are American Indian/Alaskan, and two are Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs, 2018). In addition, there are 163 Hispanic/Latino students and 80 who identified as two or more races. The programs are comprised of 689 female and 584 male students. Out of the total Wilder School population, 1,012 students are enrolled full-time and 264 students are enrolled part-time.

This quantitative study utilized non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling consists of a collection of samples that have distinguished characteristics in which the researcher uses subjective judgment when selecting the sample (Henry, 1990). Furthermore, there was no guarantee that each student would have an opportunity to be included in the sample (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

This study sample consisted of 427 undergraduate students, 63 graduate students, and one non-degree seeking student. Fifteen respondents did not indicate their academic class standing. Furthermore, the sample consisted of 238 White students, 118 Black/African American students, and 32 multi-racial students. Thirty-eight respondents identified as "other" and 27 did not indicate their race. Fifty-three respondents identified as Hispanic/Latino. The sample was made up of 278 females, 202 males, and nine respondents who identified as "other." Seventeen respondents did not indicate their gender identity. Thus, overall, the sample was very similar to the Wilder School's population. Table II displays the comparisons between VCU, the Wilder School, and the current study's sample.

Table II: The University's, Wilder School's, and Study's Sample

	VCU	Wilder School	Study's Sample
Undergraduate Students	77%	81%	87%
Graduate Students	17%	19%	12%
Professional Students	6%	--	--
In-State Students	85%	--	92%
Out-of-State Students	12%	--	8%
International Students	3%	3%	
Full-Time Students	82%	79%	--
Part-Time Students	18%	20%	--
Race/Ethnicity			
White	50%	49%	50%
Black/African American	18%	23%	24%
Asian, American Indian/Alaskan, or Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	13%	5%	8%
Two or More Races	6%	6%	6.%
Hispanic/Latino	8%	13%	11%
Unknown	1%	1%	5%
Gender Identity			
Female	61%	54%	56%
Male	39%	46%	40%
Other	--	0.2%	2%
Unknown	--	--	3%

Very little research has examined students' perceptions of mandatory reporting, even though this population is impacted directly by legislation and procedural changes. The current study thus represents one of the first investigations of attitudes among this population using a unique and comprehensive survey. It was exploratory in nature, as it had little extant literature from which to draw references. It was also limited in that it relied on a convenience sample of students (generally, Henry, 1990). Although convenience samples can have drawbacks, it is important to note that care was given to the selection of the subjects. Specifically, a School centered on advancing knowledge of public policy, the Wilder School, was purposely targeted. Particularly, this approach yielded a sample likely to be knowledgeable about social problems and administrative polices. Recruitment involved contacting professors who were teaching at least one in-class, on-campus course during the Fall 2018 semester in the Wilder School at VCU.

Once the researcher gained permission from professors and scheduled a date and time for data collection, the researcher personally administered the surveys to the participants. In addition, to satisfy the Wilder School's policy regarding student research, any incentive at the discretion of the instructor, such as extra credit, was not used for this study. This approach permitted the researcher wide access to the overall Wilder School population, including undergraduate and graduate students.

Students had a chance to participate in this study based on the professors' availability, agreement, and the course's ability to allow the study to take place in their classroom on campus. Overall, professors were receptive and obliged, reducing the possibility of selection bias. Additionally, the Wilder School's administration had several safeguards that were satisfied to allow for this study to be conducted. The Wilder School consists of multiple educational programs, including Criminal Justice, Homeland Security and Emergency Preparedness, Public Administration, Public Policy and Administration, and Urban and Regional Studies/Planning. At least one professor from each Wilder School discipline had the opportunity to participate in the study. At least one course from each discipline agreed to participate in this study. The survey had to be a traditional pen-and-paper survey; therefore, online courses were not utilized to recruit for this sample. Finally, the Wilder School's administration stipulated that the students must have an opportunity to access the findings of the study if they so prefer. During the in-class recruitment, the researcher informed the students that they could contact the researcher for a copy of the findings once prepared. The researcher also informed the students that they could find the contact information on the study's information sheet. Some groups of individuals were excluded from this study. Students who did not enroll in an in-class course offered by the Wilder School were not eligible to participate. Furthermore, students under the age of 18, non-English speaking

students, individuals absent from class on the day of the survey distribution, and students taking only online Wilder School courses did not participate in this study.

Sampling methodology.

Potential professors were contacted via email for recruitment purposes (see Appendix D). Professors contacted for recruitment were provided a copy of the survey packet for reference, which included the information sheet about the study (see Appendix E), the survey instrument (Appendix F), and a handout that listed the support services available to students at VCU (Appendix C). The professors were provided the contact information of the researcher in case they had any questions prior to making a decision. Based on the scheduling of the professors who agreed to provide their students with the opportunity to participate in this study, the researcher selected the courses that maximized the number of students that could potentially be recruited.

Survey Instrument

The survey consisted of 72 questions, which examined various topics. As mentioned previously, the researcher developed the survey instrument by incorporating questions from various sources, including results from pre-testing. In order to examine students' awareness and knowledge of their university's operations and policy, the researcher included questions focusing on the school's mandatory reporting policy, Title IX Office, and their mandatory training. Furthermore, the researcher incorporated questions from the university's mandatory training to examine students' knowledge retention. The purpose of these questions was to examine if students retained and comprehended the information covered during the training and in the policy. In order to examine students' opinions of advantages and disadvantages of mandatory reporting, the researcher adopted questions from a validated tool. Rape myth items were also

adopted from a validated tool (Revised Version of the Updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale) to evaluate how students' beliefs may impact the dependent variables. Various demographic-type questions were also incorporated at the end of the survey, including but not limited to, sexual orientation, gender identity, household income, religious association, political affiliation, and more.

As a validity check of the instrument, pre-testing of an earlier draft of the survey was conducted. Seven faculty members, two professionals from the university's Title IX Office, several research analysts from an external agency, and students who were not in the study's sample reviewed the survey and provided feedback on the construction of the tool. The pre-testing was conducted to evaluate the quality of the questions, survey fatigue, and flow of the instrument. All feedback was examined, and applicable changes were added to the instrument.

For the purposes of this exploratory study, a reliability analysis was conducted for each scale to examine the relationship between the different items and the intended scales. This survey was specifically developed for VCU, as their mandatory trainings and policies assisted with the development of the survey questions. Future studies should consider conducting factor analysis and examining the validity and reliability of this instrument in more detail.

Next, the variables are examined. Table III summarizes the measures of each variable type, coding of each item or scale, and the Cronbach's α respectively.

Table III: Summary of the Study's Variables, Measures, Coding Options, and Cronbach's α

Variable	Measures	Coded	α
	Predictor Variables		
Awareness (Single Item)	– "Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy?"	0 = No/Not Sure 1 - Yes	--
Knowledge (Scale)	– "Does your university have a Title IX office?"; – "Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy for sexual assault?"; – "Have you heard of the *Not Anymore* Title IX online training?"; – "Employees and/or students who violate the university's policy may face disciplinary action, including but not limited to termination or expulsion."; – "The university has multiple channels for reporting Prohibited Conduct."; – "The university will not pursue disciplinary action based on disclosure of person consumption of drugs or alcohol if it is related to a report of sexual misconduct."; – "Reports of sexual misconduct must be made in good faith (i.e., the reporter must believe that the incident occurred as reported)."; – "The university does not offer remedial or protective measures to complainant."; – "The university's evidentiary standard is preponderance of evidence."; – "A Confidential Employee will not disclose information obtained from the complainant to the university's Title IX Coordinator or others without the complainant's permission expect as provided for or required by law."; – "Unless specifically identified in the policy as Confidential, an employee is a Responsible Employee."; and – "Supervisors, management, and human resource professionals have no additional reporting responsibilities beyond those of a Responsible Employee."	0 = Incorrect Response/Not Sure 1 = Correct Response	.615
	Outcome Variables		
General Support of Mandatory Reporting (Single Item)	– "Many states have enacted "mandatory reporting" laws that require colleges and universities to report all suspicions of sexual assault involving students (e.g., a student discloses s/he was a victim of rape at a party to a professor) to the police, even if victims do not want the crime reported. What comes closest to your opinion of the law?"	1 = Strongly disagree with the law 2 = Disagree somewhat with the law 3 = Agree somewhat with the law 4 = Strongly agree with the law	--

Perceptions of the Likelihood to Personally Report (Single Item)	– "Would mandatory reporting laws make you personally more or less willing to disclose your sexual victimization to a university staff member you trust?"	1 = Significantly less likely to disclose 2 = Somewhat less likely to disclose 3 = Would have no difference in the decision to disclose 4 = Strongly agree with the law 5 = Significantly more likely to disclose	--
Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting (Scale)	– "Have the potential to waste university resources for various reasons."; – "May serve to deter rape victims from reporting sexual victimization."; – "Have the potential to prevent from seeking services from the university."; – "Are not appropriate for higher educational institutions."; and – "Decrease the accused individual's due process."	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree Somewhat 3 = Agree Somewhat 4 = Strongly Agree	.710
Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting (Scale)	– "Have the potential to better assist sexual assault victims."; – "Hold universities accountable, preventing them from sweeping crime under the rug."; – "Hold perpetrators of sexual assault accountable by involving police."; – "Have the potential to increase reporting of sex crimes."; – "Reduce stigma associated with survivors of sexual misconduct."; – "Increase perceptions of safety at the university."; and – "Increase perceptions of justice."	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree Somewhat 3 = Agree Somewhat 4 = Strongly Agree	.788
Control Variables			
Acceptance of Rape Myths (Scale)	– "If a person is sexually assaulted while they are drunk, the victim is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand."; – "If a person acts or dresses in a promiscuous or provocative manner, they are asking to be sexually assaulted."; – "When a person is sexually assaulted, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear to the other person."; – "If a person initiates kissing or "hooking up," they should not be surprised if the other person assumes they want to have sex."; – "A sexual assault likely did not happen if the victim does not have noticeable bruises or marks.";	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree Somewhat 3 = Agree Somewhat 4 = Strongly Agree	.878

	– "If the accused did not have a weapon during the incident, you cannot truly call it sexual assault."; – "If a person sends explicit texts or images, they have consented to sexual activity."; and – "If a person's social media account consists of explicit or promiscuous images, they have consented to sexual activity."		
Class Standing	– Indicate your current class standing. a. First Year/Freshman b. Sophomore c. Junior d. Senior e. Non-degree seeking f. Graduate/Doctoral/Post-doc	0 = Undergraduate 1 = Graduate/Other	--
Student Status	– I am an: a. In-state student b. Out-of-state student c. International student	0 = In-State Students 1 = Out-of-State/Other	--
Age	– How old are you? a. Under 18 years old b. 18 – 20 years old c. 21 – 23 years old d. 24 – 26 years old e. 27 – 29 years old f. 30 years or older	0 = 18-20 years old 1 = 21-23 years old 2 = 24-26 years old 3 = 27-29 years old 4 = 30+ years old	--
Race/Ethnicity	– With which racial/ethnic category do you most identify? a. Asian/Pacific Islander b. Black/African-American c. Latino(a)/Hispanic d. Middle Eastern e. Indigenous/Native American f. White g. Multiracial h. Other: _____	0 = White 1 = Non-White	--
Political Affiliation (Dummy Variables)	– What is your political affiliation? a. Conservative/Republican b. Independent c. Liberal/Democrat d. Other: _____ e. None	Liberal/Democrat (Reference Group), Conservative/Republican, and Other	--
Gender Identity (Dummy Variables)	– How would you best describe your sex/gender identity? a. Female/woman b. Male/man c. Transwoman d. Transman e. Questioning f. Genderqueer/gender non-conforming g. Intersex/DSD h. No label/Self Identify i. Other: _____	Female/Woman (Reference Group), Male/man, and Other	--

Sexual Orientation	– What is your sexual orientation? a. Heterosexual/straight b. Bisexual c. Gay/lesbian d. Pansexual e. Asexual f. Other: _____	0 = Heterosexual/Straight 1 = Other	--
Religious Association	– What religion do you associate yourself with? a. Christianity b. Islam c. Buddhism d. Judaism e. Hinduism f. Atheist g. Agnostic h. Non-religious i. Other: _____	0 = No Religious Association 1 = Religious Association	--
Hometown	– What best describes your hometown? a. City (Urban) b. Suburban c. Rural	0 = City (Urban) 1 = Other	--
Household Income	– What is your total household income? a. Less than $10,000 b. $10,001 to $20,000 c. $20,001 to $30,000 d. $30,001 to $40,000 e. $40,001 to $50,000 f. $50,001 to $60,000 g. $60,001 to $70,000 h. $70,001 to $80, 000 i. $80,001 to $90,000 j. $90,001 to $100,000 k. $100,001 or more	0 = $30,000 or Less 1 = $30,001 to $60,000 2 = $60,001 or More	--
Know a Victim of Sexual Misconduct	– I personally know a victim of sexual misconduct.	0 = No 1 = Yes	--
Know an Individual Falsely Accused of Sexual Misconduct	– I personally know someone who I believe was falsely accused of sexual misconduct.	0 = No 1 = Yes	--

Predictor Variables

The independent variables were students' awareness of the mandatory reporting policy and knowledge of the university's Title IX mandatory reporting policies, and acceptance of rape myths and sexual behaviors. Theoretically-relevant control variables were also included. The knowledge scale consists of various items. Below, each subset of variables is described. The outcome and control variables are described in their respective sections.

The main predictor variables were coded as follows:

1. Awareness → This only consisted of one item. The item for the awareness was: "Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy?"

The response options were "Yes," "No," and "Not Sure." The responses were coded into 0 = "No/Not Sure" and 1 = "Yes."

2. Knowledge → This scale consisted of twelve items. For this scale, the Cronbach's α = .615. The items in this scale are:
   - "Does your university have a Title IX office?";
   - "Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy for sexual assault?";
   - "Have you heard of the *Not Anymore* Title IX online training?";
   - "Employees and/or students who violate the university's policy may face disciplinary action, including but not limited to termination or expulsion.";
   - "The university has multiple channels for reporting Prohibited Conduct.";
   - "The university will not pursue disciplinary action based on disclosure of person consumption of drugs or alcohol if it is related to a report of sexual misconduct.";
   - "Reports of sexual misconduct must be made in good faith (i.e., the reporter must believe that the incident occurred as reported).";

- "The university does not offer remedial or protective measures to complainant.";
- "The university's evidentiary standard is preponderance of evidence.";
- "A Confidential Employee will not disclose information obtained from the complainant to the university's Title IX Coordinator or others without the complainant's permission expect as provided for or required by law.";
- "Unless specifically identified in the policy as Confidential, an employee is a Responsible Employee."; and
- "Supervisors, management, and human resource professionals have no additional reporting responsibilities beyond those of a Responsible Employee."

The response options for the first three items were "Yes," "No," or "Not Sure." For the remaining items, the response options were "True," "False," and "Not Sure." The wrong response[1] and "Not Sure" were coded as 0, while the correct response was coded as 1.

Outcome Variables

The dependent variables assess perceptions of mandatory reporting across several dimensions because without a comprehensive examination of students' views on the implementation and policy related to Title IX, ineffective practices or meaningful actions may be overlooked by lawmakers and university officials. The variables were general support of mandatory reporting, perceptions of the likelihood to report personal sexual victimization with compelled disclosure enacted, and perceptions of disadvantages and advantages of mandatory reporting. These dependent variables were explored because the outcomes allowed the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of students' views on policies and practices that directly impact

[1] A "wrong response" was identified as the response option that conflicts with the university's sexual misconduct policy and training. For the accurate responses for each question (as applicable), see Appendix G.

the students while attending the university. In addition, the researcher was able to identify which predictors impacted the various dependent variables.

The variables were coded as follows:

1. General Support of Mandatory Reporting → This was measured by a single item:
   - "Many states have enacted "mandatory reporting" laws that require colleges and universities to report all suspicions of sexual assault involving students (e.g., a student discloses s/he was a victim of rape at a party to a professor) to the police, even if victims do not want the crime reported. What comes closest to your opinion of the law?"

The response options for this question were: "Strongly agree with the law (4)," "Agree somewhat with the law (3)," "Disagree somewhat with the law (2)," and "Strongly disagree with the law (1)." The responses for this scale were analyzed using an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression.

2. Perceptions of the Likelihood to Personally Report → This outcome was also measured by a single item:
   - "Would mandatory reporting laws make you personally more or less willing to disclose your sexual victimization to a university staff member you trust?"

The response options for this question were: "Significantly less likely to disclose (1)," "Somewhat less likely to disclose (2)," "Would have no difference in the decision to disclose (3)," "Somewhat more likely to disclose (4)," and "Significantly more likely to disclose (5)." The responses for this scale were analyzed using an OLS regression.

3. Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting → For this scale, the Cronbach's $\alpha = .710$. This scale consisted of five items, which examined if mandatory reporting laws:

- "Have the potential to waste university resources for various reasons.";
- "May serve to deter rape victims from reporting sexual victimization.";
- "Have the potential to prevent from seeking services from the university.";
- "Are not appropriate for higher educational institutions."; and
- "Decrease the accused individual's due process."

The response options were "Strongly Disagree (1)," "Disagree Somewhat (2)," "Agree Somewhat (3)," and "Strongly Agree (4)." The responses for this scale were analyzed using an OLS regression.

4. Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting → The Cronbach's α = .788. This scale consisted of seven items, which examined if mandatory reporting laws:
   - "Have the potential to better assist sexual assault victims.";
   - "Hold universities accountable, preventing them from sweeping crime under the rug.";
   - "Hold perpetrators of sexual assault accountable by involving police.";
   - "Have the potential to increase reporting of sex crimes.";
   - "Reduce stigma associated with survivors of sexual misconduct.";
   - "Increase perceptions of safety at the university."; and
   - "Increase perceptions of justice."

The response options were "Strongly Disagree (1)," "Disagree Somewhat (2)," "Agree Somewhat (3)," and "Strongly Agree (4)." The responses for this scale were analyzed using an OLS regression.

