Keeping students safe: Student perceptions of campus safety at a mid-sized Virginia university and the impact for prevention, response and risk reduction strategies

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Keeping students safe: Student perceptions of campus safety at a mid-sized Virginia university and the impact for prevention, response and risk reduction strategies

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A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty of JAMES MADISON UNIVERSITY

In
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the degree of Master of Science

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Dedication
Mom, Dad & Family – for your never ending support even when I forgot birthdays,
missed holiday’s or didn’t return you phone calls. Thank you!
Acknowledgements

Thank you Dr. Thall and Dr. Wilcox – for all of your reassurance and gentle nudging to finish this “large homework assignment”

Thank you to Jennifer, Judy, Renee, Suzanne & Kim – Literally this project would not exist without you all, and is only finished because of your encouragement

Thank you to my friends for letting me be MIA for the past two years, and still being my friend

Thank you Melissa for literally keeping me sane through a routine of hot tea and listening to my complaining

Finally, thank you Ian, now that it’s done you can finally start sleeping with the light off.

I love you.
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Abstract

The nexus of social factors, the college experience, and campus safety research represents an empirical gap in the literature surrounding campus safety issues. There is a need for new and creative outlooks on how to approach this culturally sensitive and complex issue(s); a need this research will begin to fulfill. This study intends to ascertain themes regarding the socially constructed reality of campus safety perceptions and concerns, of both male and female students, at a mid-sized Virginia university. A mixed methods procedure was used which included a focus group interview as well as a survey. As Kelly and Torres (2006) wrote, “The perception, just as much as the actual experience was what shaped women students fear for their campus safety” (p. 28), thus it will be the perceptions of the students that will shape their concerns of campus safety. This study will utilize unmatched count technique as the quantitative data collection method and a social constructivist framework to adapt to the sensitive and personal nature of campus safety issues, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Thematic analysis of the qualitative data allowed the researcher to determine that students’ perceptions could be categorized and defined in a number of ways. There is a clear need for further research on the subject in order to implement culturally appropriate and effective prevention, response and risk reduction strategies.

Keywords: campus safety, sexual assault, interpersonal violence, unmatched count technique, constructivism, undergraduate students
Introduction

The American College Health Association’s National College Health Assessment from the fall of 2010 surveyed approximately 30,000 U.S. college students. The following statistics are from this student survey:

- 17% felt somewhat unsafe on campus during the nighttime
- 47% felt somewhat safe on campus during the nighttime

In the same reports, within the last 12 months students reported the following:

- 8% reported experiencing a physical fight
- 5% experienced a physical assault
- 20% experienced a verbal threat
- 10% reported some type of unwanted sexual experience
- 6% experienced stalking and
- 4% experienced an abusive (physical and sexual) relationship

(American College Health Association, 2011)

While some of these statistics (ACHA, 2011) may represent positive trends regarding campus safety, it is important to note that college students are victims of approximately 479,000 reported crimes of violence annually. Over the past few years this population has seen a decline in the occurrence of violent crimes when compared to non-student peers; however, reported incidents of sexual assault did not follow this descending trend (Carr & Ward, 2006). It is important to note that as of 2011 the U.S. Department of Education published that there are approximately 19 million college students; 14 million of them at public universities, and 2 million are first-time freshmen (U.S. Department of Education).
Thus, the trends recorded by ACHA are only a small glimpse of the experiences of college students. Fass, Benson and Leggett, (2008) report that, “20% of IPV [interpersonal violence] rapes or sexual assaults, 25% of physical assaults, and 50% of stalking incidents directed toward women are reported” (p. 67), a clear indication that these issues are still pertinent for colleges and universities. According to Rund (2002) campus safety has continued to be a rising issue for over a decade, as have the expectations of students and parents regarding safety issues. Carr et al., (2006) describe “a fundamental contradiction built into campus life contrasts the necessity of recruiting students, winning over parents, attracting donors, and so on, versus the reality of various forms of violence on campus” (p. 385). In order to better understand this issue, campus safety has become an increasingly researched topic, laden with multi-faceted and interdisciplinary interests (Carr, et al., 2006; Rund, 2002; Rothman & Silverman, 2007; Gidycz, Rich, Orchowski, King & Miller, 2006; Ullman & Knight, 1993, Orchowski, Gidycz & Raffle, 2006; Dobbs, Waid & Shelley, 2009).