Control Variables

Various control variables shown to be important correlates of attitudes toward sexual assault (Mancini et al., 2017; Spencer et al., 2017) were included in the survey instrument. Below, each subset of variables is described. They are:

1. Acceptance of Rape Myths → This scale consisted of eight items. For this scale, the Cronbach's α = .878. A majority of these questions were adopted from the Revised Version of the Updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011) and slightly amended to fit the purpose of this study. While the full scale was not adopted for this study's survey instrument, the strong Cronbach's α value supports the reliability of the modified scale. The items are:
   - "If a person is sexually assaulted while they are drunk, the victim is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.";
   - "If a person acts or dresses in a promiscuous or provocative manner, they are asking to be sexually assaulted.";
   - "When a person is sexually assaulted, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear to the other person.";
   - "If a person initiates kissing or "hooking up," they should not be surprised if the other person assumes they want to have sex.";
   - "A sexual assault likely did not happen if the victim does not have noticeable bruises or marks.";
   - "If the accused did not have a weapon during the incident, you cannot truly call it sexual assault.";

- "If a person sends explicit texts or images, they have consented to sexual activity."; and
- "If a person's social media account consists of explicit or promiscuous images, they have consented to sexual activity."

The four response options for these items were: "Strongly Disagree (1)," "Disagree Somewhat (2)," "Agree Somewhat (3)," and "Strongly Agree (4)."

2. Class Standing → There were six response options for this item: "First Year/Freshman," "Sophomore," "Junior," "Senior," "Non-degree seeking," and "Graduate/Doctoral/Post-Doc." The responses were coded as 0 = "Undergraduate" and 1 = "Graduate/Other."
3. Student Status → The three response options for this item were: "In-state Student," "Out-of-State Student," and "International Student." The response options were coded as 0 = "In-State Students" and 1 = "Out-of-State/Other."
4. Age → The six response options for this item included: "Under 18 years old," "18-20 years old," "21-23 years old," "24-26 years old," "27-29 years old," and "30 years or older." The response options were coded as: 0 = "18-20 years old," 1 = "21-23 years old," 2 = "24-26 years old," 3 = "27-29 years old," and 4 = "30 years or older." While "Under 18 years old" was a response option, it was not coded because students under the age of 18 were excluded from the survey.
5. Race/Ethnicity → The eight response options for this item were: "Asian/Pacific Islander," "Black/African American," "Latino(a)/Hispanic," "Middle Eastern," "Indigenous/Native American," "White," "Multiracial," and "Other: _____." The responses were coded as 0 = "White" and 1 = "Non-White."

6. Political Affiliation → The five response options included: "Conservative/Republication," "Independent," "Liberal/Democrat," "Other: _____," and "None." Three dummy variables were created for "Conservative/Republican," "Liberal/Democrat," and all of the other response options were collapsed into "Other." The reference group of this variable was "Liberal/Democrat."
7. Gender Identity → The nine response options for this item were: "Female/woman," "Male/man," "Transwomen," "Transman," "Questioning," "Genderqueer/gender non-conforming," "Intersex/DSD," "No label/self-identity," and "Other: _____." Three dummy variables were created for "Female/woman," "Male/man," and all other response options were collapsed into "Other." "Female/woman" was the reference group for this variable.
8. Sexual Orientation → The six response options for this item included: "Heterosexual/straight," "Bisexual," "Gay/lesbian," "Pansexual," "Asexual," and "Other: _____." The options were coded as 0 = "Heterosexual/straight" and 1 = "Other."
9. Religion → The nine response options for this item were: "Christianity," "Islam," "Buddhism," "Judaism," "Hinduism," "Atheist," "Agonistic," "Non-religious" and "Other: _____." The response options were coded as 0 = "No Religious Association" and 1 = "Religious Association."
10. Hometown → The three response options for this item were: "City (Urban)," "Suburban," and "Rural." The responses were coded as 0 = "City/Urban" and 1 = "Other."
11. Household Income → The 11 response options for this item included: "Less than $10,000," "$10,001 to $20,000," "$20,001 to $30,000," "$30,001 to $40,000," "$40,001

to $50,000," "$50,001 to $60,000," "$60,001 to $70,000," "$70,001 to $80,000," "$80,001 to $90,000," "$90,001 to $100,000," and "$100,001 or more." The responses were coded as: 0 = "Less than $30,000," 1 = "$30,001 to $60,000," and 2 = "$60,001 or more."

12. Know a Victim of Sexual Misconduct → The response option for this item were "No (0)" or "Yes (1)."
13. Know an Individual Falsely Accused of Sexual Misconduct → The response option for this item were "No (0)" or "Yes (1)."

Hypotheses

This study sought to examine awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of college students who are directly impacted by mandatory reporting laws related to Title IX and their effect on the four outcome variables – (i) General Support of Mandatory Reporting; (ii) Perceptions of the Likelihood to Personally Report; (iii) Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting; and (iv) Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting. Because there is little a priori knowledge regarding these outcomes, several possibilities are presented below.

OLS Regression 1: General Support of Mandatory Reporting

Hypothesis 1: Students who are more knowledgeable about Title IX and mandatory reporting will have more general support for the utilization of mandatory reporting than students who are less knowledgeable.

OLS Regression 2: Perceptions of the Likelihood to Personally Report

Hypothesis 2: Students who are more knowledgeable about Title IX and mandatory reporting will perceive a higher likelihood to report personal sexual victimization than students who are less knowledgeable.

OLS Regression 3: Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting

Hypothesis 3: Students who are more aware about mandatory reporting will perceive fewer disadvantages of mandatory reporting than students who are less aware.

Hypothesis 4: Students who are more knowledgeable about Title IX and mandatory reporting will perceive fewer disadvantages of mandatory reporting than students who are less knowledgeable.

OLS Regression 4: Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting

Hypothesis 5: Students who are more aware about mandatory reporting will perceive more advantages of mandatory reporting than students who are less aware.

Hypothesis 6: Students who are more knowledgeable about Title IX and mandatory reporting will perceive more advantages of mandatory reporting than students who are less knowledgeable.

Due to the lack of existing evidence, the hypotheses were constructed based upon conjecture and assumptions that seem to be "common sense;" therefore, in addition to the hypotheses, the researcher has six general expectations, which are formulated based upon existing and relevant research.

Expectation 1: A majority of the students will report having heard of and being aware of the mandatory reporting policy at their university.

Rationale: VCU requires any and all new students, such as first year freshmen, graduate and professional students, new transfer students, readmitted students, non-degree seeking students, online, full-time, and/or part-time students, to participate in the in the *Not Anymore* training. According to VCU's website (2017), the *Not Anymore* program is an online, Title IX training that takes approximately 25 minutes and focuses on assisting students in recognizing and

preventing sexual assault, stalking, and dating and intimate partner violence. In addition, the training provides students with additional resources and links with more information about how to report sexual victimization, receive support and assistance, and more. Therefore, this study expected to find that majority of the student participants had general awareness of mandatory reporting requirements at VCU.

Expectation 2: A majority of the students will not comprehend the specifics of the mandatory reporting policy, as implemented at their university.

Rationale: Because VCU requires all students to participate in the *Not Anymore* training, students will be aware of mandatory reporting; however, the *Not Anymore* training does not review or test the students' knowledge of the university's mandatory reporting policy. While the university's Title IX Office and website cover the mandatory reporting policy in detail, students' review of the information is not required. In addition, a study conducted by Taylor (2018) found that average sexual reporting instructions were constructed at roughly a third-year college reading level, but college students with an average reading comprehension level were not able to read and understand how to report sexual victimization at a public 4-year university. Taylor (2018) also reported that 81% of universities' sexual assault reporting instructions were written at a first-year college reading level or higher. Therefore, this study expected to find that the majority of student participants will not comprehend the specifics of the university's mandatory reporting procedure.

Expectation 3: A majority of students will support the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses.

Rationale: According to a survey conducted by VCU (2015), over 90% of the general public (i.e., not a student sample) in Virginia supported mandatory reporting policies. A similar

survey conducted by Mancini et al. (2016) found that approximately two-thirds of college students support mandatory reporting policies. Although the general public was more supportive of mandatory reporting policies than students, a majority of students also supported it. Newins and White (2018) found that a majority of students believed that faculty and staff were responsible employees and reported high levels of agreement with the requirement to report students' sexual victimization disclosures. Therefore, this study expects to find that the majority of student participants will support mandatory reporting.

Expectation 4: A majority of the students perceive that faculty will comply with mandatory reporting requirements.

Rationale: Prior research has found a substantial number of students feel that faculty will abide by their institution's mandatory reporting policies (Mancini et al., 2016). For example, a study conducted by Mancini and colleagues (2016) found that over 87% of student participants perceived that faculty would be likely or very likely to comply with mandatory reporting laws. In line with that work, this study expects to find that the majority of students will perceive faculty compliance.

Expectation 5: With mandatory reporting requirements in place, a majority of students will perceive that there will be an increase in reporting of sexual victimization to university staff.

Rationale: A study conducted by Mancini et al. (2016) found that 56% of a student sample reported an increase in their likelihood of sex assault victimization reporting under the mandated reporting policy. They also found that 15% of students perceived a decrease in their likelihood to report, and 29% assessed mandatory reporting laws would have little to no impact on their personal decision to disclose (Mancini et al., 2016). Given these results, the current study expects to find that the majority of student participants perceive an increase in reporting.

Expectation 6: With the implementation of mandatory reporting policies, a majority of the student sample will judge that the university is better able to provide support and assistance to victims.

Rationale: Mancini et al. (2016) found that over 80% of student participants perceived that mandatory reporting laws can assist victims in a better manner and increase accountability at the university. Thus, this study expects to find that the majority of student participants perceive better support and services with mandatory reporting policies in place.

Analysis

Multiple OLS regressions were conducted in SPSS 25. During initial exploration, multiple variables were coded into binary variables. Binary logistic regression was a possible analysis method for the response categories that were collapsed into dichotomous categories; therefore, the researcher ran OLS and binary logistic regressions for each hypothesis. Ultimately, due to the robust nature of OLS regressions (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008), the researcher only reports the OLS regressions for the purposes of this study.[2] Notably, substantively similar results emerged between the OLS and binary logistic regression analyses. Furthermore, due to the ordinal nature of some dependent variables, ordinal regressions could have been conducted. However, after examining the diagnostics, such as histograms and plots, OLS was selected because a normal distribution was observed.

Numerous predictor variables were incorporated into the regression; therefore, multi-collinearity was examined. According to Menard (2002), a tolerance value of less than .20 is indicative of a multi-collinearity issue existing, whereas a tolerance above .70 represents that a collinearity issue is not present. In addition, a variance inflation factor (VIF) value greater than

[2] Binary logistic regression analyses are available upon request.

10 also represents multi-collinearity (Menard, 2002). However, other researchers suggest that a tolerance value of .40 and a VIF value of 4.0 are more conservative thresholds (Hoffman, 2004). With either threshold, multi-collinearity did not appear to be an issue as the lowest tolerance value is .462 and the highest VIF value is 2.164.

Chapter IV: Findings

This chapter will review the results from the OLS analyses described in the previous chapter. As stated in Chapter III: Data and Methods, the main predictor variables include awareness and knowledge. The outcome variables include general support of mandatory reporting, perceptions of the likelihood to personally report, perceptions of disadvantages of mandatory reporting, and perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting. The effects of the theoretically relevant control variables are modeled. The descriptive statistics, regressions, and findings are discussed below.

Descriptive Statistics

Table IV displays the descriptive statistics for all of the variables tested in this study. The table lists the sample size (N), mean, and standard deviation (SD) for each outcome and predictor variable. Table V presents the descriptive statistics for the standardized variables.

Table IV: Descriptive Statistics (n=501)

Outcome Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
General Support	500	3.19	.74
Likelihood to Personally Report	496	2.81	1.11
Disadvantages	499	2.76	.47
Advantages	500	3.08	.45
Predictor Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Awareness	501	.73	.44
Knowledge	501	.58	.19
Control Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Acceptance of Rape Myths	496	1.40	.48
Class Standing	486	.13	.34
Student Type	483	.08	.27
Age	466	.80	1.11
Race/Ethnicity	475	.50	.50
Political Affiliation (Reference = Liberal/Democrat)			
Conservative/Republican	475	.09	.29
Other	475	.41	.49
Gender Identity (Reference = Female)			
Male	484	.41	.49
Other	484	.02	.14
Sexual Orientation	483	.18	.39
Religious Association	450	.64	.48
Hometown Type	482	.76	.43
Household Income	461	1.33	.81
Know a Victim	482	.70	.46
Know Falsely Accused	482	.23	.42

Table V: Descriptive Statistics with Standardized Dependent Variables (n=501)

Outcome Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
General Support	500	0.00	1.00
Likelihood to Personally Report	496	0.00	1.00
Disadvantages	499	0.00	1.00
Advantages	500	0.00	1.00
Predictor Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Awareness	501	.73	.44
Knowledge	501	.58	.19
Control Variables	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**
Acceptance of Rape Myths	496	1.40	.48
Class Standing	486	.13	.34
Student Type	483	.08	.27
Age	466	.80	1.11
Race/Ethnicity	475	.50	.50
Political Affiliation (Reference = Liberal/Democrat)			
Conservative/Republican	475	.09	.29
Other	475	.41	.49
Gender Identity (Reference = Female)			
Male	484	.41	.49
Other	484	.02	.14
Sexual Orientation	483	.18	.39
Religious Association	450	.64	.48
Hometown Type	482	.76	.43
Household Income	461	1.33	.81
Know a Victim	482	.70	.46
Know Falsely Accused	482	.23	.42

The majority of respondents were undergraduate students (87%), while 13.2% identified as graduate students. Additionally, 92% of respondents were in-state students, while 7.9% were out-of-state or international students. Over half of the respondents (53%) were between the ages of 18 and 20, while an additional 31% of respondents were between the ages of 21 and 23. Furthermore, 17% of respondents were over the age of 24. Nearly an equal percentage of respondents identified as white (49.7%) versus non-white (50.3%).

In addition, 50% of respondents identified as a liberal/democrat, 9% identified as conservative/republican, and 41% identified with as "other." More than 41% of respondents

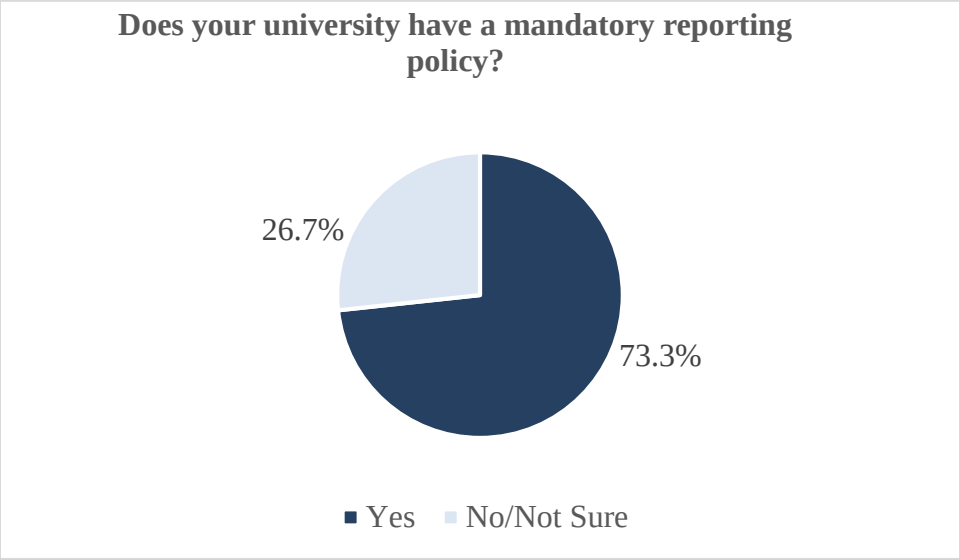
identified as male, 57% identified as female, and 2% identified with another gender identity. Out of all of the respondents, 82% identified as heterosexual/straight, while 18% of respondents identified as another with a different sexual orientation. Furthermore, 64% of respondents reported having a religious association, while 36% reported not having a religious association. Only 24% of respondents identified as being from a city/urban hometown, while 76% stated that their hometowns were rural or suburban. Over half of the respondents (55%) stated their household income was $60,001 or above, while 24% stated their household income was between $30,001 and $60,000, and 22% stated their household incomes were $30,000 or less. A majority of the respondents (70%) personally knew a victim of sexual misconduct, while only 23% of respondents stated they believed they personally knew someone who was falsely accused of sexual misconduct.

As discussed in Chapter III, this research study has six general expectations. The findings for each expectation will be discussed, followed by the results for each hypothesis.

Findings for the General Expectations

Expectation 1: A majority of the students will report having heard of and being aware of the existence of mandatory reporting at their university.

Figure I: University's Mandatory Report Policy



As Figure I illustrates, a majority of student respondents (73%) were aware that their university has an implemented a mandatory reporting policy for sexual misconduct. Notably, only 61% of respondents knew that their university has a Title IX Office.

Expectation 2: A majority of the students will not comprehend the specifics of the mandatory reporting policy, as implemented at their university.