Purpose

In response to issues of campus safety, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence, colleges and universities have begun to implement a host of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. These range from public health campaigns and educational programming, to what Rich, et al., (2010) calls “target hardening” (p. 269) or environmental changes (Orchowski, et al., 2006; Basile, Lang, Bartenfeld & Clinton-Sherrod, 2005; Brecklin & Ullman, 2007; Carr, et al., 2006; Robinson & Mullen, 2001). The current body of knowledge regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence has a plethora of quantitative research on the subject, including program
development, university prevention and response strategies, as well as students’ risk behaviors’ and resistance strategies (Basile, et al., 2005; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Davis, DeMaio & Fricker-Elhai, 2004; Edwards, Kearns, Calhoun & Gidycz, 2009; Farmer & McMahon, 2005). The evaluation of these prevention and response interventions from a more theoretical and empirically based framework has begun to emerge as well.

Behavioral theories, health communication theories and learning theories are just a few examples of how the academic community is attempting to determine the most effective prevention strategies (Carr, et al., 2006; Cremele, 2004; Fogg, 2009; Hertzog & Yeilding, 2009; Kress, Shepered, Anderson, James, Nolan & Thiemeke, 2006; Rund, 2002; Rothman, et al., 2007; Gidycz, et al., 2006; Ullman, et al., 1993; Orchowski, et al., 2006). One of the most difficult challenges facing the advancement of research on campus safety and sexual assault is the culturally sensitive nature of the topic, which will be discussed later in more detail. This cultural sensitivity makes it extremely difficult to find clear-cut, concrete, lasting and empirically-supported effects (Fass, et al., 2008 p.67). Barriers to this search include concerns with self-reported as well as authority compiled statistics and the frequency of students who under-report experiences (Carr, et al., 2006; Davis, et al., 2004; Gidycz, et al., 2006; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher & Martin, 2009; Kress, et al., 2006; Sable, Danis, Mauzy & Gallagher, 2006; Rund, 2002; Wilcox, Jordan and Pritchard, 2007). Despite the fact that many colleges and universities report minimal sexual assaults annually, Smith, White and Holland (2003) report that even in a low risk population of women, such as those with no history of physical or sexual abuse, at least one in eight women experience sexual assault within their first year of college (p. 1108).
“Higher-education leaders, not students, need to take responsibility for plumbing those depths”, says David Lisak, an associate professor of psychology at the University of Massachusetts at Boston, who consults with colleges and the military on sexual-assault policies and prevention. He says he has seen, “more-sustained commitment to the issue from generals than from trustees” (Lipka, S., 2011). As part of a sustained commitment, it is the goal of this research to contribute to filling the void of theory based research by conducting a qualitative needs analysis of students’ perceptions of campus safety including sexual assault and interpersonal violence at mid-sized Virginia university. The purpose of this investigation is aligned with the fulfillment of the mission of the university which states, “We are a community committed to preparing students to be educated and enlightened citizens who lead productive and meaningful lives” (University Planning & Analysis, 2011) To accomplish these goals, it is important to compile and analyze the up-and-coming college generation’s perceptions before the development, implementation and evaluation of any intervention or program.

Students often comment that information contained in prevention programs does not seem relevant to them (Starkweather, 2007; Kress, et al., 2006; Rund, 2002). A qualitative analysis of what students believe to be relevant to them is clearly important for university leaders and administrators, but also for society as a whole (Wilcox, et al., 2007) . Too often college campuses are perceived as “‘bastions of safety’ (Starkweather, p. 359), which are not subject to the problems of society at large” also described as the “ivory tower” effect (Rund, 2002). Recognizing that the majority, 10 million of the 19 million students enrolling in colleges around the country are female (U.S.Department of Education,), the need for the study of campus safety including its implications and
relationships to sexual assault has increased. According to Rich, Utley, Janke and Moldoveanu (2010), incidences of sexual assault on college campuses in the United States are extremely high. Because sexual assault is frequently underreported to authorities, statistics are difficult to ascertain; however, research over the past two decades has consistently shown that one in four college women will experience attempted rape or rape during her academic year (p. 268). The emphasis on sexual assault in this research is not to suggest that this problem exists only for females. Rather, the focus falls under a wide array of campus safety issues that are becoming impending concerns for society at large. The literature regarding this issue is just beginning to focus on how social factors implicate perceptions of safety including gender, sexuality and age (Tobin, 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Cermele 2004; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Murned, Wright & Kaluzry, 2002). It is clear that the current body of knowledge pertaining to sexual assault and interpersonal violence stridently challenges these notions of immunity to broader social issues. According to the American College Health Association (2007)

The creation of a living and learning environment free of sexual violence is the ultimate goal. This requires a cultural shift that moves beyond the mere prevention of violence towards a community that adopts healthy and caring sexual attitudes and practices […] as this conversation moves from the shadows into the public arena individuals can learn skills necessary for consent and intimate communication (p. 1).
Research Focus

Identifying and understanding student perceptions of sexual assault and violence, is an inextricably linked task to accomplishing this goal. The research questions for this research are as follows:

RQ 1: How do students perceive the issue of campus safety, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence at a mid-sized Virginia university?