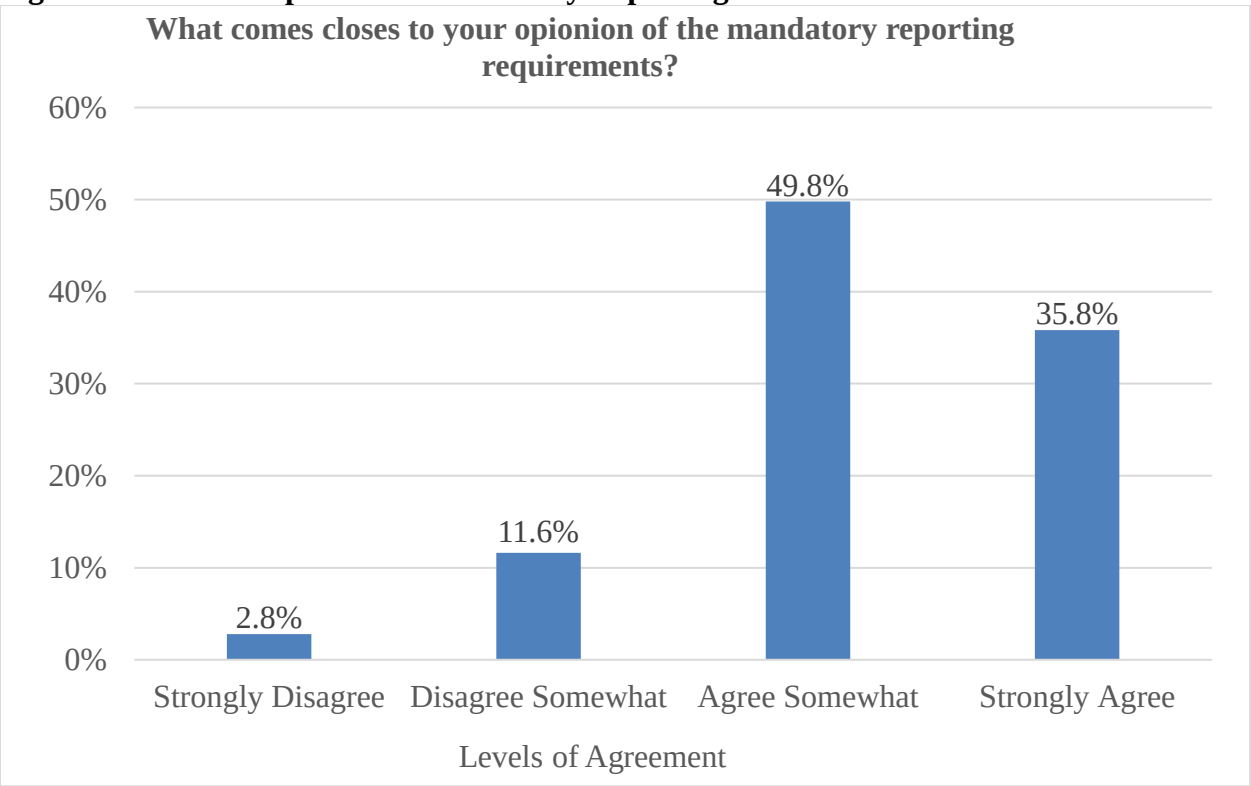
The findings suggest that not many students comprehend the details of the mandatory reporting policy. Only 26% of respondents earned a 75% or higher on the knowledge-based survey questions. In addition, 35% of respondents earned between a 55-67% on the knowledge-based survey questions. Another 38% earned less than 50% on the knowledge-based survey questions.

Expectation 3: A majority of students will support the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses.

As Figure II illustrates below, when examining general support, 86% of students supported or strongly supported the use of mandatory reporting laws at universities for sexual

misconduct. In addition, 3% of respondents strongly opposed the use of mandatory reporting, and 12% somewhat opposed the use of mandatory reporting at universities for sexual conduct.

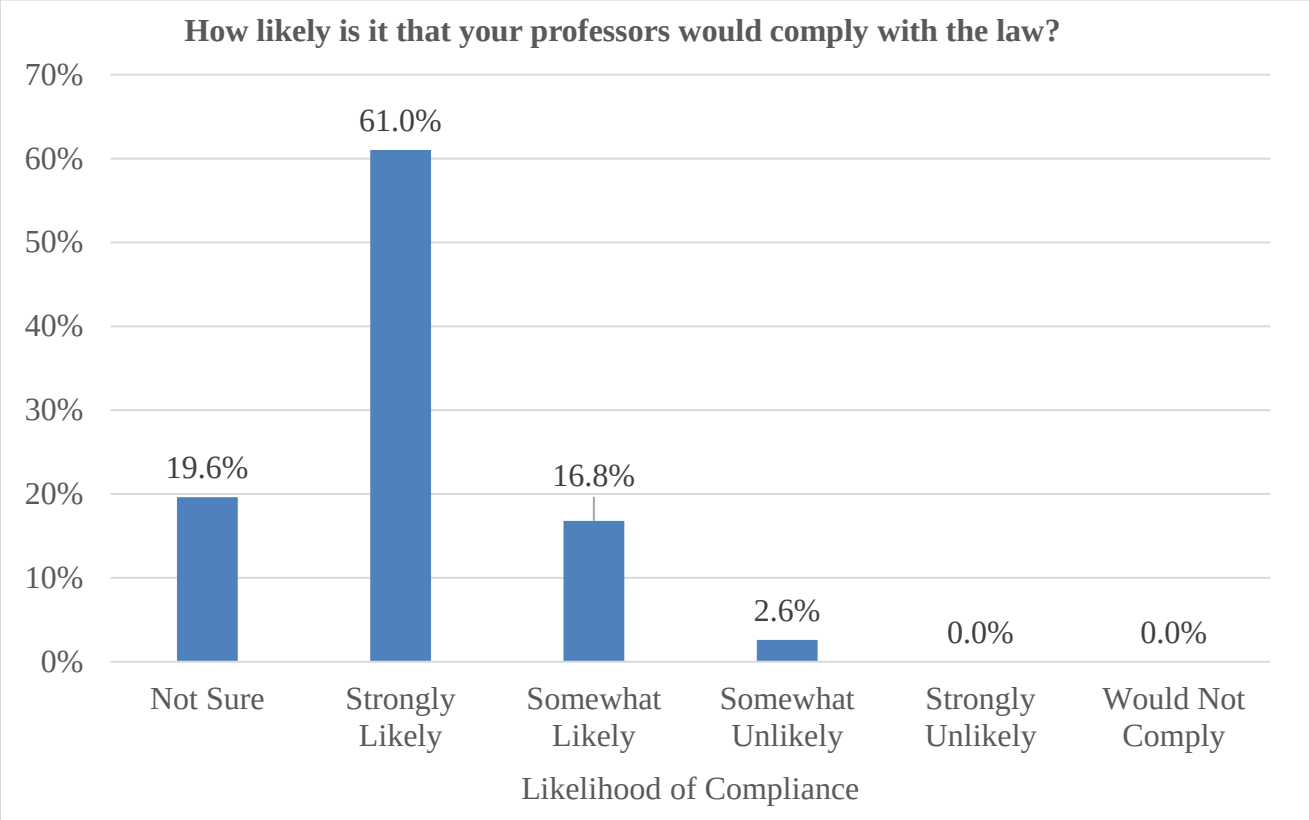
Figure II: General Opinions of Mandatory Reporting



Expectation 4: A majority of the students perceive that faculty will comply with mandatory reporting requirements (Figure III).

Out of 500 respondents, approximately 20% of students stated that they did not know if their professors would comply with the requirement. Nearly 61% of respondents stated that they believed their professors were strongly likely to comply with the requirements, 17% stated that their professors were somewhat likely to comply with requirements, and only 3% of respondents believed their professors were somewhat unlikely to comply with the requirements. In sum, over 77% of respondents believed that faculty would comply with the mandatory reporting requirements.

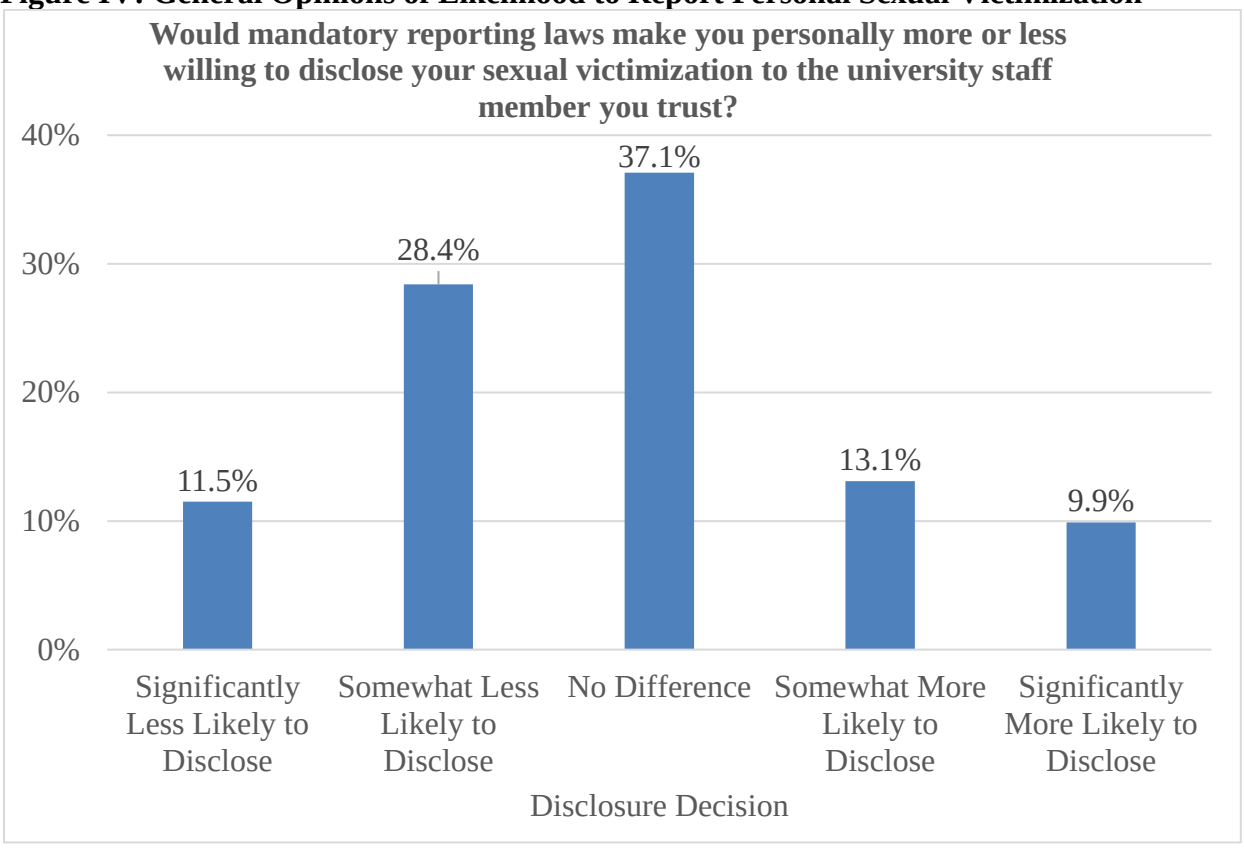
Figure III: Student Perceptions of Faculty Compliance with Mandatory Reporting Requirements



Expectation 5: With mandatory reporting requirements in place, a majority of the students will perceive that there will be an increase in reporting of sexual victimization to university staff.

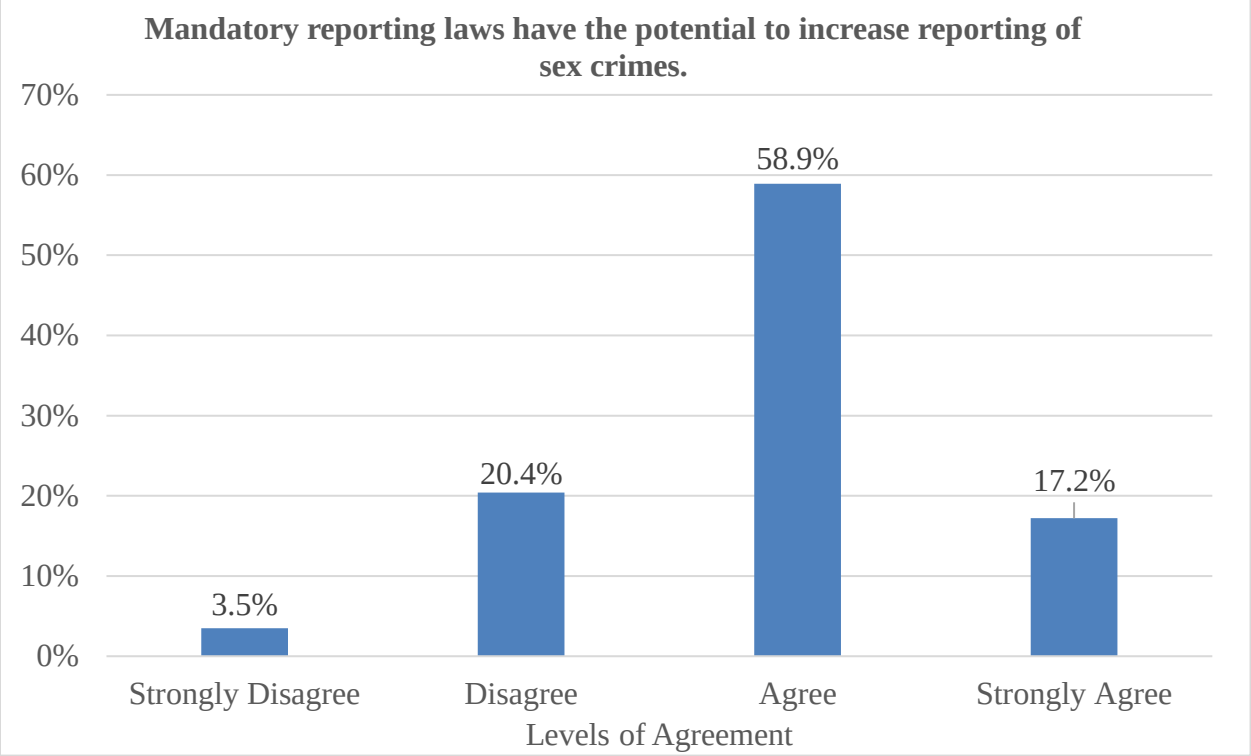
While 86% of respondents supported or strongly supported the use of mandatory reporting laws at universities, only 23% stated that they were somewhat more likely or significantly more likely to disclose personal sexual victimization with compelled disclosure enacted. Furthermore, 40% of respondents stated that they were significantly less likely or somewhat less likely to report personal sexual victimization due to mandatory reporting laws (Figure IV). An additional 37% of students reported that mandatory reporting laws would have no impact on their decision to disclose personal sexual victimization.

Figure IV: General Opinions of Likelihood to Report Personal Sexual Victimization



While 40% of respondents stated that they were significantly less likely or somewhat less likely to report personal sexual victimization due to mandatory reporting laws, 76% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that mandatory reporting laws have the potential to increase reporting of sex crimes (Figure V). About 24% of respondents disagreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Figure V: General Opinions of the Potential to Increase Reporting of Sex Crimes



Expectation 6: With the implementation of mandatory reporting procedures, a majority of the student sample will judge that the university is better able to provide support and assistance to victims.

Out of 494 respondents, approximately 87% stated that they believed that mandatory reporting laws for sexual misconduct have the potential to assist victims better (Figure VI). The remaining 12% of respondents did not believe that mandatory reporting laws could provide better assistance to sexual misconduct victims. In addition, when asked about mandatory reporting laws holding universities accountable, over 90% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement (Figure VII). Less than 10% of respondents stated that they disagreed or strongly disagreed that mandatory reporting laws can hold universities accountable.

Figure VI: General Opinions of the Potential to Better Assist Victims

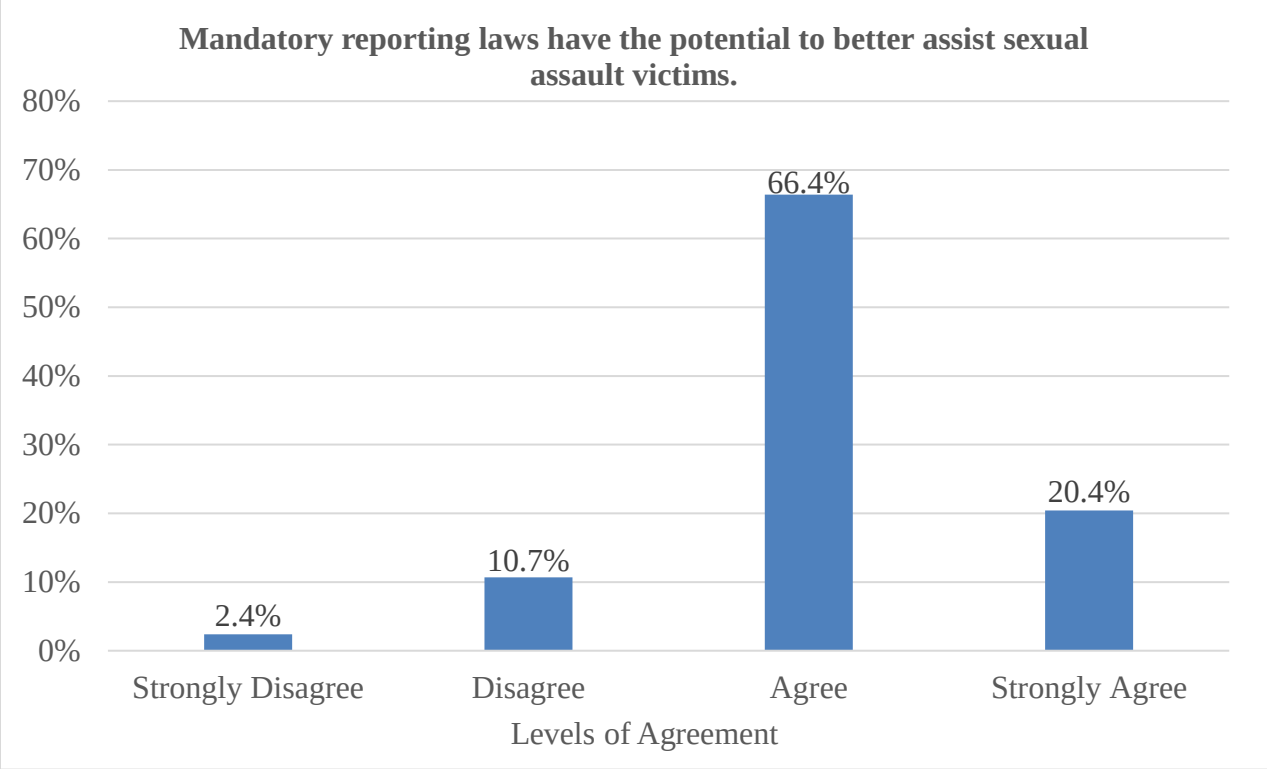
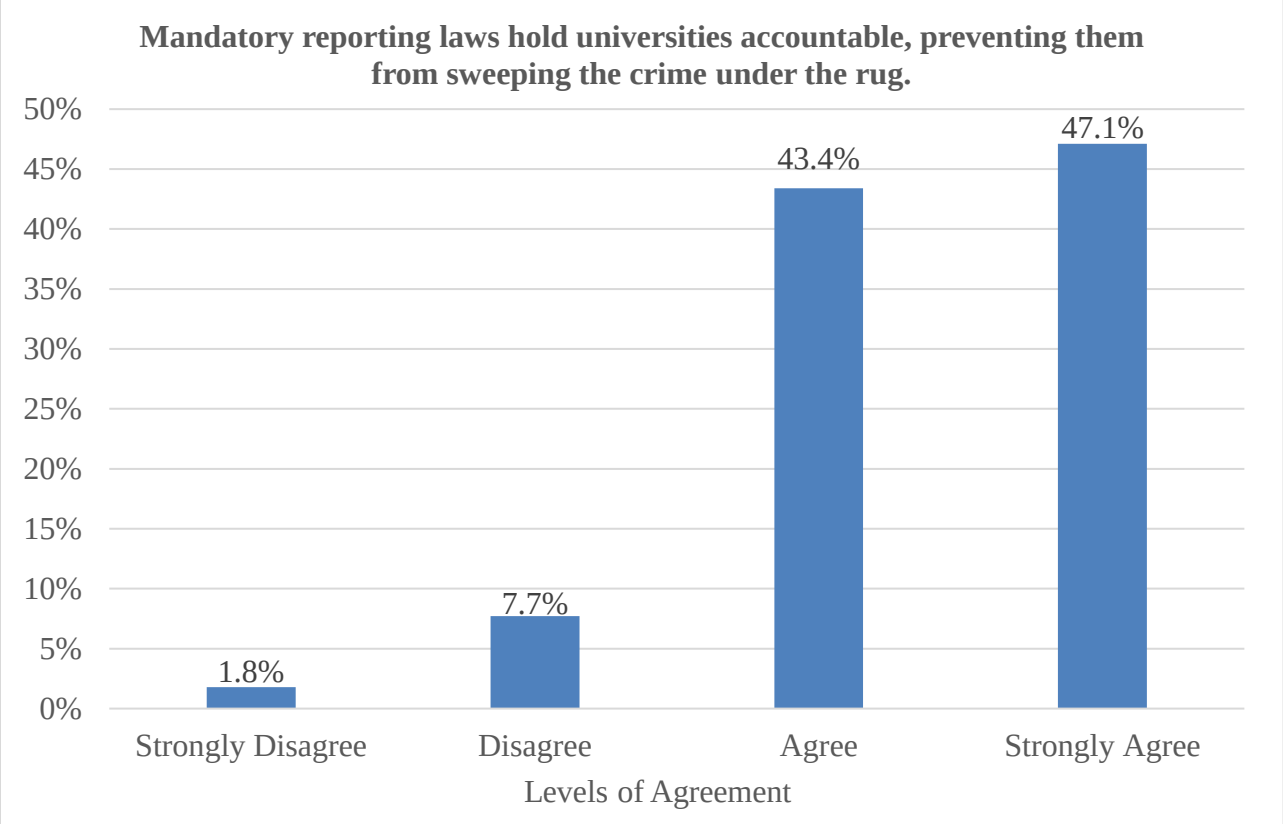


Figure VII: General Opinions of Holding Universities Accountable



Findings for the Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis I Linear Regression Results

Correlation and multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between knowledge and students' general support for mandatory reporting. Numerous potential predictor variables were also included in the model. Table VI below presents this analysis.

Table VI: OLS Regression for General Support of Mandatory Reporting (n=404)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B
	B	Standard Error	Lower-Upper
Knowledge	1.016**	.259	.507 - 1.525
Acceptance of Rape Myths	.207†	.121	-.030 - .445
Class Standing	.159	.201	-.236 - .555
Student Type	.030	.185	-.334 - .393
Age	.048	.061	-.072 - .168
Race/Ethnicity	.082	.106	-.126 - .291
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.278	.191	-.653 - .097
Other	-.096	.106	-.304 - .113
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.119	.110	-.097 - .336
Other	-.510	.363	-1.224 - .204
Sexual Orientation	.217	.135	-.048 - .482
Religious Association	.279*	.114	.056 - .503
Hometown Type	.043	.118	-.189 - .276
Household Income	.047	.062	-.075 - .169
Know a Victim	-.296*	.117	-.526 - -.065
Know Falsely Accused	.094	.117	-.136 - .325
Constant: -1.051	**R^2:**.119	**Adjusted R^2:**.083	
** p < .01	* p < .05	† p < .10[3]	

[3] Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the lower significance value of p <.10 is indicated.

The model accounted for a substantial amount of variance in general support of mandatory reporting laws, $F(16, 388) = 3.281$, $p = .000$; $R^2 = .119$. A few predictor variables emerged as significant. Knowledge ($\beta = .192$, $t(388) = 3.928$, $p = .000$), having higher levels of rape myth acceptance ($\beta = .092$, $t(388) = 1.720$, $p = .086$), and reporting a religious association ($\beta = .135$, $t(388) = -2.454$, $p = .015$) were statistically significant and positively correlated with higher general support of mandatory reporting. Knowing a victim of sexual misconduct ($\beta = -.133$, $t(388) = -2.520$, $p = .012$) was negatively associated with general support of mandatory reporting. Based on the R^2, this model explained 11.9% of the variance. The adjusted $R^2 = .083$.

Hypothesis II Linear Regression Results

Table VII presents the relationship between knowledge and its impact on perceptions of the likelihood to personally report sexual victimization with a mandatory reporting law in place. The same control variables were included in this model.

Table VII: OLS Regression for Likelihood to Personally Report (n=403)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B Lower-Upper
	B	Standard Error	
Knowledge	.421	.264	-.097 - .939
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-.113	.123	-.355 - .130
Class Standing	.029	.203	-.369 - .428
Student Type	-.431*	.189	-.802 - -.061
Age	.071	.061	-.049 - .191
Race/Ethnicity	.114	.108	-.098 - .326
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.034	.196	-.419 - .352
Other	-.062	.108	-.151 - .274
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.131	.113	-.090 - .352
Other	.467	.370	-.261 - 1.194
Sexual Orientation	.004	.139	-.268 - .277
Religious Association	.333**	.116	.105 - .561
Hometown Type	.053	.120	-.183 - .289
Household Income	.005	.064	-.120 - .130
Know a Victim	-.151	.120	-.387 - .084
Know Falsely Accused	-.205†	.119	-.440 - .029
Constant: -.350	**R^2:**.077	**Adjusted R^2:**.039	
* p < .01	** p < .05	† p < .10	

The model accounted for some of the variance in the likelihood to personally report victimization, $F(16, 387) = 2.016$, $p = .011$; $R^2 = .077$. Three variables were significant predictors for this outcome. Reporting a religious association ($\beta = .162$, $t(387) = 2.870$, $p = .004$) was positively correlated with the likelihood to personally report sexual victimization with mandatory reporting enacted. Being an out-of-state/international student ($\beta = -.115$, $t(387) = -2.288$, $p = .023$) and knowing an individual who was falsely accused of sexual misconduct ($\beta = -.088$, $t(387) = -1.720$, $p = .086$) were negatively associated with the likelihood to personally

report sexual victimization with mandatory reporting in place. Overall, 7.7% of variance was explained by this model. The adjusted R^2 = .039.

Hypothesis III Linear Regression Results

This model examined the impact of awareness of the mandatory reporting policy on perceptions of disadvantages of the mandatory reporting law related to sexual victimization.

Table VIII: OLS Regression for Awareness and Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting Policies (n=404)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B Lower-Upper
	B	Standard Error	
Awareness	.213**	.076	.064 - .362
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-.366**	.081	-.524 - -.207
Class Standing	.230**	.137	-.038 - .499
Student Type	-.176	.125	-.422 - .071
Age	.005	.041	-.076 - .086
Race/Ethnicity	.081	.072	-.060 - .222
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.249†	.129	-.503 - .004
Other	-.094	.072	-.236 - .047
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.027	.075	-.120 - .174
Other	-.152	.246	-.635 - .331
Sexual Orientation	.038	.092	-.142 - .218
Religious Association	.161*	.077	0.10 - .313
Hometown Type	.002	.080	-.156 - .159
Household Income	.037	.042	-.045 - .120
Know a Victim	-.048	.079	-.204 - .108
Know Falsely Accused	.067	.079	-.089 - .223
Constant: .221	**R^2:**.129	**Adjusted R^2:**.093	
** p < .01	* p < .05	† p < .10	

The model accounted for a substantial amount of variance in awareness and perceptions of disadvantages of mandatory reporting policies for college campuses: F(16, 388) = 3.592, p = .000; R^2 = .129. Table VIII illustrates that being aware of the university's mandatory reporting

policy (β = .137, *t*(388) = 2.805, p = .005), being a graduate student (β = .177, *t*(388) = 1.686, p = .093), and reporting a religious association (β = .115, *t*(388) = 2.101, p = .036) were positively correlated with the perceptions of disadvantages in mandatory reporting policies. Having a higher level of rape myth acceptance (β = -.239, *t*(388) = -4.540, p = .000) and identifying as conservative/republican compared to identifying as liberal/democrat (β = -.103, *t*(388) = -1.937, p = .053) were all negatively associated with the perceptions of disadvantages in mandatory reporting policies. The model accounted for 12.9% of the variance. The adjusted R^2 = .093.

Hypothesis IV Linear Regression Results

Table IX: OLS Regression for Knowledge and Perceptions of Disadvantages of Mandatory Reporting (n=404)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B
	B	Standard Error	Lower-Upper
Knowledge	.682**	.173	.342 - 1.023
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-.324**	.081	-.483 - -.165
Class Standing	.221	.135	-.044 - .487
Student Type	-.172	.124	-.416 - .071
Age	.007	.041	-.073 - .087
Race/Ethnicity		.071	-.041 - .239
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.305*	.128	-.557 - -.054
Other	-.104	.071	-.244 - .036
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.001	.074	-.144 - .146
Other	-.163	.244	-.641 - .316
Sexual Orientation	.045	.090	-.133 - .222
Religious Association	.146†	.076	-.004 - .296
Hometown Type	.016	.079	-.140 - .171
Household Income	.037	.042	-.045 - .118
Know a Victim	-.040	.079	-.195 - .114
Know Falsely Accused	.049	.079	-.106 - .203
Constant: -.070	**R^2:**.145	**Adjusted R^2:**.110	
** p < .01	* p < .05	† p < .10	

Table IX displays the relationship between knowledge and the perceptions of disadvantages of mandatory reporting laws. Four variables were significantly associated with the perceptions of disadvantages: $F(16, 388) = 4.128$, $p = .000$; $R^2 = .145$. Knowledge ($\beta = .190$, $t(388) = 3.936$, $p = .000$) and reporting a religious association ($\beta = .104$, $t(388) = 1.911$, $p = .057$) were significantly associated with higher perceptions of disadvantages to related mandatory reporting. Having a higher level of rape myth acceptance ($\beta = -.212$, $t(388) = -4.008$, $p = .000$) and identifying as conservative/republican compared to identifying as liberal/democrat ($\beta = -.126$, $t(388) = -2.388$, $p = .017$) were negatively correlated with the perceptions of disadvantages of mandatory reporting laws. The model accounted for 14.5% of the variance. The adjusted $R^2 = .110$.

Hypothesis V Linear Regression Results

The fifth model (Table X) examined the impact of awareness of the mandatory reporting policy on perceptions of the advantages of the mandatory reporting law related to sexual victimization. Three variables emerged as statistically significant. The model accounted for a small amount of the variance in perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting, $F(16, 389) = 1.723$, $p = .040$; $R^2 = .066$. Awareness ($\beta = .115$, $t(389) = 2.273$, $p = .024$) and reporting a religious association ($\beta = .133$, $t(389) = 2.350$, $p = .019$) were statistically significant and associated with higher perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting. Identifying as an "other" political affiliation (not liberal/democrat nor conservative/republican), compared to those who identify as liberal/democrat ($\beta = -.159$, $t(389) = -2.974$, $p = .003$), was negatively correlated with perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting laws related to sexual misconduct. This model accounted for only 6.6% of the total variance. The adjusted $R^2 = .028$.

Table X: OLS Regression for Awareness and Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting (n=405)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B Lower-Upper
	B	Standard Error	
Awareness	.175*	.077	.024 - .326
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-.118	.082	-.279 - .042
Class Standing	.021	.137	-.249 - .290
Student Type	-.176	.127	-.427 - .074
Age	.021	.041	-.060 - .102
Race/Ethnicity	-.009	.073	-.152 - .134
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.129	.131	-.386 - .128
Other	-.217**	.073	-.360 - -.073
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.055	.076	-.094 - .204
Other	-.094	.249	-.585 - .396
Sexual Orientation	-.035	.093	-.218 - .148
Religious Association	.183*	.078	.030 - .336
Hometown Type	.037	.081	-.122 - .196
Household Income	-.005	.043	-.089 - .079
Know a Victim	-.080	.080	-.238 - .078
Know Falsely Accused	.000	.080	-.159 - .158
Constant: .059 **R^2:**.066 **Adjusted R^2:**.028			
** p < .01 * p < .05			

Hypothesis VI Linear Regression Results

The final model examined the impact of knowledge of the mandatory reporting policy on perceptions of the advantages of the mandatory reporting laws related to sexual victimization (Table XI). The model accounted for some of the variance in perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting, $F(16, 389) = 2.614$, $p = .001$; $R^2 = .097$. Three variables emerged as significant. Knowledge ($\beta = .214$, $t(389) = 4.319$, $p = .000$) and reporting a religious association ($\beta = .117$, $t(389) = 2.097$, $p = .037$) were statistically significant and correlated with higher perceptions of advantages of mandatory reporting. Identifying as an "other" political affiliation (not liberal/democrat nor conservative/republican) compared to those who identify as

liberal/democrat (β = -.167, *t*(389) = -3.169, p = .002) was negatively associated with perceptions of the advantages of mandatory reporting laws related to sexual misconduct. This model account for 9.7% of the total variance. The adjusted R^2 = .060.

Table XI: OLS Regression for Knowledge and Perceptions of Advantages of Mandatory Reporting (n=405)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		95% CI for B Lower-Upper
	B	Standard Error	
Knowledge	.753**	.174	.410 - 1.096
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-.070	.081	-.230 - .090
Class Standing	.024	.134	-.241 - .288
Student Type	-.181	.125	-.427 - .065
Age	.021	.040	-.058 - .100
Race/Ethnicity	.010	.072	-.130 - .151
Political Affiliation			
Liberal (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Conservative	-.186	.129	-.439 - .067
Other	-.227**	.072	-.368 - -.086
Gender Identity			
Female (Reference Group)	--	--	--
Male	.030	.074	-.116 - .176
Other	-.110	.245	-.592 - .372
Sexual Orientation	-.035	.091	-.214 - .144
Religious Association	.161*	.077	.010 - .312
Hometown Type	.051	.079	-.105 - .207
Household Income	-.004	.042	-.086 - .079
Know a Victim	-.073	.079	-.229 - .082
Know Falsely Accused	-.019	.079	-.175 - .136
Constant: -.307 **R^2:**.097 **Adjusted R^2:**.060			
** p < .01 * p < .05			

Chapter V: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter will first review the relevance and importance of this study's findings, with special emphasis on contextualizing the results of the current study. From there, the chapter will connect this study's findings to prior literature and discuss the current study's research limitations. Finally, this section will provide considerations for future studies.

Overview of the Study

Prior to the #MeToo and Time's Up movements, sexual misconduct on college campuses was examined and addressed by the Obama administration by publishing multiple *Dear Colleague Letters* and establishing a White House Task Force to protect students from sexual assault (The White House, 2014). According to scholars (Brubaker & Mancini, 2017; Mancini et al., 2016, Rosenthal, 2017), the attention arose largely from sensationalized cases at universities involving alleged sexual misconduct and institutional mismanagement. Illustrative of this media attention was the case of Jerry Sandusky and the accused cover-up by administrative officials at Pennsylvania State University (Mancini et al., 2017; Proffitt & Corrigan, 2012).

While prior literature has documented the broad policy responses to address sexual victimization on college campuses, the public, and more generally, those most affected by the new reforms perceive these policy reforms as a "black box." This is problematic because there have been many changes to Title IX in a relatively short timeframe. Before turning to how the current study addressed some of the void in existing literature, it is important to briefly describe these landmark changes first.

During the Obama administration, the U.S. Department of Education's OCR published a *Dear Colleague Letter* in 2011 and 2015 to provide additional clarifications regarding the application of Title IX, the role of Title IX Offices and coordinators, and recommendation for

using POE as the evidentiary standard in sexual misconduct allegations on college campuses (OCR, 2015a; OCR, 2015b; OCR, 2011a). However, the current administration proposed changes that would reverse the previous guidance. For example, if the proposed guidance changes were approved, at an administrative hearing at a university, which is currently treated as a non-criminal matter, universities could allow cross-examination through parties' advisors, including attorneys, similar to a formal court hearing (OCR, 2018). Regardless of the degree of change, which may occur after the public comment period concludes, lawmakers are still proposing and implementing changes without understanding the perceptions of students. Thus, to address this gap in the literature, the current study aimed to examine students' knowledge, awareness, and perceptions of mandatory reporting related to Title IX at their university. This study is notable on a separate front. After the OCR's recommendation for evidentiary standards was publicized, VCU, the university that was studied, indicated that its current practices would not change due to the university's desire to "carry out its responsibilities to prevent and address discrimination in all forms in [the] university community" (M. Rao, personal communication, September 22, 2017). The findings of this study may provide empirical support, or a lack thereof, for the university's current practices. Furthermore, the results may provide the university with some policy and practical implications after having a better understanding of their students' levels of awareness, knowledge, and perceptions.

Discussion

The current study is unique as it examined attitudes among a sizable number of students (N=501) at an urban and diverse university during a critical time in Title IX policymaking (Fall 2018). The instrument was carefully constructed to address three primary and three secondary research questions, so far, unexplored in campus sexual assault scholarship. The proceeding

paragraphs will summarize the results related to these research questions. In addition, six general expectations were explored. The findings of those expectations will also be discussed.

Given the relative dearth in understanding student perceptions of campus sexual assault reform, several hypotheses were created based on the university's current training, policy, and practices. Hypothesis 1 was that students who are more knowledgeable of mandatory reporting have more general support for the utilization of mandatory reporting than students who are less knowledgeable. The findings support this hypothesis. Higher levels of knowledge (such as knowing that the university has multiple channels of reporting prohibited conduct) had a positive correlation with higher levels of support for utilizing mandatory reporting. In addition, two theoretically relevant variables also emerged as statistically significant. Having higher levels of rape myth acceptance (the notion of an individual "asking" to be sexually assaulted if they dress in a promiscuous or provocative manner) and reporting a religious association were statistically significant. The findings also suggest that individuals who know a victim of sexual misconduct were less likely to approve of mandatory reporting.