RQ 2: What implications (if any) do these perceptions have on the steps taken by the university to prevent and respond to issues of safety as well as promote risk-reduction strategies?

These questions will be investigated through a cultural constructivist framework, a mixed method research design and a thematic analysis in order to uncover themes within student narratives regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Conceptual Framework

The nexus of social factors, the college experience, and campus safety research represents an empirical gap. There is a need for new and creative outlooks on how to approach this culturally sensitive and complex issue(s); a need this research will begin to fulfill. Through the use of a qualitative analysis this study intends to ascertain themes regarding the socially constructed reality of campus safety perceptions and concerns, of both male and female students, at a mid-sized Virginia university. As Kelly and Torres (2006) wrote, “The perception, just as much as the actual experience, was what shaped women students fear for their campus safety” (p. 28), thus it will be the perceptions of the students that will shape their concerns of campus safety. This study will draw on a
specific survey technique and a social constructivist framework to adapt to the sensitive and personal nature of campus safety issues, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

As previously noted, much of the literature on campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence is quantitative in nature. Lindgren, Schacht, Pantalone, Blayney and George (2009) note that, “the voices of college students themselves are underrepresented…it is unclear whether or how much researchers may be imposing their interpretations on the population” (p. 491). To hear these voices this research design has been influenced by the naturalistic paradigm as well as other epistemological and ontological views. Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide a valid argument that designing naturalistic research can be seen as a paradox, suggesting that naturalistic research follows emergent design (p. 223-224). It is important to note that although this study has purposed research questions and developed a research design it is recognized that this preliminary inquiry will not provide generalizable, valid results but rather, a collection and analysis of data that will implicate future research on the topic.

This mixed method research will include a focus group interview regarding campus safety perceptions of students from a mid-sized Virginia university, as well as a non-electronic, unmatched-count self-report survey that provides another source of data to be analyzed as a means to inform emerging themes and concepts. These methods of data collection and analysis will be described in detail in the following sections of this research. The focus of this research is to (1) analyze data of self-reported perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of university students to construct and de-construct emerging themes concerning campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence; (2) utilize
qualitative methods to code and analyze this data in order to better identify the needs of this population within the context of broader socio-cultural needs. According to Cooper and Mc Nab (2009), “Narratives rich in detailing lives of unique individuals become the many-colored threads which weave themselves into complex tapestries of the socio-cultural fabric” (p. 200). This research hopes to analyze the collected data in order to begin to create the ‘cultural fabric’ of a mid-sized Virginia university regarding campus safety, which will contribute to the evolution of inquiry into such issues. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework under which this research functions.

Through the theoretical lens of social constructivism, this research is interested in how the students perceive, define and relate to issues of campus safety including sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Figure 1. Keeping Students Safe: Student perceptions of campus safety at a mid-sized Virginia university and the impact of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies
Definition of Terms

A number of frequently used terms are defined in the following section as a point of reference for this study. All of the following terms will be described and their relationship to the study will be examined in further detail in later sections of this paper.

*Social Cognitive Theory*

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1974; Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Bandura & Bussey, 2004; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli & Regalia, 2001) will be defined in detail, to include its essential contribution to this research. The focus of social cognitive theory is the importance, effects and relationship between the external, social worlds and internal self to human construction of learning and knowledge (Hau-Liu & Matthews, 2005; Martin, 2004) The inclusion of this theory is not only important because of the methodological choices it informs, but also as it is the guideline for the analysis of the data as well as the suggestions for future research. As previously mentioned this research seeks to act as a needs analysis to recognize student perceptions of campus safety with the ultimate goal of focusing the discussion of actions, which may or may not need to take place. Bagnoli and Clark (2010) review the use of participatory research via a longitudinal study with young people, using focus groups; they note, “…the context of drawing on participants’ experiences and views to design research that may be more appropriate to the world-views of potential participants and that consequently has the potential to make change…” (p. 103). Recognizing the relationships identified in social cognitive theory allows the researcher to go beyond just gathering and analyzing data but rather, acknowledges that these results play an integral role in creating social change.
Constructivism

This term is crucial to the purpose of this research, as it is the framework and viewpoint under which this research functions. Constructivism is an epistemological frame, a way in which we try to understand how people gather and interpret knowledge. This paradigm is “the acceptance of the assumption that reality is socially constructed” (Crotty, 1998 as cited in Kelly, et al., 2006 p. 23). A constructivist view focuses on how students are making sense of and constructing their knowledge of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Constructivism implicates the method of data collection, focus group interview, which will be described in further detail (Kelly, et al., 2006; Bagnoli et al., 2010; Phillips, 1995). As previously mentioned, quantitative research may provide statistics regarding campus safety and while these are important, this research is concerned with the relationship between the context of the student’s experiences and their perceptions of the issues. Further definition and explanation will be provided in the following sections.