While little empirical research has identified the causal mechanism behind knowledge and general support, a potential explanation may exist. One possibility is that individuals who had higher knowledge of mandatory reporting better understand its goals, implementation, and possible benefits to victims and public safety, thus, for those reasons may endorse greater approval for it as compared to students who report less knowledge.

Of course, this finding is generalizable only to the current sample under study, which includes students majoring in the public policy sciences at a large, public university. It may be that such a relationship does not exist at other institutions. Future research should thus model a similar analysis on diverse and varied populations, such as a community college, an all-male or-

female university, and a college in a rural setting. The study also discovered that students evincing higher levels of rape myth acceptance (such as the notion that if an individual sends explicit text messages or images, they have consented to sexual activity) expressed greater support for mandatory reporting. This relationship could exist because individuals with higher levels of rape myth acceptance could potentially believe that this process would only target "true victims" of sexual assault (Maier, 2008; Williams, 1984). Previous literature has found that individuals with higher levels of rape myth acceptance also tend to have a vision of what a "true" rape victim stereotypically encompasses (e.g., clear evidence of the crime, the crime was reported immediately, obvious injuries and apparent emotional distress) (Hockett, Smith, Klausing, Saucier, 2016; Maier, 2008; Williams, 1984). Clearly, this point is speculative, but future scholarship could investigate this idea by testing similar hypotheses on diverse populations, such as a smaller college institution or private colleges.

The possible reasoning for the relationship between reporting an association with a religious organization and general support for mandatory reporting policies is somewhat unclear. Several sensationalized sex scandals connected to various religious organizations and leaders, such as churches, may be related to why individuals who report religious association may have higher levels of support for mandatory reporting laws for sexual misconduct. This was somewhat consistent with a finding of another study (Mancini & Shields, 2014). Despite the widespread media coverage of the "cover-ups" of sexual misconduct amongst the Catholic Church, a 2010 national telephone poll found that most American Catholics expressed that the church can effectively address sex crimes (Mancini & Shields, 2014). Furthermore, while in most states religious leaders are exempt from mandatory reporting laws, in some states (Sandstrom, 2016) religious leaders are considered mandatory reporters. It follows, then, that students active in

religious organizations may be more receptive to extending mandatory reporting laws to the college setting.

Arguably, students familiar with individuals who have experienced campus sex assault may be in a position to understand the issues and struggles involved with being victimized and thus may hold unique views compared to those who do not know victims. Little a priori work exists that speaks to this effect. However, in a national study examining public attitudes toward sex crime laws, Mancini and Mears (2010) found that vicarious victimization (i.e., "Do you have a relative or a close friend who has been sexually abused as a child or raped as an adult," p. 963) *reduced* support for executing sex offenders. In that study, the authors surmised that given that a sex crime is often highly intimate, involving known perpetrators, support declined as such individuals likely knew the victim and perpetrator and, thus, had conflicted feelings regarding capital punishment. Of course, campus sex assault is unique given the population, setting, and extent of accountability, and thus a study of national views may not be generalizable. With that caveat in mind, extending the general logic articulated in Mancini and Mears (2010), perhaps a negative effect of vicarious victimization was observed here since, under mandated disclosure laws, it is possible for victims to lose autonomy and decision-making power. Therefore, given this sensitizing effect, it is possible that individuals who know sexual misconduct victims are less likely to support campus mandatory reporting laws.

Recall that hypothesis 2 stated students who are more familiar with mandatory reporting demonstrate a higher likelihood to personally report victimization than students who are less knowledgeable. This hypothesis was not supported as the multivariate analysis indicates. However, three other theoretically relevant variables did emerge as statistically significant. For instance, individuals who reported a religious association perceived having a higher likelihood of

reporting personal victimization. Once again, existing research does not elaborate on why this relationship may exist; however, it is possible that because religious leaders may be considered as mandatory reporters, their likelihood to report personal victimization may be higher. This question should be examined by future research. In addition, being an out-of-state or international student and knowing an individual who was falsely accused of sexual misconduct were related to being less likely to report personal sexual victimization. While existing research cannot assist with explaining these associations, some plausible explanations stand out. An "outside" effect may exist with non-Virginia students, compared to in-state students. This "outside" effect may be related to the fact that out-of-state and international students may be further away from natural supports they would otherwise have at home, such as family and close friends; therefore, they are less likely to disclose victimization to authorities (generally Fisher et al., 2000 and Spencer et al., 2017). In addition, individuals feeling like they know someone who was falsely accused of sexual misconduct may have knowledge of the difficulties the accused individual faced during the investigation and any lingering effects. These individuals may have perceived that the system and mandatory reporting laws do not work effectively and, therefore, they are less likely to report personal sexual victimization because the system may not work for them. Future research should examine this finding.

In contrast, the third hypothesis argued that students who are more aware of Title IX mandatory reporting policy perceive fewer negative effects of mandatory reporting than students who are less aware. Respondents who were aware of the university's mandatory reporting policy, were a graduate student, or reported a religious association were more likely to perceive negative effects of mandatory reporting (the notion of mandatory report laws decreasing the accused individual's due process), whereas individuals who have higher levels of rape myth acceptance

(the notion that if the accused does not have a weapon during the incident, the exchange cannot be categorized as sexual assault) and those who identified as conservative/republican were less likely to perceive negative effects of mandatory reporting. It is plausible that individuals who were aware of the university's mandatory reporting policy also may be aware of the negative outcomes of the mandatory reporting policy (such as wasting university resources for various reasons). In addition, graduate students potentially may have been more aware of negative outcomes, such as deterring rape victims from coming forward and disclosing the incident to university officials, compared to their younger counterparts due to their matured critical thinking skills. Individuals who reported a religious association were also more likely to perceive the negative effects of mandatory reporting. This may be the result of the existence of other forms of mandatory reporting in religious organizations (Mancini & Shields, 2014). Through their potential exposure of such negative outcomes, they may also have perceived these or similar negative outcomes (such as a decrease in the accused individual's due process) being an issue for the mandatory reporting on college campuses involving sexual victimization (Mancini & Shields, 2014). Future research should examine these findings more in depth.

On the contrary, individuals who have higher levels of rape myth acceptance (such as the notion of if an individual initiates kissing or "hooking up," then they should not be surprised if the other person assumes they want to have sex) were less likely to perceive the negative outcomes related to mandatory reporting. This could be because individuals who have higher levels of rape myth acceptance do not know various facts related to sexual misconduct, therefore, they may not be able to associate that knowledge to larger framework, such as mandatory reporting for sexual misconduct (Barnett, Sligar, & Wang, 2018). Individuals who identify as conservative/republican compared to those who identify as liberal/democrat were also less likely

to view the disadvantages in mandatory reporting policies (such as discouraging victims from seeking university support services). This finding is logical because studies have found that individuals who are conservative also tend to support more punitive sanctions for sex offenders (Levenson, Fortney, & Baker, 2010). Consequently, it is possible that conservative individuals may view mandatory reporting as a measure to identify perpetrators and allocate punitive sanctions. However, in order to develop a better understanding of these findings, future research is required. In addition, a recent study, which is consistent with previous studies, found that individuals who are conservative also have higher levels of rape myth acceptance (Barnett, Sligar, & Wang, 2018; Wilson 2013). Wilson (2013) defined conservatism as a "sense of resistance to change and the tendency to prefer safe, traditional and conventional forms of institutions and behavior" (p.4); therefore, the researchers suggest that due to conventional views on behaviors, conservative individuals may be more likely to view the victim as responsible for the incident (Barnett, Sligar, & Wang, 2018). Additional research examining political affiliation, perceptions of appropriate sanctions, and rape myth acceptance is necessary to understand the interaction of these characteristics.

The researcher also hypothesized that students who are more knowledgeable about mandatory reporting (such as reports of sexual misconduct must be made in good faith or the university offers remedial or protective measures to the complainant) would perceive fewer negative effects of mandatory reporting than students who are less knowledgeable. This hypothesis is related to the third hypothesis. The study's findings indicated that those who were more knowledgeable and who reported a religious association were more likely to perceive negative effects of mandatory reporting, such as the reduction of due process for the accused. Individuals who were knowledgeable may be able to recognize the disadvantages connected to

the issue better than individuals who were not as knowledgeable. As mentioned previously, individuals who report a religious association may have potential exposure to negative outcomes associated with mandatory reporting laws; therefore, they may be able to perceive these or similar disadvantages related to mandatory reporting for sexual victimization on college campuses.

The fifth and sixth hypotheses were also related. The fifth hypothesis stated that students who were more aware of the mandatory reporting policy would perceive more positive effects of mandatory reporting than students who were less aware. The sixth hypothesis stated that students who are more knowledgeable perceive more positive effects of mandatory reporting (such as the notion of reducing stigma associated with survivors of sexual misconduct) than students who are less knowledgeable. Respondents who were aware and knowledgeable and reported a religious association were more likely to perceive positive outcomes of mandatory reporting. Individuals who were aware and/or knowledgeable may be better able to recognize the advantages (such as the notion of increasing perceptions of safety and justice at the university) and disadvantages related to mandatory reporting (such as the notion of having the potential to waste university resources) than individuals who were not as aware nor knowledgeable. In summary, individuals who were more aware and knowledgeable were more likely to have balanced views on the positive and negative effects of mandatory reporting policy. This finding was consistent with existing research. For example, a pilot study conducted at a large Midwestern university examined the variance of students with criminal justice majors and students with non-criminal justice majors. The study found that individuals in the criminal justice programs' perceptions of due process, harsh punishments, and equal sanctions for all races were very different and showed more balanced views from those who were in other majors (Tsoudis, 2000). In another study, a

national poll examining the public's support for sex offender treatment found that nearly 75% of respondents supported the use of sex offender treatment; although, many studies have found that the public supports punitive measures for sex offenders (Mancini & Budd, 2016). Some researchers also argue that asking balanced survey questions (not only focusing on the "bad" or "good" related to a subject) can yield a better understanding of the public's perceptions (Mancini & Budd, 2016; Cullen, Fisher, & Applegate, 2000). The current study examined both the potential advantages and disadvantages of mandatory reporting, so it is logical to assume that were able to recognize the potential positives and negatives associated with compelled disclosure.

Furthermore, individuals who reported a religious association may have had potential exposure to the positive outcome associated with mandatory reporting laws (such as the notion of holding universities accountable and preventing them from sweeping sexual misconduct violations "under the rug"), in addition to the negative outcomes; therefore, they may have been able to perceive these or similar advantages related to mandatory reporting for sexual victimization on college campuses. In addition, individuals who identified as an "other" political affiliation (not liberal/democrat nor conservative/republican) were less likely to perceive the advantages of mandatory reporting. Existing research has found mixed results. For example, one study has found that political ideology does not have a significant effect on the American public's perceptions and attitudes related to sex crime policies and legislation (Mears, Mancini, Gertz & Bratton, 2008). Yet, another study found conservatives, compared to those who identified as moderate or liberal, have significantly less support for rehabilitative reforms for sex offenders (Pickett, Mancini, & Mears, 2013). However, these studies did not examine students' perceptions. Additional research should be conducted to examine the perceived advantages and

disadvantages of mandatory reporting and how these perceptions relate to individual-level characteristics, such as religiosity and political involvement. Future research should also be conducted amongst diverse populations, such as religious universities.

The study examined six general expectations. These expectations were based on a very limited existing research. The researcher heavily relied upon a study conducted by Mancini and colleagues (2016) because this study attempts to extend their study's findings.

The first expectation was that a majority of the students were aware of the existence of mandatory reporting at their university due to the existence of the university's required training. The study's findings support this expectation, as the results indicate that over 73% of respondents were aware of the mandatory reporting policy enacted at their university. While not all respondents were aware of the university's mandatory reporting policy, a majority of the respondents were aware. However, the university may want to consider utilizing other forms of notifications/reminders to the student body of this requirement. Anecdotally, some professors have added statements to their courses' syllabi to inform students at the beginning of each semester. This and other methods may be useful in increasing awareness.

Because this training lacks a review of the specifics of the university's mandatory reporting policy, the second expectation was that majority of the students would not comprehend the specifics of the mandatory reporting procedure, as implemented at their university. The study's results also support this expectation, as only approximately 25% of respondents earned 75% or more on the knowledge-based survey questions. This means that over three-fourths of the respondents earned a D grade or below on the knowledge-based survey questions. In order to educate and gauge the students' understanding of the mandatory reporting policy, VCU should consider a revised training curriculum or the creation of a separate curriculum specific to the

university's policy. In addition, as Taylor (2018) suggests, the students' level of reading comprehension may be an issue. While this study does not examine if reading comprehension is a barrier for understanding the training materials, VCU and/or future research should examine this angle as well in order to increase their students' knowledge about Title IX, their university's mandatory reporting policy, and how to report such victimization if needed.

A survey conducted by Mancini et al. (2016) examined the perceptions of students from a large, public university and found that over 66% of student respondents supported the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses; thus, the researcher expected to find similar results as the third expectation. This study found that over 85% of students supported or strongly supported the use of mandatory reporting for sexual victimization at their university. Notably, this study found a higher percentage of students supported mandatory reporting than Mancini et al. (2016), but it is also notable that the final sample size was also larger in the current study. The use of mandatory reporting at universities is a state law in Virginia; therefore, future legislation, which may review or alter this current practice, should consider this finding.

The fourth expectation for this study was that a majority of students would perceive that faculty would comply with mandatory reporting requirements. This expectation was based on a separate study (Mancini et al., 2016), which found that over 87% of student respondents believed that their faculty were likely or very likely to comply with mandatory reporting requirements. The results of this study indicated that nearly 78% of respondents perceived that their faculty were likely or very likely to comply with the mandatory reporting law; however, nearly 20% of students stated that they did not know if their faculty would comply. Future research should consider examining the perceptions of those who are responsible employees. In addition to students' views, gaining insight from responsible employees about their self-compliance, views,

and hesitations will create a better understanding of intended goals, which may not be met, and allow for more effective corrective action.

Mancini et al. (2016) also found that 56% of student respondents perceived that their likelihood to report personal sexual victimization would increase, 29% of students perceived no impact on their decision to report personal sexual victimization, and 15% of students perceived their likelihood to report sexual victimization would decrease. As such, this study expected to find that with mandatory reporting requirements enacted, a majority of students would perceive that there would be an increase in the reporting of sexual victimization to university staff. This study found that only 23% of respondents stated they were somewhat more likely or significantly more likely to disclose personal sexual victimization with a mandatory reporting policy in place. In addition, approximately 40% of respondents stated that they were somewhat less likely or significantly less likely to report personal sexual victimization, and 37% of respondents stated that mandatory reporting laws would have no impact on their decision to report sexual victimization. The results indicate mixed support for this expectation. Similar to the Mancini et al. (2016), a majority of respondents indicated that they would be more likely to disclose or that mandatory reporting laws would not influence their decision. However in the current study, an additional 25% of respondents stated that they were less likely to report personal victimization. This is an interesting finding because over 70% of respondents supported the use of mandatory reporting at their university. These seemingly contrasting findings are still consistent with existing literature. For example, Smith (2000) found that a majority of intimate partner violence victims supported the use of mandatory reporting interventions, but a majority of victims also believed that those interventions would be more beneficial to others rather than themselves.

While this study did not exclusively examine victims of sexual misconduct, students are the main population who are impacted directly by the mandatory reporting requirement.

The final expectation was also based on the results of the study conducted by Mancini et al. (2016). The study found that over 80% of student respondents perceived that mandatory reporting laws can better assist sexual misconduct victims and can increase university accountability (Mancini et al., 2016). Based on these findings, the researcher also expected to find similar results; this expectation was also met. The present study found that approximately 87% of respondents believed that mandatory reporting laws may better assist sexual assault victims. Additionally, over 90% of respondents believed that mandatory reporting laws could hold the university accountable by preventing the institution from veiling crimes. While the intended goals of mandatory reporting laws may or may not be met, students do perceive that mandatory reporting laws have the potential to better assist victims and hold universities accountable.

Limitations

As in the case of all research studies, this project had several limitations. A convenience sample was utilized due to a lack of access to student email listserv, per the college's policy. Future research should consider using a more representative and generalizable student sample (McMillan, 2016). The survey instrument used some questions from validated tools; however, some questions were specifically used to address the university's policy and practices. While reliability scales were conducted to evaluate the quality of a scale, future research should evaluate the survey instrument by conducting confirmatory factor analysis to validate the instrument and provide evidence based on internal structure (McMillian, 2016). This survey did not ask about academic disciplines/fields. Future research should consider asking about the

respondent's discipline in order to see if there are meaningful differences between fields, as extant literature has found that respondents in a related academic field are more likely to have balanced views on a specific topic compared to those who are enrolled in other majors (Tsoudis, 2000). In addition, the survey consisted of over 70 questions. Numerous respondents verbally expressed survey fatigue to the researcher due to the length of the survey, which could have influenced the respondents' attention to the questions and response options.

Research Implications

This research study examined awareness and knowledge as predictor variables. Future research should also examine these variables as outcome variables to inspect if there are meaningful differences between those who were and were not aware and knowledgeable. Religious association was a significant predictor in several regression models; however, no existing research can provide an explanation or understanding of why religious association connects with sexual victimization on college campuses and specifically related mandatory reporting laws. Future research should examine levels of religiosity and awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting laws related to sexual victimization on college campuses and other populations, as this study asked only about religious association and not level of religiosity. While it is known that over 85% of respondents supported the use of mandatory reporting at their university, future research should consider examining the reasons behind the support or lack of support for this policy in order to understand the issue from all sides better. In addition, future research should consider examining the awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of those considered responsible employees, as little attention has been given to this important topic. Furthermore, based on the knowledge-based questions included in this survey, it was evident that retaining and perhaps comprehending the university's policy may be an area of

concern. Future research should consider evaluating the reading comprehension of students compare to that of the mandatory reporting policy.

Recall that VCU's mandatory reporting policy requires responsible employees to report sexual misconduct allegations to the university's Title IX office, which in turn may or may not result in a notification to law enforcement. Other states' and universities' mandatory reporting practices do vary. For example, some require responsible employees to have a discussion with the alleged victim and to inform them of the available services, while others may require responsible employees inform the Title IX office and law enforcement. The various types of mandatory interventions and reporting requirements should be examined by future research.

The debate of Title IX has become a politicalized topic (McWilliams, 2019). Much of the conflict has risen from the discussions regarding the due process rights for the accused, while balancing prevention of sexualized environments by protecting student victims (McWilliams, 2019). The limited extant scholarship has assessed the public's perceptions of compelled disclosure requirements on college campuses (Rosenthal, 2017), students' reading comprehension of instructions on how to report sexual assault (Taylor, 2018), and students' perceptions of positive and negative outcomes related to mandatory reporting (Mancini et al., 2016; Newins & White, 2018; VCU, 2015). Thus, existing literature has not examined other aspects of perceptions (e.g., students' perceptions of due process, the appropriate evidentiary standard that should be utilized by universities, perceptions of false allegations, and whether colleges' Title IX Offices are the appropriate forum to address sexual misconduct allegations). Regardless of the motivations behind the frequent changes to the federal guidance, expectations are being set without the evaluation of students' perceptions and opinions.

While the current research study focused on students' perceptions of mandatory reporting, the survey instrument included these additional important questions related to students' perceptions. Consequently, future research should examine how students perceive these various points, which are debated politically. The findings from this study suggested that nearly 68% of students agree or strongly agree with the notion that mandatory reporting laws decrease the accused individual's due process; however, the results also found that 86% of students believe that the university's Title IX Office and review committee are the appropriate forums to address sexual misconduct allegations. Additional, approximately 72% students disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that sexual misconduct allegations should be only addressed in the criminal justice system. Furthermore, when asked about the appropriate evidentiary standard that should be utilized for Title IX investigations, 30% of students answered POE, 42% of students stated clear and convincing evidence, and 26% of students believed that beyond a reasonable doubt is most appropriate. Lastly, when asked about their perceptions of false allegations on college campuses, only one-third of the students believed that 10% or less of all allegations are false. The remaining two-thirds stated that false sexual misconduct allegations on college campuses varied from 11% to 90%. Existing research found that that the prevalence rates for false sexual misconduct allegations vary between two percent and 10% (Lisak, Gardinier, Nicksa, & Cote, 2010; National Sexual Violence Resource Center 2012). However, some researchers have argued that the prevalence of false accusations is unknown and/or inaccurate due to the variance in how "false accusation" was defined in each existing study (O'Neal, Spohn, Tellis & White, 2014). Additional research into students' perceptions and how their views equate to research findings may be indicative of the need for additional training and educational programming. Furthermore, an evaluation of students' perceptions is also critical

because college students may serve as future law enforcement, university staff and officials, policymakers, advocates, government officials, etc. Consequently, it is important to tailor programs and trainings in a responsible and nonbiased manner to create well-equipped, well-informed students who are prepared for the working world.

Interestingly, this study also found that 59% of students agreed or strongly agreed that while mandatory reporting laws decrease the accused individual's due process, the university's Title IX Office and review committee is an appropriate forum to address sexual misconduct allegations. On the other hand, eight percent of students agreed or strongly agreed that mandatory reporting laws decrease due process for the accused, but disagreed or strongly disagreed that the university's Title IX Office and review committee is an appropriate forum to address sexual misconduct allegations. It is important for future research to evaluate students' views further because it would allow the university officials and policymakers to revise guidelines, policies, and practices in an informed, evidence-based, and non-politicalized manner.

Finally, future research should utilize robust models to examine the interaction effects between the various predictor, outcome, and control variables. Examining interaction effects, such as the relationship between being politically conservative and having a religious association are both viewed as traditional and conservative institutions, may have a compounding effect on the relationship between the predictor and outcome variables.

Policy Implications

The study's findings have several policy implications. As mentioned previously, while the majority of students were aware of the mandatory reporting policy, they do not comprehend the specifics of the university's policy. This study is not the first to identify this general pattern (generally Taylor, 2018). The university studied should consider revising their required training

for students to include specifics regarding their mandatory reporting policy. Currently, the utilized training and required post-test focus on consent for sexual activity, the prevalence of sexual assault, dating and domestic violence, components of healthy relationships, examples of sexual harassment, and stalking. However, the mandatory training fails to discuss the specifics related the university's policy and practices. Consequently, a revision or an expansion of the training, including policy-specific lectures, notes, and post-training quiz questions could be beneficial. Improving the existing training by making it more "interesting" and attention grabbing could be an effective change. For example, including scenario-based, vignette-style, and interactive training and knowledge questions may improve the students' awareness and comprehension of the important material from the university's policy.

In addition, while the majority of students supported the use of mandatory reporting on college campuses, many students reported that they were less likely to disclose victimization to university officials with mandatory reporting enacted. This study is also consistent with extant literature (Mancini et. al, 2016; generally Smith, 2000). For unknown reasons, existing literature has found that individuals were more likely to believe that mandatory interventions would be more beneficial to other people, compared to themselves (Smith, 2000). It would be beneficial for universities and policy-makers if there was an in-depth qualitative examination of why some students believe that that they are less likely to disclose victimization to the university with enacted compelled reporting, although they support the utilization of mandatory reporting.

To address this potential decrease in reporting of sexual victimization, the university should implement additional methods to encourage victims to report the incident and to seek services and support. For example, posting fliers to remind students how to report sexual misconduct and methods to seek services, or periodically posting a video or text reminder in the

telegRAM (a daily email to inform students of events, opportunities, and reminders, such as the last day to add/drop a course, or when the mandatory training must be completed by) could serve as an inexpensive, quick and frequent exposure to students. Moreover, prior to implementing potentially expensive or inefficient methods, an in-depth analysis of students' reasons of non-disclosure is vital. An additional evaluation is important because the university may be burdening their faculty and staff with a requirement, which may not fully meet its intended goal of decreasing the number of unreported sexual misconduct incidents (Holland, Cortina, & Freyd, 2018).

During the university's annual review of the policy, the policy's reading grade level should be taken into consideration. While it is evident that many students do not recall the specifics of the policy, it may be a result of students not being able to read and comprehend the provided information (Taylor, 2018). This can be achieved by several different methods. Initially, the university could examine the Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level in Microsoft Word or another application to understand how easy it is for an "average" individual to read this document, and determine the documents' reading grade level. In order to make an informed decision about revisions to the policy due to students' lack of comprehension, input from student organizations, such as the Student Government Association, Students Advocating Violence Education and Support, etc. would provide the university with a unique and valuable perspective. The inclusion of students' perspectives will also provide the university with understanding if the policy's comprehension concerns are related to other issues besides the readability.

The inclusion of students' view can also be beneficial to the university for a different reason. Research examining the perception of procedural justice with a variety of populations

have found that voice, the concept of participating in a process and providing input, can play a significant role in promoting perceptions of fairness and justice (Baker, Pickett, Amin, Golden, Dhungana, Gertz, & Bedard, 2015; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1994). Therefore, the university should consider adding new methods to engage the students in sharing their views, hesitations, questions, and/or concerns with the university officials who revise the university's policy. Conducting focus groups to include diverse students (e.g., consider gender identities, sexual orientation, racial minorities, students who were victims, individuals who were accused of an unfounded allegation, student advocates, campus leaders, students with various academic backgrounds) may be an effective way to encourage student participation by exercising their voice, to evaluate the policy, and its impact on the student body (generally, Baker et. al., 2015; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1994).

In conjunction with seeking students' perspective, an objective method can also be implemented by the university. Many government agencies and private organization utilize performance measures. Performance measures are "particular values used to measure program outputs or outcomes" (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency, 2019, p.1). Put differently, performance measures allow entities to evaluate program's effectiveness, delivery of services, and quality of services. Based on the university' *Title IX at VCU 2015-2017 Biennial Progress Report*, climate surveys are conducted; however, it is unclear what performance measures, if any, are tracked and employed during the decision-making process. Performance measures may include the percent of students and staff who understand the university's policy, staff who report self-compliance, percent of alleged victims who received services, and more. The implementation and publication of the performance measures' results can develop strong transparency with the VCU community and assist the university in making evidence-based

decisions regarding the university's policy, training materials, support services, and resources, while using resources wisely and effectively.

Conclusion

The media has covered sexual misconduct on college campuses by presenting sensationalized cases in recent years (Brubaker & Mancini, 2017; Rosenthal, 2017). In order to overcome the issue of universities turning a blind eye to the issue, coupled with tackling the issue of underreporting of sexual victimization, Title IX compliance and mandatory reporting has been enacted in some states (Mancini et al., 2017; Proffit & Corrigan, 2012). While the policy may have good intentions to protect vulnerable students, prior to this study, many questions remained unanswered. Do students support the use of mandatory reporting? Do students comprehend their university's mandatory reporting policy? Are students even aware that their university has enacted a mandatory reporting policy? Even several revisions to the *Dear Colleague Letters* have failed to ask and consider these questions prior to implementation.

The current study attempted to expand the very limited existing research related to the awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting of sexual victimization on college campuses. Traditional pen-and-papers were distributed to over 500 college students. While the majority of the expectations could be linked to existing research, most of the findings for each hypothesis could not be connected to priori knowledge. For example, it is unclear why having a religious association emerged as significant for every hypothesis. The study clearly finds that a majority of students support the use of mandatory reporting, but it also found some respondents were less likely to report personal sexual victimization with mandatory reporting enacted. While this study has discovered some interesting results, future research should expand upon the current study by examining the perceptions of those who are responsible employees and

whether the intended goals of compelled disclosure are being met. The expansion of this study by future research is not only imperative for the purposes of research and public policy, but also for equity and justice, as this sensitive and personal topic has become the center of political debates and frequent policy changes.

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Appendix A: Definitions from VCU's Sexual Misconduct/Violence and Sex/Gender Discrimination Policy

The following definitions are used by VCU's Sexual Misconduct/Violence and Sex/Gender Discrimination Policy. This policy was approved on March 3, 2016. These definitions provide context for how the university specifically defines certain prohibited acts.

1. Sexual Assault

   "The following behaviors constitute sexual assault. All forms of sexual assault are serious offenses and will result in VCU disciplinary consequences.

   - Non-Consensual Sexual Penetration: Any act of vaginal or anal penetration by a person's penis, finger, other body part or an object, or oral penetration by genitalia without consent.
   - Non-Consensual Sexual Contact: Any sexual touching without consent, other than non-consensual sexual penetration. Examples of non-consensual sexual contact may include: genital-genital or oral-genital contact not involving penetration; contact with breasts, buttocks or genital area, including over clothing; removing the clothing of another person; and kissing" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 13-14).

2. Sexual Exploitation

   "Sexual Exploitation occurs when one person takes non-consensual abusive sexual advances of another person, whether for their own benefits or the benefit of another person. Examples include any of the following:

- Causing the incapacitation of another person (through alcohol, drugs or other means) for the purpose of compromising that person's ability to give Affirmative Consent to sexual activity
- Allowing third parties to observe private sexual activities from a hidden location (e.g., closet) or through electronic means (e.g., Skype or livestreaming of images)
- Engaging in voyeurism (e.g., watching private sexual activity without the consent of all participants or viewing another person's intimate parts, including genitalia, groin, breasts or buttocks, in a place where that person would have a reasonable expectation of privacy)
- Recording or photographing private sexual activity and/or a person's intimate parts, including genitalia, groin, breasts or buttocks, without consent
- Disseminating or posting images of private sexual activity and/or a person's intimate parts genitalia, groin, breasts or buttocks, without consent
- Sexually-based stalking, hazing and/or bullying
- Prostituting another person
- Intentionally exposing another person to a sexual transmitted infection or virus without the other's knowledge" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 14).

3. Partner or Relationship Violence

"Partner or Relationship Violence involves any of the following prohibited behaviors, defined in relation to or under VAWA [Violence Against Women Act of 1994]:

- Intimate Relationship Violence (also known as dating violence or intimate partner violence): acts of violence, threat or intimidation that harm or injure a partner in a

current or former intimate relationship (defined below). These acts may be physical, emotional/psychological, sexual or economic in nature. Intimate relationship violence can be a single act or pattern of behavior. Intimate Partner Violence includes "dating violence" and "domestic violence." The university will evaluate the existence of an intimate relationship based upon the Complainant's statement and taking into consideration the length of the relationship, the type of relationship and the frequency of interaction between the persons involved in the relationship.

- Domestic Violence in the Context of Intimate Relationships: A particular type of intimate relationship violence that occurs when partners in a current or former intimate relationships are or have been cohabiting in the same space or have a child in common. Students are deemed to be cohabiting when they share access to the same private living space or bathroom.
- Stalking in the Context of Intimate Relationships: A course of conduct (i.e., more than one act) directed at a partner that would cause a reasonable person to feel fear, to experience emotional distress or to fear for the safety of a third person. Acts that together constitute stalking may be direct actions or may be communicated by a third party, and can include, but are not limited to: threats of harm to self or others; pursuing or following; non-consensual (unwanted) communication by any means; unwanted gifts; trespassing; and surveillance or other types of observation" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 15).

4. Sex or Gender-Based Discrimination

"Sex or gender-based discrimination is adverse treatment of an individual based on sex or gender rather than individual merit. Sex or gender-based discrimination encompasses sexual

misconduct but also includes other discriminatory behavior that does not constitute sexual misconduct. Sex or gender-based discrimination also may include harassment and other abusive behavior, whether verbal or physical, that is based on sex or gender, including actual or perceived gender roles, including seeking sex or sexual favors. Examples of conduct that can constitute discrimination because of sex, sexual orientation, gender identity or gender expression include but are not limited to:

- Singling out or targeting an individual for different or adverse treatment (i.e., more severe discipline, lower salary increase)
- Failing or refusing to hire or allow participation by an individual in a university activity
- Terminating or removing an individual from employment or an educational program
- Verbally harassing, abusing or demeaning a targeted individual in a manner that is sufficiently severe, persistent, and/or pervasive to have the effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's educational experience, working conditions or living conditions by creating an intimidating, hostile or offensive environment
- Sexual harassment is also a form of discrimination and is unwelcome, sexual, sex or gender-based, verbal or physical conduct, including unwelcome sexual advances, requires for sexual favors and other conduct of a sexual nature. Purpose of intent is not a required element of sexual harassment. Some form of sexual harassment also may constitute other Prohibited Conduct, such as coercion or interpersonal violence.

  Quid pro quo harassment involves unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature by a person having power or authority over another person when submission to or rejection of such

conduct is made implicitly or explicitly a term or condition of instruction/education or employment, including when submission would be a condition for access to receiving the benefits of any VCU program or activity.

A *hostile environment* is created when sexual harassment is sufficiently severe, persistent or pervasive and objectively offensive that it unreasonably interferes with, denies or limits an individual's ability to participate in or benefit from the university's educational, employment, social or residential programs. Sexual harassment undertaken out of retaliatory motive (for example because an individual reports or files a complaint against another individual) may constitute both sexual harassment and retaliation, prohibited under this policy" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 15-16).

5. Retaliation

"Retaliation is any attempt to seek retribution against an individual or group of individuals involved in filing a complaint or report under this report, filing an external complaint, participating in a disciplinary process or opposing in a reasonable manner an action believed to constitute a violation of this policy. Retaliation can take many forms, including abuse or violence, threats, harassment and intimidation. Actions in response to a good faith report or response under this policy are considered retaliatory if they have a materially adverse effect on the working, academic or VCU-controlled living environment of an individual; or If they hinder or prevent the individual from effectively carrying out his or her VCU responsibilities" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 16).

6. Complicity

   "Complicity is any act taken wit the purpose of aiding, facilitating, promoting or encouraging the commission of an act of Prohibited Conduct by another person. Individuals can be charged with complicity in aiding, facilitating, promoting or encouraging others to engage in Prohibited Conduct under this policy" (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 16).

7. Affirmative Consent and Incapacitation

   "In reviewing possible violations of this Policy, the university considers Affirmative Consent to be voluntary, informed, non-coerced agreement through words and actions freely given, which a reasonable person would interpret as a willingness to participate in mutually agreed-upon sexual acts. Affirmative Consent to sexual activity happens when each partner willingly and affirmatively chooses to participate. ***Affirmative Consent is informed (knowing); voluntary (freely given); active (not passive), meaning that through the demonstration of clear words or actions, a person has indicated permission to engage in mutually agreed-upon sexual activity"*** (VCU Office of Equity and Access Services, Office of the President, 2016, p. 16).

Appendix B: IRB Approval

Office of Research and Innovation
Office of Research Subjects Protection
BioTechnology Research Park
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 3000
Box 980568
Richmond, Virginia 23298-0568

(804) 828-0868
Fax: (804) 827-1448

TO: Christina Mancini
Dhara Amin
CC: Susan White

FROM: VCU IRB Panel A

RE: Christina Mancini ; IRB HM20012863 Students' Awareness, Knowledge, and Perceptions of Mandatory Reporting of Sexual Victimization on College Campuses

On 6/19/2018 the referenced research study ***qualified for exemption*** according to 45 CFR 46.101(b), **Category 2**.

The information found in the electronic version of this study's smart form and uploaded documents now represents the currently approved study, documents, and HIPAA pathway (if applicable). You may access this information by clicking the Study Number above.

If you have any questions, please contact the Office of Research Subjects Protection (ORSP) or the IRB reviewer(s) assigned to this study.

The reviewer(s) assigned to your study will be listed in the History tab and on the study workspace. Click on their name to see their contact information.

Attachment – Conditions of Exempt Approval

Conditions of Exempt Approval:

In order to comply with federal regulations, industry standards, and the terms of this approval, the investigator must (as applicable):

1. Conduct the research as described in and required by the Protocol.
2. Provide non-English speaking patients with a translation of the approved Consent Form in the research participant's first language. The Panel must approve the translation.
3. The following changes to the protocol must be submitted to the IRB panel for review and approval before the changes are instituted. Changes that do not meet these criteria do not have to be submitted to the IRB. If there is a question about whether a change must be sent to the IRB please call the ORSP for clarification.