Cultural Environment

In order to define cultural environment this research utilizes the applied definition of culture proposed by Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2012), which states that, “culture is the rules for living and functioning in society. In other words culture provides the rules for playing the game of life” (p. 10). Thus, the cultural environment is the context within which these “rules” play out for those living within it. It is important to recognize that the cultural environment which is being investigated is specific to the university; what this means for the method and analysis of the research is discussed in later sections. Within this inquiry the term social factors refers to parts or entirety of those “rules” that
contribute to the cultural environment as a whole. These could include perceived sexual norms, rape myth acceptance, drinking behaviors, gender and many others (McMahon & Farmer, 2011; Hamby & Koss, 2003; Lindgen, Schacht, Pantalone, Blaney & George, 2009). The pertinence of the cultural environment and social factors to this research will be covered in later parts of this paper.

*Campus Safety*

For the purposes of this research the term campus, will refer to, “the physical locality[…] which is used for academic purposes as well as other educational matters” (Clennis, 1994 p.9). This includes dorms and other on-campus housing, as well as those buildings and areas owned by the university that my not be located on the “centralized” campus. Although this is the definition developed in the literature, the nature of this study will not prevent students from discussing issues pertinent to them simply because the locale may not be considered on campus under this definition. As is with the paradigm of naturalistic research this term may evolve dependent upon participants’ experiences. The second part of this term, safety, which is defined generally as “The quality or condition of being safe with a perception of security, and being free from danger, injury, or damage” (Clennis, 1994, p.9). While Clennis (1994) provides a valid definition, safety is the larger proverbial umbrella, under which other topics such as sexual assault and interpersonal violence fall; all of which play an integral role in understanding campus safety perceptions and beliefs.

*Sexual Assault*

Within the realm of campus safety this research is also concerned with the students’ perceptions regarding incidents of sexual assault and interpersonal violence. In the review
of the literature this research will present characteristics identified in previous research that are associated with how individuals, specifically college students, define and construct meanings of sexual assault (Littleton, Tabernik, Canales, & Backstrom, 2009; Rader & Cossman, 2011; Robinson, et al., 2001; Rothman, et al., 2007). According to The National Office of Health and Human Services, Women’s Office sexual assault is defined as the following:

Sexual assault and abuse is any type of sexual activity that you do not agree to, including:

- Inappropriate touching
- Vaginal, anal, or oral penetration
- Sexual intercourse that you say no to
- Rape
- Attempted rape
- Child molestation

Sexual assault can be verbal, visual, or anything that forces a person to join in unwanted sexual contact or attention. (Office HHS, Office on Women’s Health, p.1).

It is also important to note that in writing and research, “sexual assault and sexual abuse are often used interchangeably and refer to “unwanted sexual acts – ranging from exhibitionism to penetration – that involve threats of physical force, intimidation and deception” (Reily, 2000 p.53 as cited in Sable, et al. 2006 p. 157). The issue of the inability to give or lack of consent has been identified in legal best practice as well as academic research as an essential piece to this definition (Rich, et al., 2010).
Furthermore, it is essential to understand how students are labeling and thus, constructing the experience of sexual assault (Hammond & Calhoun, 2007; Littleton, et al., 2009).

*Interpersonal violence (IPV)*

As other research in the field has done, this paper will define violence in accordance with the World Health Organization (2012), “Violence is the threatened or actual use of physical force or power against another person, against oneself, or against a group or community that either results in or is likely to result in injury, death or depravation”. The World Health Organization further identifies specific types of violence including interpersonal violence. This definition is as follows,

**Interpersonal violence** refers to violence between individuals,

and is subdivided into *family and intimate partner violence* and *community violence*. The former category includes child maltreatment; intimate partner violence; and elder abuse, while the latter is broken down into *acquaintance* and *stranger* violence and includes youth violence; assault by strangers; violence related to property crimes; and violence in workplaces and other institutions (World Health Organization, 2012).

While all of the types of violence are a concern, intimate partner violence (IPV) is an important factor in this research due to its prevalence on college campuses (Carr, et al., 2006; Fass, et al., 2008; Littleton, et al., 2009; Hayes, Crane, & Locke, 2010). As with the other sensitive issues discussed in this paper, the constructed notion of IPV among this specific population is not yet identified, but characteristics of IPV based on previous research will be discussed further.
Sensitive Topics

The need for increased ethical and methodological care is of utmost importance to this research due to the sensitive topics that will be addressed. The steps taken to ensure ethical care of these sensitive topics will be described in greater detail in following sections of this paper. According to Lee and Renzetti (1990) a socially sensitive topic is identified as, “…one which potentially poses for those involved a substantial threat, the emergence of which renders problematic for the researcher and/or the researched the collection, holding, and/or dissemination of research data” (p. 512). As previously mentioned this research is not concerned with experiences of victimization but rather perceptions of safety. However, as previously mentioned, the nature of this research allows for a possibility that participants could address personal and sensitive topics, which include experiences or beliefs of victimization. The research has taken measures to ensure that the proper resources will be available to students if needed in order to maintain the ethical status of this research.

Unmatched-count technique (UCT)

This is a survey format and analysis technique in which participants are split into two separate samples and administered a survey. The survey for sample one and two differ in one way. Sample one receives questions with five item answers and sample two receives questions with six item answers; the sixth being the question concerning the sensitive topic. UCT is a method that has been utilized in various studies and produced significant results in participants’ endorsement of sensitive questions (Anderson, Simmons, Milnes, & Earlywine, 2007; Ahart & Sacket, 2004; LaBrie & Earlywine, 2000; Lavender & Anderson, 2009; Rayburn, Earleywine, & Davison, 2003; Walsh &
Braithwaite, 2008; Dalton, Daily & Wimbush, 1997; Dalton, Wimbush & Daily, 1994). The use of this survey technique, including sampling procedures, question format as well as strengths and weaknesses of results will be discussed in greater detail in the methods section of this paper. More specifically, Appendix A (p. 100) provides a table of the reviewed scholarly work on the topic of UCT.

Limitations and Scope

It was of the utmost importance that this research remained within a reasonable scope in terms of the topics addressed and the resources available. A thorough review of the research provided a framework from which to question students, and code their responses regarding safety perceptions that are open-ended, attitudinal, behavior focused and allows for sensitive analysis of variables such as gender. Specifically, Starkweather, et al., (2007) research framework attempts to compensate for this limitation by focusing on safety rather than victimization. Other limitations concerning student responses included a social desirability bias (Kress, et al., 2006; Sable, et al., 2006; Dobbs, et al., 2009; Walsh & Braithwaite, 2008), which will be discussed in further detail in the following sections of this paper. A paper and pencil survey (UCT) that provided base line data, along with the focus group interview was used as a way to cross reference the shared knowledge, perceptions and beliefs held by students. The issues of threats to validity or generalizability that are discussed in other research methods differ for this project due to the epistemological framework, which it functions under. Included in the methods section of this paper is a deeper discussion of the role of such concerns to this study.
Brief Overview

The analysis of student perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence will provide invaluable information to aid the university in accomplishing it’s goals; as well as contributing to the academic exploration of perceptions’ of college students, regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. As previously mentioned, the body of literature, which addressed these topics spanned a number of fields including governmental research as well as studies from multiple realms of academia. For the purpose of this study, the analysis of literature was broken into the following four sections, which will be detailed in a later segment of this paper:

1. Statistics and data pertaining to the occurrence of campus violence, sexual-assault and other safety issues.
2. The description and the relational explanation of the constructivist paradigm and social cognitive theory to this research as found in the literature.
3. A brief review of prevention and response interventions in the higher education setting.
4. A summary of the factors and affects, which interventions can have for students and institutions as a whole.

The ACHA White Paper, (Carr, et al., 2006) recognizes that, “students are acculturated in the dominant ideologies and cultural practices of the times before they come to college” (p. 395). Within this culturally implicated context, this research will utilized a mixed methods research strategy to collect data, and the qualitative method of thematic analysis to analyze the perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence
held by a specific population of college students. In order to invoke effective interventions or change, “An accurate estimation of the base rate of any phenomenon could be fundamental for the design of an intervention” (Wimbush et al., 1997 p. 756).

Thus, the purpose of this research is to begin to identify students’ constructed reality on these issues, and then utilize results in the prevention, response and risk-reduction strategies implemented by the university. New methods and outlooks concerning the exploration of these topics are beginning to develop; however, a clear void exists in the literature regarding campus safety. There is a need for research that is rooted in theory as well as flexible to the sensitive and specific circumstances of this subject area.
Literature Review

Students and Safety

Over the past thirty years the issue of campus safety has become a prevalent topic, and proved to be a complex one as well (Carr, et al., 2006; Sable, et al., 2006; Fisher, 1995; Fisher, et al., 1997; Gidycz, et al., 2006; Farmer, et al., 2005; Brecklin et al., 2004; Lee & Hilinski-Rosick, 2011; McMohon & Dick, 2011). One incident which really brought campus safety into the mainstream view, and has changed (to what degree is still unknown) the way many schools handle safety issues is the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (20 USC 1092(f)). The Clery Act, as it is now known, was the result of an incident at Leigh University, where Jeanne Clery was raped and murdered on campus. The following is a direct statement describing the Clery Act’s role at the mid-sized Virginia university where this research is being conducted

The Clery Act requires all colleges and universities that participate in federal financial aid programs to keep and disclose information about crime on and near their respective campuses. Compliance is monitored by the Department of Education, which can impose civil penalties, up to $27,500 per violation, against institutions for each infraction and can suspend institutions from participating in federal student financial aid programs (http://www.jmu.edu/pubsafety/Clery.shtml).