   THESE CHANGES MUST BE SUBMITTED:
   - Change in principal investigator
   - Any change that increases the risk to the participant
   - Addition of children, wards of the state, or prisoner participants
   - Changes in survey or interview questions (addition or deletion of questions or wording) that change the level of risk or adds questions related to sexual activity, abuse, past or present illicit drug use, illegal activities, questions reasonably expected to provoke psychological anxiety, or would make participants vulnerable, or subject them to financial, psychological or medical risk
   - Changes that change the category of exemption or add additional exemption categories
   - Changes that add procedures or activities not covered by the exempt category(ies) under which the study was originally determined to be exempt
   - Changes requiring additional participant identifiers that could impact the exempt category or determination
   - Change in inclusion dates for retrospective record reviews if the new date is after the original approval date for the exempt study. (ex: The approval date for the study is 9/24/10 and the original inclusion dates were 01/01/08-06/30/10. This could be changed to 01/01/06 to 09/24/10 but not to end on 09/25/10 or later.)
   - Addition of a new recruitment strategy
   - Increase in the planned compensation to participants

4. Monitor all problems (anticipated and unanticipated) associated with risk to research participants or others.
5. Report Unanticipated Problems (UPs), following the VCU IRB requirements and timelines detailed in VCU IRB WPP VII-6).
6. Promptly report and/or respond to all inquiries by the VCU IRB concerning the conduct of the approved research when so requested.
7. The VCU IRBs operate under the regulatory authorities as described within:
   - U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Title 45 CFR 46, Subparts A, B, C, and D (for all research, regardless of source of funding) and related guidance documents.
   - U.S. Food and Drug Administration Chapter I of Title 21 CFR 50 and 56 (for FDA regulated research only) and related guidance documents.
   - Commonwealth of Virginia Code of Virginia 32.1 Chapter 5.1 Human Research (for all research).

Appendix C: Resources for Student Participants

additional resources

Find help nationwide and learn more about your rights under Title IX:
notalone.gov contains information for students, schools, and anyone interested in finding resources on how to respond to and prevent sexual assault on college and university campuses.

VA Sexual and Domestic Violence Action Alliance
(800) 838-8238 • www.vsdvalliance.org

The Virginia LGBTQ Partner Abuse and Sexual Assault Helpline • 24/7 Hotline (866) 356-6998 • Text (804) 793-9999 • Chat *http://vsdvalliance.org*

Health Brigade: Off-Campus STI Testing and Treatment; Transgender Clinic • (804) 358-6343 x153

Planned Parenthood: Off-Campus Healthcare (804) 355-4358

Richmond Victim/Witness Program
(804) 646-7665 • Provides important information and support for going to court; assists with applications for criminal injuries and compensation; gives process updates; helps with witness preparation.

Central Virginia Legal Aid: Domestic Violence Unit • (804) 648-1012 • *www.cvlas.org*
Legal advice and/or court representation for low-income victims; handles protective orders, custody and visitation. Criminal cases are not taken.

Side by Side • (804) 644-4800 • *www.sidebysideva.org*

Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network (RAINN) 24/7 Hotline • (800) 656-HOPE (4673) • *www.rainn.org*

VCU Visa and immigration Services
(804) 828-0595

resources

24-HOUR EMERGENCY ASSISTANCE

Police, Off-Campus • 911

Police, On-Campus • (804) 828-1234

Virginia Family Violence & Sexual Assault Hotline • (800) 838-8238 (v/tty) • Text: (804) 793-9999 • Chat: *http://vsdvalliance.org/*

Greater Richmond Regional Hotline • (804) 612-6126

Suicide Crisis Line • (800) 273-8255

National Hotline for Victims of Trafficking (tricked or forced into commercial sex or labor) • (888) 373-7888

Trevor Project: 24/7 Crisis and Suicide Hotline for LGBTQ Youth • (866) 488-7386

ON-CAMPUS RESOURCES

To access resources available after-hours, call VCU Police Department • (804) 828-1234

File a report online by using the Sexual misconduct/violence and sex/gender discrimination incident reporting form. You can also email *titleix@vcu.edu* or select one of the options below.

To report a Title IX sexual misconduct complaint, Contact:

Laura Rugless, Title IX Coordinator at (804) 828-6404 or *lrugless@vcu.edu*

Tammi Slovinsky, Deputy Title IX Coordinator for students at (804) 827-1963 or *tslovinsky@vcu.edu*

Cathleen C. Burke, Deputy Title IX Coordinator for employees at (804) 828-3248 or *ccburke@vcu.edu*

Sofia A Hiort-Wright, Deputy Title IX Coordinator for athletics at (804) 828-2184 or *shiort@vcu.edu*

Confidential Sexual & Intimate Partner Violence & Stalking Advocacy Services • Email *myoptions@vcu.edu* to access a confidential advocate

VCU Health: 24/7 Forensic Nursing Office (PERK exams) • (804) 628-0623 (non emergency)
1250 E. Marshall St, Richmond, VA

Student Health Services • After hours, on-call
Monroe Park: (804) 828-8828
MCV Campus: (804) 828-9220

University Counseling Services • After hours, on-call
Monroe Park: (804) 828-6200
MCV Campus: (804) 828-3964

OFF-CAMPUS RESOURCES

Greater Richmond Regional Hotline: 24/7 hotline,shelter, support groups, free and confidential counseling • (804) 612-6126 • *ywcarichmond.org/hotline/*

St. Mary's Hospital (PERK exams) 24/7 • (804) 281-8574 (non emergency)
5801 Bremo Rd, Richmond, VA

Safe Harbor • (804) 249-9470
www.safeharborshelter.com

YWCA Richmond • (804) 643-6761
www.ywcarichmond.org

what to expect?

Survivors of sexual assault react to their experiences in different ways. There are feelings and experiences that are common for many survivors, while others may be specific to the given circumstances.

A SURVIVOR MAY:

- Feel a loss of control.
- Feel a sense of shock and disbelief, numbness and difficulty concentrating.
- Go through a period of acting as if nothing happened (after the initial shock is over).
- Be fearful and feel unsafe.
- Have flashbacks and/or nightmares.

If you have not experienced any of these, it does not mean there is something wrong with how you are responding to the assault. The feelings you experience are part of the healing process.

SUPPORTING SURVIVORS:

- **Listen:** Do not ask "why." Listen to their feelings and experiences.
- **Believe:** Inspire survivors to trust you by being open-minded and patient.
- **Support:** It is important for survivors to make their own decisions.
- **Identify Resources:** Help survivors identify campus and community resources.

If you would like more suggestions on how to help someone who has experienced violence, visit the Well's website at www.thewell.vcu.edu.

sexual assault, intimate partner violence & stalking

A RESOURCE GUIDE FOR SURVIVORS & THE VCU COMMUNITY

Appendix D: Recruitment Email

Good afternoon Dr./Professor [ ]:

My name is Dhara Amin, a PhD candidate in the Public Policy and Administration program in the Wilder School at Virginia Commonwealth University. I am currently working on my dissertation focusing on students' knowledge, awareness, and perceptions of Title IX mandatory reporting requirements. I recently successfully defensed my proposal and received approval from VCU's IRB (IRB HM20012863).

I am interested in surveying your students because the purpose of this study is to identify students' perceptions of mandatory reporting procedures and requirements related to Title IX. Mandatory reporting requirements are being implemented in higher educational institutions; however, existing literature does not examine students' perceptions or their understanding of the specific requirements that apply exclusively to them. By researching student perceptions, policymakers, Title IX Coordinators, and educational institutions can better understand what material needs to be addressed or emphasized in Title IX trainings and how to gain the trust and "buy-in" of students. In addition, both supporters and critics of the mandatory reporting policy have made their own arguments. By examining student perceptions, the public will have a better understanding of which arguments have support and which arguments lack support based on the findings of this study.

I have received permission from the Wilder School administration and would like to see if you are interested in allowing your students to participate in my survey.

I look forward to hearing back from you!

Thank you for your time and consideration!

Dhara Amin

Appendix E: Research Participant Information Sheet

STUDY TITLE: Students' Awareness, Knowledge, and Perceptions of Mandatory Reporting of Sexual Victimization on College Campuses

VCU INVESTIGATOR: Dr. Christina Mancini, Associate Professor and Assistant Chair, Criminal Justice Program

NOTE: In this consent form, "you" always refers to the research participant.

ABOUT THIS CONSENT FORM

You are being invited to participate in a research study. **It is important that you carefully think about whether being in this study is right for you and your situation.**

This consent form is meant to assist you in thinking about whether or not you want to be in this study. **Please ask the investigator or the study staff to explain any information in this consent document that is not clear to you.**

Your participation is voluntary. You may decide to not participate in this study. If you do participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time. Your decision not to take part or to withdraw will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY AND KEY INFORMATION

The purpose of this research study is to learn about student's views on faculty and staff reporting procedures and requirements related to Title IX at Virginia Commonwealth University. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are taking a class within the Virginia Commonwealth University's Wilder School.

In this study, you will be based to take answer approximately questions on a traditional pen-and-paper survey in class. This survey includes questions to assess your awareness and knowledge of mandatory reporting policies, your opinions on these policies, and your views about sexual assault. There are also some demographic questions in the survey. Your participation in this study will last up to 25 minutes.

There are both risks and benefits of participating in research studies. We want you to know about a few key risks right now.

Most Common Risks and Discomforts	Benefits to You and Others
• The study questionnaires ask personal questions that are sensitive in nature and may make you feel uncomfortable. You can skip any question and stop the survey at any time. If you become upset or uncomfortable during the survey, please let the research staff know and they staff will give you a resources information guide, so you can receive assistance.	• This study is not likely to help you. However, the information we learn from the participants may help improve Title IX training and materials at your university.

In general, we will not give you any individual results from this study. If you would like to know the finings of this study, please see the Who Should I Contact if I Have Questions about the Study section below.

Please read, or have someone read to you, the rest of this document. If there is anything you don't understand, be sure to ask the study staff.

Non-Physical Risks
Participation in research might involve some loss of privacy. There is a small risk that someone outside the research study could see and misuse information about you.

HOW WILL INFORMATION ABOUT ME BE PROTECTED?
All responses for this study are anonymous; therefore, your responses can not be connected to you.

WHO SHOULD I CONTACT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS ABOUT THE STUDY?
If you have any questions, complaints, or concerns about your participation in this research, or would like to know the findings of this study, contact:

Dr. Christina Mancini
Associate Professor
Graduate Coordinator of the Criminal Justice Program
L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University
1001 West Franklin Street
Richmond, Virginia 23284
cnmancini@vcu.edu
804-828-4223

and/or
Dhara Minesh Amin
PhD Student, Public Policy and Administration
L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs
Virginia Commonwealth University
amind@vcu.edu
804-306-7854

The researcher/study staff named above is the best person(s) to call for questions about your participation in this study.

If you have general questions about your rights as a participant in this or any other research, you may contact:

Virginia Commonwealth University Office of Research
800 East Leigh Street, Suite 3000
Box 980568
Richmond, VA 23298
Telephone: (804) 827-2157

Contact this number to ask general questions, to obtain information or offer input, and to express concerns or complaints about research. You may also call this number if you cannot reach the research team or if you wish to talk to someone else. General information about participation in research studies can also be found at http://www.research.vcu.edu/irb/volunteers.htm.

Appendix F: Survey Instrument

Higher Education's Mandatory Reporting Instrument

Directions: Please answer each question truthfully and to the best of your recollection. Because this is an anonymous survey, there is no way to link your responses to your identity. Please do ***NOT*** write your name, student number, or social security number on the survey.

1. Does your university have a Title IX office?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not Sure

2. Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy for sexual assault?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not Sure

3. Have you heard of the *Not Anymore* Title IX online training?
   a. Yes
   b. No

   If you choose "Yes", please answer question 4.

4. Have you taken the *Not Anymore* online training?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not yet, but I will before the deadline.

5. Employees and/or students who violate the university's policy may face disciplinary action, including but not limited to termination or expulsion.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. Not Sure

6. The university's policy prohibits: (Circle all that apply)
   a. Sexual Assault
   b. Sexual Exploitation
   c. Partner or Relationship Violence
   d. Sex or Gender-Based Discrimination
   e. Retaliation

7. The university has multiple channels for reporting Prohibited Conduct.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there are multiple channels to report Prohibited Conduct or not.

8. A sexual misconduct report does not have to be made within a specific timeframe in order for the university to initiate a formal investigation.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there is a reporting timeframe or not.

9. The university will not pursue disciplinary action based on disclosure of personal consumption of drugs or alcohol if it is related to a report of sexual misconduct.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there is university will pursue disciplinary action or not.

10. Reports of sexual misconduct must be made in good faith (i.e., the reporter must believe that the incident occurred as reported).
    a. True
    b. False
    c. I am not sure if a sexual misconduct report must be made in good faith or not.

11. The university does not offer remedial or protective measures to the complainant.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

12. The university's evidentiary standard is preponderance of evidence.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

13. A Confidential Employee will not disclose information obtained from the complainant to the university's Title IX Coordinator or others without the complainant's permission except as provided for or required by law.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

14. A Confidential Employee includes: (Circle all that apply)
    a. Physicians
    b. Psychologists
    c. Professors
    d. Professional Counselors/Social Workers
    e. Medical Administrative Assistants/Operational Support Staff
    f. Nurses
    g. Physician Assistants

15. Unless specifically identified in the policy as Confidential, an employee is a Responsible Employee.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

16. Responsible Employees are required to report to the Title IX Coordinator all relevant details about an incident involving Sexual Assault, Sexual Exploitation, and Partner or Relationship Violence.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

17. Supervisors, management, and human resource professionals have no additional reporting responsibilities beyond those of a Responsible Employee.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

18. Disclosures of Prohibited Conduct made through climate surveys, classroom assignments or discussions, human subject research, or public awareness events must be reported to the Title IX Coordinator, even if the individual does not want to report the incident.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

19. Many states have enacted "mandatory reporting" laws that require colleges and universities to report all suspicions of sexual assault involving students (e.g., a student discloses s/he was a victim of rape at a party to a professor) to the police, even if victims do not want the crime reported. What comes closest to your opinion of the law?
    a. Strongly agree with the law.
    b. Agree somewhat with the law.
    c. Disagree somewhat with the law.
    d. Strongly disagree with the law.

20. Would mandatory reporting laws make you personally more or less willing to disclose your sexual victimization to a university staff member you trust?
    a. Significantly less likely to disclose.
    b. Somewhat less likely to disclose.
    c. Would have no difference in the decision to disclose.
    d. Somewhat more likely to disclose.
    e. Significantly more likely to disclose.

21. Mandatory reporting laws require university employees to report any allegation of sexual assault to the university, who in turn may report the crime to law enforcement. From your experience with faculty, how likely is it that your professors would comply with the law?
    a. Would not comply at all with the law.
    b. Somewhat unlikely to comply.
    c. Somewhat comply.
    d. Strongly comply.
    e. Not sure.

    If you chose "a" or "b" in the previous question, why do you feel this way?
    a. My professors would morally object to the mandatory reporting requirement.
    b. My professors would likely not be familiar with the mandatory reporting requirement.
    c. My professors would not want to take the time to report it.
    d. For another reason, please explain: _____
    _____

Place an "X" in the appropriate box to indicate your response).

In my opinion, mandatory reporting laws:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Have the potential to better assist sexual assault victims.				
Have the potential to re-traumatize victims.				
Hold universities accountable, preventing them from sweeping crime under the rug.				
Have the potential to waste university resources for various reasons.				
Reduce victim autonomy.				
Hold perpetrators of sexual assault accountable by involving police.				
Will not reduce reporting of sexual assault.				
May serve to deter rape victims from reporting sexual victimization.				
Have the potential to increase reporting of sex crimes.				
Have the potential to prevent victims from seeking services from the university.				
Reduce stigma associated with survivors of sexual misconduct.				
Increase perceptions of safety at the university.				
Increase perceptions of justice.				
Increase the number of false allegations.				
Are not appropriate for higher educational institutions.				
Decrease the accused individual's due process.				

Place an "X" in the appropriate box to indicate your response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If a person is sexually assaulted while they are drunk, the victim is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.				
If a person acts or dresses in a promiscuous or provocative manner, they are asking to be sexually assaulted.				
When a person is sexually assaulted, it is often because the way they said "no" was unclear to the other person.				
If a person initiates kissing or "hooking up", they should not be surprised if the other person assumes they want to have sex.				
People do not usually intend to force sex on others, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.				
If a person is drunk, they might rape someone unintentionally.				
A sexual assault likely did not happen if the victim does not have noticeable bruises or marks.				
If the accused did not have a weapon during the incident, you cannot truly call it sexual assault.				
If a person sends explicit texts or images, they have consented to sexual activity.				
If a person's social media account consists of explicit or promiscuous images, they have consented to sexual activity.				
If a friend told me they were sexually assaulted, I would be inclined to believe that person.				
If a friend told me they were was sexually assaulted, I would encourage them to report the incident.				
If a friend told me they were sexually assaulted, I would report the incident on their behalf.				
Sexual misconduct on college campuses is an important and pressing issue.				
False sexual misconduct allegations on college campuses happen frequently.				
Students who are accused of sexual misconduct are afforded due process at my university.				
The University's Title IX Office and review committee is the appropriate forum to address sexual misconduct allegations because they use a student conduct perspective.				
Sexual misconduct allegations should be only addressed in the criminal justice system.				

22. Under the current administration, the Department of Education rescinded the sexual misconduct protections on college campuses; however, your university announced it will continue its efforts against sexual misconduct. Should your university continue to follow its policy?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Not Sure

23. The university's evidentiary standard should be:
    a. Preponderance of Evidence (51% or more of the evidence favors one side)
    b. Clear and Convincing Evidence (~80% highly probable that an incident occurred or not)
    c. Beyond a Responsible Doubt (absolute certainty; the standard used in the criminal courts)
    d. Other: _____

24. What percentage of sexual misconduct allegations do you think are false on college campuses? Write a percentage between 0-100. ____%

25. Which of the following scenarios is worse/more unfair?
    a. An innocent student being suspended/expelled from a university after being accused of sexual misconduct.
    b. An innocent staff/faculty being terminated from the university after being accused of sexual misconduct by a student.
    c. A person who committed sexual misconduct not receiving any consequences.
    d. Both scenarios are equally unfair.