Although the Clery Act along with other regulations regarding campus safety are meant to provide guidelines for universities to record and report data regarding incidents of
campus crime, research is still needed to determine the impact which this act has had on campus safety issues (Gregory and Janosik, 2006; Fisher, et al., 1997). One example of inquiry into the implications of the Clery act is an attempt to identify the perceptions of Senior Residence Life and Housing Administrators on the issue of campus safety. The research attempted to survey 832 participants, the final sample was 335 completed surveys; thus it is clear that this study is limited by a small sample and more research is needed on the topic (Gregory et. al., 2006). This need is supported by the incongruent findings that 85% of the sample “believed that students at their institutions were provided with copies, or directions to, the annual crime statistics” (p. 53). However, when asked about perceptions regarding if students read the information, 73% of the sample “were unaware as to whether students read the crime data…and 13% perceived that students did not read the reports” (p. 53). It is clear that campus safety is still an issue, which has proved to be complex for administration as well as students.

Although campus crime reports are produced, research has suggested that such data may not provide the whole picture (Fisher, et al., 1997; Carr, et al., 2006). In 2006 it was reported, “Overall violent crime against students fell from 88 to 41 victimizations per 1,000 students…” (Carr, et al. p.384). According to this statistic this is a declining, although still important issue. Researchers have advocated for cautious acceptance of this trend due to the consistent data that these statistics can be un-representative of reality as a result of under-reporting of crime and other incidents of violence (Carr, et al., 2006; Fass, et al., 2008; Fisher, et al., 1997). Other research has found that despite statistically declining rates of campus violence, this is still a crucial issue. According to Robinson and Mullen (2001), “crime on campus may still be problematic, as it causes fear and
perceptions of crime risk in students, faculty and staff” (p. 33). The contradiction between the frequency of crime reported to police and the actual occurrences are often highest regarding incidents of sexual assault and interpersonal violence (Carr, et al., 2006; Dobbs et al., 2009; Fass et al., 2008; Hertzog, et al., 2009; Kress, et al., 2006; Robinson et al. 2001; Sable, et al., 2006). More recently, Campbell and Longo (2010) reviewed the literature and practices of universities regarding the issue of stalking, noting that, colleges and universities are not required to include data on stalking incidents and arrests in their official annual crime statistics. However, the prevalence of stalking on campus has been assessed by a number of researchers, and stalking is thought to occur more frequently among college students than in the general population (p. 309). Another campus safety issue that is becoming a pressing concern is the occurrence of interpersonal violence (Fass et al., 2008; Schwartz, Griffin, Russell, & Frontaura-Duck, 2006; Smith, et al., 2003; Pomeroy, Parrish, Bost, Cowlagi, Cook & Stepura, 2011). In a longitudinal study regarding dating and interpersonal violence, Smith et al., (2003) found that, “From adolescence through the fourth year of college, 88% of the young women experienced at least 1 incident of physical or sexual victimization, and 63.5% experienced both” (p. 1106). Dobbs, et al., (2009) also reference the infrequency of IPV incidents that are reported and accounted for in campus reports.

While the issue of under reporting of violent crimes on campus, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence, is a logistical dilemma faced by researchers and practitioners alike, a number of studies have begun to move toward the systematic investigation of the underlying issues which impact all facets of student perceptions and behaviors regarding campus safety and those incidents which are going un-reported.
These issues include the effects of social scripts, gendered ideas such as rape myths and how society at large perpetuates these beliefs, thus continuing a cycle of violence (Farmer, et al., 2005; Hertzog, et al., 2009; Kress, et al., 2006; Rich, et al., 2010). One other issue, which is discussed in a later part of this research, is the impact of psychological violence and the role of one’s fear of victimization. A fear of victimization, a potential for victimization and issues of campus safety are valid and important pieces to the study of safety issues on college campuses. Deborah Prothrow-Smith, MD, a leader in the arena of public-health, at a keynote address in 2007, discussed the prevalence of campus violence and the larger social responsibility to the issue by stating,

…the magnitude of the problem, and all I will say about that is that it is more than you think. It is more of a problem on your campus than you think, and the numbers are in the ACHA white paper and in the CDC documents as well. But the magnitude, the toll it takes on life and limb in the country, really means that this is a health and a public health problem (p. 301).

As previously mentioned, this research is situated at the nexus of campus safety issues and the ensuing cultural implications.

Culture and Safety

Culture is defined as

the beliefs, behaviours, sanctions, values and goals that mark the way of life of a group of people… [including] language, values, rituals or expectations for behaviour, social controls, what we eat and how we
communicate. It provides the context within which we view the world and make decisions about how we will live” (Gorman, 2010 p.28).

The terms culture and safety are situated within the epistemological view of constructivism for the purposes of this paper, as previously mentioned. Dobbs, et al., (2009) describes one intersection of culture, or the social environment and the individual when discussing social desirability and self reported fear of victimization. Their research asserts that “in other words, men may act in accord with prescriptions of hegemonic masculinity and report lower levels of fear when in fact they may be quite fearful of crime itself” (p. 106). Other authors have studied the relationship of a number of social variables that are intertwined with the world of college students. Specifically these include, but are not limited to, the impact of demographic variables such as gender and age on crime, including sexual assault and IPV (Day, Stump & Carreon, 2003; Draucker & Mastolf, 2010; Phelan, Sanchez & Broccoli, 2010). The role of drug and alcohol use among college students is also a variable which is currently a topic of study (Boekeloo, Bush & Novik, 2009; Krebs, et al., 2009; Anderson, et al., 2006; Howard, Griffin, Boekeloo, Lake & Bellows, 2007). Also imperative to the study of campus safety is the role of re-victimization, studies have begun to investigate the relationship between being a victim of violence and the future incidents of violence that may occur (Smith, et al., 2003; Thomas, Sorenson & Joshi, 2010; Brecklin, et al., 2004). Throughout the investigation of a specific groups’ construction of culture and safety, the way in which the culture and safety relationship is defined must remain open and fluid. Thus, it is important to recognize that multiple definitions of safety issues may exist for all groups involved with campus safety; this includes students, administrators and researchers.
Through the review of literature this research has developed two sub-variables that are part of campus safety as a whole. These variables include the culturally recognized sensitive issues of sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Identifying the way in which college students characterize their experiences in terms of the impact of the language and channels (technology, scripts, and other social interactions (Hertzog, et al., 2009; Hink, et al., 1999; Littleton, et al., 2009; Drauker, et al., 2010)) is important to this research study. The inquiry into the in-situ communication that is used to identify instances of sexual assault provides a small glimpse into the social scripts, which students may be following. The overall goal of this research is to begin to develop a bridge that will close the gap between students’ experiences and the development and implementation of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. In order to do so it is important to determine the channels through which student gather information about their safety, but also to recognize the merit which certain channels or sources may have based on social scripts. Thus, these social scripts are important to understand (Littleton, et al., 2009; Wilcox, et al., 2007), as they are cognitive structures that serve to guide behavior in social situations. By identifying the factors that may impact social scripts, suggestions for developing interventions that address these factors can be provided.

In order to develop this bridge, the following research focuses on the influences of social constructivism and social cognitive theory. By gaining a perspective that is theoretically grounded, researchers and practitioners alike can begin to better identify how the physical and social environment of a college campus affects the safety of students.
Social Constructivism

Mau-Liu and Matthews (2005) explain that, “the social or realist constructivist tradition is often said to derive from the work of Vygotsky. Others…include Kuhn, Greeno, Lave, Simon, and Brown.” (p.388). These theorists are grouped together based on their shared ideas of the importance of the social environment when it comes to learning, and the impact of their work in the field of educational psychology. For the purpose of this research, the application of constructivist ideas strays from the use of this paradigm in classrooms and focuses on the epistemological views which constructivism supports, specifically, “the idea …that individual representations of knowledge are somewhat idiosyncratic and socially mediated” (Hyslop-Margison and Strobel, 2008 p. 75). It is important to note that constructivism is a complex and multifaceted theoretical paradigm, thus specific and pertinent aspects are discussed further in order to define constructivism for this research.