26. Indicate your current class standing.
    a. First Year/Freshman
    b. Sophomore
    c. Junior
    d. Senior
    e. Non-degree seeking
    f. Graduate/Doctoral/Post-doc

27. I am an:
    a. In-state student
    b. Out-of-state student
    c. International student

28. How old are you?
    a. Under 18 years old
    b. 18 – 20 years old
    c. 21 – 23 years old
    d. 24 – 26 years old
    e. 27 – 29 years old
    f. 30 years or older

29. With which racial/ethnic category do you most identify?
    a. Asian/Pacific Islander
    b. Black/African-American
    c. Latino(a)/Hispanic
    d. Middle Eastern
    e. Indigenous/Native American
    f. White
    g. Multiracial
    h. Other: _____

30. What is your political affiliation?
    a. Conservative/Republican
    b. Independent
    c. Liberal/Democrat
    d. Other: _____
    e. None

31. How would you best describe your sex/gender identity?
    a. Female/woman
    b. Male/man
    c. Transwoman
    d. Transman
    e. Questioning
    f. Genderqueer/gender non-conforming
    g. Intersex/DSD
    h. No label/Self Identify
    i. Other: _____

32. What is your sexual orientation?
    a. Heterosexual/straight
    b. Bisexual
    c. Gay/lesbian
    d. Pansexual
    e. Asexual
    f. Other: _____

33. What religion do you associate yourself with?
    a. Christianity
    b. Islam
    c. Buddhism
    d. Judaism
    e. Hinduism
    f. Atheist
    g. Agnostic
    h. Non-religious
    i. Other: _____

34. What best describes your hometown?
    a. City (Urban)
    b. Suburban
    c. Rural

35. What is your total household income?
    a. Less than $10,000
    b. $10,001 to $20,000
    c. $20,001 to $30,000
    d. $30,001 to $40,000
    e. $40,001 to $50,000
    f. $50,001 to $60,000
    g. $60,001 to $70,000
    h. $70,001 to $80, 000
    i. $80,001 to $90,000
    j. $90,001 to $100,000
    k. $100,001 or more

36. I personally know a victim of sexual misconduct.
    a. Yes
    b. No

37. I personally know someone who I believe was falsely accused of sexual misconduct.
    a. Yes
    b. No

Appendix G: Survey Instrument Key

Higher Education's Mandatory Reporting Instrument – Answer Key

Directions: Please answer each question truthfully and to the best of your recollection. Because this is an anonymous survey, there is no way to link your responses to your identity. Please do ***NOT*** write your name, student number, or social security number on the survey.

1. Does your university have a Title IX office?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not Sure

2. Does your university have a mandatory reporting policy for sexual assault?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not Sure

3. Have you heard of the *Not Anymore* Title IX online training?
   a. Yes
   b. No

   If you choose "Yes", please answer question 4.

4. Have you taken the *Not Anymore* online training?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Not yet, but I will before the deadline.

5. Employees and/or students who violate the university's policy may face disciplinary action, including but not limited to termination or expulsion.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. Not Sure

6. The university's policy prohibits: (Circle all that apply)
   a. Sexual Assault
   b. Sexual Exploitation
   c. Partner or Relationship Violence
   d. Sex or Gender-Based Discrimination
   e. Retaliation

7. The university has multiple channels for reporting Prohibited Conduct.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there are multiple channels to report Prohibited Conduct or not.

8. A sexual misconduct report does not have to be made within a specific timeframe in order for the university to initiate a formal investigation.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there is a reporting timeframe or not.

9. The university will not pursue disciplinary action based on disclosure of personal consumption of drugs or alcohol if it is related to a report of sexual misconduct.
   a. True
   b. False
   c. I am not sure if there is university will pursue disciplinary action or not.

10. Reports of sexual misconduct must be made in good faith (i.e., the reporter must believe that the incident occurred as reported).
    a. True
    b. False
    c. I am not sure if a sexual misconduct report must be made in good faith or not.

11. The university does not offer remedial or protective measures to the complainant.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

12. The university's evidentiary standard is preponderance of evidence.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

13. A Confidential Employee will not disclose information obtained from the complainant to the university's Title IX Coordinator or others without the complainant's permission except as provided for or required by law.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

14. A Confidential Employee includes: (Circle all that apply)
    a. Physicians
    b. Psychologists
    c. Professors
    d. Professional Counselors/Social Workers
    e. Medical Administrative Assistants/Operational Support Staff
    f. Nurses
    g. Physician Assistants

15. Unless specifically identified in the policy as Confidential, an employee is a Responsible Employee.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

16. Responsible Employees are required to report to the Title IX Coordinator all relevant details about an incident involving Sexual Assault, Sexual Exploitation, and Partner or Relationship Violence.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

17. Supervisors, management, and human resource professionals have no additional reporting responsibilities beyond those of a Responsible Employee.
    a. True
    b. **False**
    c. Not Sure

18. Disclosures of Prohibited Conduct made through climate surveys, classroom assignments or discussions, human subject research, or public awareness events must be reported to the Title IX Coordinator, even if the individual does not want to report the incident.
    a. True
    b. False
    c. Not Sure

19. Many states have enacted "mandatory reporting" laws that require colleges and universities to report all suspicions of sexual assault involving students (e.g., a student discloses s/he was a victim of rape at a party to a professor) to the police, even if victims do not want the crime reported. What comes closest to your opinion of the law?
    a. Strongly agree with the law.
    b. Agree somewhat with the law.
    c. Disagree somewhat with the law.
    d. Strongly disagree with the law.

20. Would mandatory reporting laws make you personally more or less willing to disclose your sexual victimization to a university staff member you trust?
    a. Significantly less likely to disclose.
    b. Somewhat less likely to disclose.
    c. Would have no difference in the decision to disclose.
    d. Somewhat more likely to disclose.
    e. Significantly more likely to disclose.

21. Mandatory reporting laws require university employees to report any allegation of sexual assault to the university, who in turn may report the crime to law enforcement. From your experience with faculty, how likely is it that your professors would comply with the law?
    a. Would not comply at all with the law.
    b. Somewhat unlikely to comply.
    c. Somewhat comply.
    d. Strongly comply.
    e. Not sure.

    If you chose "a" or "b" in the previous question, why do you feel this way?
    a. My professors would morally object to the mandatory reporting requirement.
    b. My professors would likely not be familiar with the mandatory reporting requirement.
    c. My professors would not want to take the time to report it.
    d. For another reason, please explain: _____
    _____

Place an "X" in the appropriate box to indicate your response).

In my opinion, mandatory reporting laws:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Have the potential to better assist sexual assault victims.				
Have the potential to re-traumatize victims.				
Hold universities accountable, preventing them from sweeping crime under the rug.				
Have the potential to waste university resources for various reasons.				
Reduce victim autonomy.				
Hold perpetrators of sexual assault accountable by involving police.				
Will not reduce reporting of sexual assault.				
May serve to deter rape victims from reporting sexual victimization.				
Have the potential to increase reporting of sex crimes.				
Have the potential to prevent victims from seeking services from the university.				
Reduce stigma associated with survivors of sexual misconduct.				
Increase perceptions of safety at the university.				
Increase perceptions of justice.				
Increase the number of false allegations.				
Are not appropriate for higher educational institutions.				
Decrease the accused individual's due process.				

Place an "X" in the appropriate box to indicate your response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If a person is sexually assaulted while they are drunk, the victim is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.				
If a person acts or dresses in a promiscuous or provocative manner, they are asking to be sexually assaulted.				
When a person is sexually assaulted, it is often because the way they said "no" was unclear to the other person.				
If a person initiates kissing or "hooking up", they should not be surprised if the other person assumes they want to have sex.				
People do not usually intend to force sex on others, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.				
If a person is drunk, they might rape someone unintentionally.				
A sexual assault likely did not happen if the victim does not have noticeable bruises or marks.				
If the accused did not have a weapon during the incident, you cannot truly call it sexual assault.				
If a person sends explicit texts or images, they have consented to sexual activity.				
If a person's social media account consists of explicit or promiscuous images, they have consented to sexual activity.				
If a friend told me they were sexually assaulted, I would be inclined to believe that person.				
If a friend told me they were was sexually assaulted, I would encourage them to report the incident.				
If a friend told me they were sexually assaulted, I would report the incident on their behalf.				
Sexual misconduct on college campuses is an important and pressing issue.				
False sexual misconduct allegations on college campuses happen frequently.				
Students who are accused of sexual misconduct are afforded due process at my university.				
The University's Title IX Office and review committee is the appropriate forum to address sexual misconduct allegations because they use a student conduct perspective.				
Sexual misconduct allegations should be only addressed in the criminal justice system.				

22. Under the current administration, the Department of Education rescinded the sexual misconduct protections on college campuses; however, your university announced it will continue its efforts against sexual misconduct. Should your university continue to follow its policy?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. Not Sure

23. The university's evidentiary standard should be:
    a. Preponderance of Evidence (51% or more of the evidence favors one side)
    b. Clear and Convincing Evidence (~80% highly probable that an incident occurred or not)
    c. Beyond a Responsible Doubt (absolute certainty; the standard used in the criminal courts)
    d. Other: _____

24. What percentage of sexual misconduct allegations do you think are false on college campuses? Write a percentage between 0-100. ____%

25. Which of the following scenarios is worse/more unfair?
    a. An innocent student being suspended/expelled from a university after being accused of sexual misconduct.
    b. An innocent staff/faculty being terminated from the university after being accused of sexual misconduct by a student.
    c. A person who committed sexual misconduct not receiving any consequences.
    d. Both scenarios are equally unfair.

26. Indicate your current class standing.
    a. First Year/Freshman
    b. Sophomore
    c. Junior
    d. Senior
    e. Non-degree seeking
    f. Graduate/Doctoral/Post-doc

27. I am an:
    a. In-state student
    b. Out-of-state student
    c. International student

28. How old are you?
    a. Under 18 years old
    b. 18 – 20 years old
    c. 21 – 23 years old
    d. 24 – 26 years old
    e. 27 – 29 years old
    f. 30 years or older

29. With which racial/ethnic category do you most identify?
    a. Asian/Pacific Islander
    b. Black/African-American
    c. Latino(a)/Hispanic
    d. Middle Eastern
    e. Indigenous/Native American
    f. White
    g. Multiracial
    h. Other: _____

30. What is your political affiliation?
    a. Conservative/Republican
    b. Independent
    c. Liberal/Democrat
    d. Other: _____
    e. None

31. How would you best describe your sex/gender identity?
    a. Female/woman
    b. Male/man
    c. Transwoman
    d. Transman
    e. Questioning
    f. Genderqueer/gender non-conforming
    g. Intersex/DSD
    h. No label/Self Identify
    i. Other: _____

32. What is your sexual orientation?
    a. Heterosexual/straight
    b. Bisexual
    c. Gay/lesbian
    d. Pansexual
    e. Asexual
    f. Other: _____

33. What religion do you associate yourself with?
    a. Christianity
    b. Islam
    c. Buddhism
    d. Judaism
    e. Hinduism
    f. Atheist
    g. Agnostic
    h. Non-religious
    i. Other: _____

34. What best describes your hometown?
    a. City (Urban)
    b. Suburban
    c. Rural

35. What is your total household income?
    a. Less than $10,000
    b. $10,001 to $20,000
    c. $20,001 to $30,000
    d. $30,001 to $40,000
    e. $40,001 to $50,000
    f. $50,001 to $60,000
    g. $60,001 to $70,000
    h. $70,001 to $80, 000
    i. $80,001 to $90,000
    j. $90,001 to $100,000
    k. $100,001 or more

36. I personally know a victim of sexual misconduct.
    a. Yes
    b. No

37. I personally know someone who I believe was falsely accused of sexual misconduct.
    a. Yes
    b. No

Appendix H: Biographical Sketch

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Dhara Minesh Amin is a PhD candidate in the Public Policy and Administration at the L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs at the Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) in Richmond, Virginia. Prior to the PhD program, Dhara earned a Masters of Science in Criminal Justice at VCU and a Bachelors of Science in Human Development and a minor in Leadership and Social Change at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech). Dhara worked at the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice as a project consultant, focusing on the agency's electronic management system, but now works as a research analyst with the agency. Previously, Dhara was a Graduate Scholars Fellow at the Virginia Department of Corrections in the Offender Management Services Unit and the Prison Rape Elimination Act (PREA) Unit. During her graduate studies, Dhara has examined perceptions of legitimacy among adolescents, the relationship of race and ethnicity and court procedural justice among serious female offenders, and the correctional system in Qatar. Dhara's dissertation focuses on students' awareness, knowledge, and perceptions mandatory reporting requirements related to Title IX and sexual victimization on college campuses.

Appendix I: Curriculum Vitae

Dhara Minesh Amin
Research Analyst
Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice
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Richmond, Virginia 23219
804-306-7854
amind@vcu.edu

EDUCATION

PhD Candidate, Public and Policy Administration with a concentration in Criminal Justice Policy, Virginia Commonwealth University (Expected Graduation: May 2019)

M.S., Criminal Justice, Virginia Commonwealth University (May 2014)

B.S., Human Development with a minor in Leadership and Social Change, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (December 2011, *Magna Cum Laude*)

WORK AND RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Committee Member, Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice (December 2018 – Present)

Research Analyst, Research Unit, Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice (September 2017 – Present)

Project Consultant, Legislative and Research Division, Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice (April 2016 – September 2017)

Prison Rape Elimination Act (PREA) Hotline Coordinator, Operations, Virginia Department of Corrections (March 2014 – March 2016)

Offender Management Services Specialist, Offender Management Services, Virginia Department of Correction (August 2013 – March 2014)

Paralegal, Golightly, Mulligan, & Booth, (October 2011 – January 2014)

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Criminal justice policy, public perceptions, corrections, juvenile justice, sexual offending

PUBLICATIONS

Encyclopedia Entry

Amin, D.M. (2017). Correction in Qatar. *In the Encyclopedia of Corrections*. DOI: 10.1002/9781118845387.

News Article Interview

Murray-Robertson, T. (2018, April 27). Six women, six approaches to sexual violence. *The Wilder School Weekly Update*. Retrieved from https://wilder.vcu.edu/news-and-events/news-articles/six-women-six-approaches-sexualviolence.html?utm_source =newsletter&utm_medium=email&utm_campaign=weekly-update.

Peer-Reviewed Journal Entry

Baker, T. Amin, D.M., Dhungana, K., Bedard, L., Pickett, J.T., Golden, K., & Gertz, M. (2015). Shared race/ethnicity, court procedural justice, and self-regulating beliefs: A study of female offenders. *Law & Society Review*, *49(2)*, 433-465.

Reports to the General Assembly

Department of Juvenile Justice. (2018). *Department of juvenile justice human research FY 2018.* (RD 549). Retrieved from https://rga.lis.virginia.gov/Published/2018/RD549.

Department of Juvenile Justice. (2017). *Data resource guide: Fiscal year 2018.* (RD624). Retrieved from https://rga.lis.virginia.gov/Published/2018/RD624.

Department of Juvenile Justice. (2017). *Data resource guide: Fiscal year 2017.* (RD567). Retrieved from https://rga.lis.virginia.gov/Published/2017/RD567.

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL PRESENTATIONS

Amin, D.M. (2018). *Student's awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting of Sexual victimization on college campuses*. Presentation at the American Society of Criminology Annual Conference in Atlanta, Georgia.

Amin, D.M. (2018). *All things intake…data!* Presentation at the Virginia Department of Juvenile Justice Intake Summit in Roanoke, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2018). *Student's awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting of Sexual victimization on college campuses*. American Society for Public Administration's (ASPA's) International Young Scholars Program in Pátzcuaro, Michoacán, Mexico.

Amin, D.M. (2016). *Cultural diversity training*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *Ethical and non-ethical boundaries*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *Games offenders play*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *How to communicate effectively with female offenders*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *PREA*. Presentation as a guest speaker at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *PREA basic training*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2015). *Prison rape elimination act: Virginia's trailblazing efforts.* Presentation at the L. Douglas Wilder Graduate Scholars Fellows Capstone Meeting in Richmond, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2014). *The application of basic skills to initial classifications and reclassifications for case management counselors.* Presentation at the L. Douglas Wilder Graduate Scholars Fellows Capstone Meeting in Richmond, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2014). *Basic skills for new counselors*. Presentation at the Training & Professional Development at the Academy for Staff Development in Crozier, Virginia.

Amin, D.M. (2014). *The Indian prison system*. Presentation for the Virginia Department of Correction's Executive Staff Meeting in Midlothian, Virginia.

Amin, D.M., & Baker, T. (2014). *Female inmates' perceived procedural justice and legitimacy of courts: Examining the effect of shared racial identity*. Presentation at the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences Annual Meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Amin, D.M., & Morris, N. (2015). *Predicting perceptions of legitimacy and procedural justice among adolescents*. Presentation at the American Society of Criminology Annual Conference in Washington, D.C.

Amin, D.M. (2018). *Students' awareness, knowledge, and perceptions of mandatory reporting of sexual victimization on college campuses.* Presentation at Virginia Commonwealth University in Richmond, Virginia.

Mancini, C., & Amin, D.M. (2018). *Campus sexual assault: Faculty obligations and perceptions among college students.* Presentation at the American Society of Criminology Annual Conference in Atlanta, Georgia.

ACADEMIC SERVICE AND PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences Student Member
Virginia Commonwealth University (December 2013 – Present)

American Society for Public Administration Student Member
Virginia Commonwealth University (April 2015 – April 2016; May 2018 – Present)

Association of Criminal Justice Graduate Student Vice President
Virginia Commonwealth University (August 2012 – May 2014)
The Association for Public Policy and Management Member
Virginia Commonwealth University (May 2015 – Present)

National Society of Leadership and Success Presidential Member
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (January 2011 – Present)

Public Administration Student Association
Virginia Commonwealth University (August 2014 – Present)

HONORS AND AWARDS

Association of Title IX Administrators (ATIXA) Research Grant (Fall 2018)

American Society for Public Administration's (ASPA's) International Young Scholars Program (Summer 2018)

Equity and Inclusion Fellowship, Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management (Fall 2017)

Excellence in Government Awards Scholarship (Fall 2016)

The Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi (Fall 2013, Spring 2014)

James E. Hooker Memorial Scholarship (Fall 2013)

National Criminal Justice Honor Society, Alpha Phi Sigma (Spring 2012, Fall 2013, Spring 2014)

VCU Leaders Engaging in Advanced Discovery (LEAD) Service Trip in Ecuador (Summer 2016)

VCUQ Leadership Exchange Program (Fall 2015)

Wilder Graduate Scholars Fellowship (Fall 2013 – Spring 2016)

CERTIFICATIONS

Statistical Analysis Using IBM SPSS Statistics (V25) (Spring 2019)

The Leadership Challenge Program (Fall 2015)

General Instructor Certification, Department of Criminal Justice Services (July 2015)