Patton (2002) has defined multiple research paradigms through a focus of their distinguishing foundational questions, one of which is the paradigm of social constructivism. As a paradigm social constructivism is concerned with the following foundational questions, “How have the people in this setting constructed reality? What are their reported perceptions, ‘truths,’ explanations, beliefs, and world-view? What are the consequences of their constructions for their behaviors and for those with whom they interact?” (p.96). Patton’s foundational question is at the root of this research inquiry. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) described the historical phases of qualitative research as related to constructivism; recognizing the shift from a time in which social science sought objectivity through tight methods and procedures, to a post-experimental phase during
which the focus on evaluation of method was no longer the basis of research, rather qualitative research expanded by defining perspectives of inquiry in terms of paradigms, philosophical categories, theoretical orientation as well as methodological strategy (Patton, 2002 p.80). The perspective of social-constructivism, “highlights the role of social interactions in knowledge development…In this orientation, knowledge is shared by a community of learners” (Richey, Klein & Tracey, 2011 p. 129). These social interactions are the crux of social constructivist research, recognizing that by delving into these interactions – such as those experienced and described by college students, researchers can then understand how a community creates the reality in which they live.

While constructivism has developed as an accepted theory among fields such as psychology and education, it is not to suggest that it is without criticism. Phillips’ (1995) critique, “The good, the bad, and the ugly: the many faces of constructivism” is a seminal and poignant work that provides in depth criticism to the application, origins and understandings of constructivism. Overall, Phillips provides a breakdown of “main constructivist writers” into three dimensions – 1) those that focus on internal knowledge construction and content, 2) those that focus on public or social knowledge formation and 3) those that focus on both. This categorization creates a spectrum for constructivism, which highlights the differences between each category, and how the complexity and differentiation have allowed for an unclear understanding, and thus provides an application of constructivism as an epistemological viewpoint. Another criticism Phillips asserts is the overall move of “many forms of constructivist epistemology… towards relativism, or towards treating the justification of our knowledge as being entirely a matter of sociopolitical processes or consensus, or toward the jettisoning of any
substantial rational justification or warrant at all” (p. 11). In another explanatory critique Phillips (1997) offers a dualistic option for constructivist philosophers to be categorized; ‘psychological constructivism’, Phillips (1997) recognizes Vygotsky as such and ‘social constructivists’ such as Bruno Latour. This paper utilizes the term social constructivism, but not in the sectarian sense which Phillips has defined it. Rather, as Mau-Liu & Matthews (2005) suggest social constructivism is an epistemology where “learners are believed to be acculturated into their learning community and appropriate knowledge, based on their existent understanding, through their interaction with the immediate learning environment” (p.388). Social constructivism turns on three important tenets: 1) how individuals create their own realities and describe their personal experiences, 2) how these individuals are situated within a larger cultural experience, 3) how the influences of the broader culture reflect back on the individuals’ experiences. Recognizing that it is not within the scope of this research to conduct a full debate and analysis of constructivist epistemology, it is clear that understanding the roots and criticisms are essential to identifying how constructivism implicates this research.

Language

Lincoln and Guba (1986) discuss the results of social constructivist research as, “explicitly informed by attention to praxis and reflexivity, that is, understanding how one’s own experiences and background affect what one understands and how one acts in the world” (p. 77). In order to identify and understand these experiences the observation and analysis of language is needed. Mau-Liu and Matthews (2005) parsimoniously summarize the role of language in knowledge construction as identified by Vygotsky:
The key to understanding the role of language in mental development lies in the dual nature of word meaning or language in use, otherwise called discourse. Contained in each word are two levels of meanings: one is the object or phenomenon the word refers to in the objective reality; the other is the relationship of the word with other words... The ability to produce situation-wise perlocutions involves the individual’s appropriation of history and culture as well as individual subjectivity standing above history and culture as a consequence of intellectual development (p. 393).

The choice to employ thematic analysis is based in this function of language and one’s understanding and experiences with the world. Research has recognized the need to determine and update the language used when trying to measure attitudes and beliefs regarding sensitive issues like sexual assault and interpersonal violence (McMahon, et. al., 2011); suggesting that often the language of surveys or other measurement tools is “outdated, antiquated and irrelevant” (McMahon, et. al., 2011 p.71) for some groups. It is the goal of this research to analyze the discourse of a group of students as a means by which to understand the deeper relationships between student’s language and experiences in regards to campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

*Bandura and Social Cognitive Theory*

Following the idea that knowledge is socially constructed, as previously discussed, the expansive work of Albert Bandura (1974) discusses the implications and roles which individual and collective knowledge has on behaviors. Suggesting that individuals learn by observing those around them and model behavior based on those observations (Bandura, 1974). Bandura’s social cognitive theory came in response to the...
psychological theories of behaviorism, and has developed to combat certain beliefs and fears concerning behaviorism.

As Bandura (1974) asserts,

> In the minds of the general public, and of many within our own discipline, behavior theory is equated with ‘conditioning’. Over the years, the terms *behaviorism and conditioning* have come to be associated with odious imagery, including salivating dogs, puppetry, and animalistic manipulation (p. 155).

Social cognitive theory explores the complexities, intricacies and nuances of individual’s relationships to the external world in terms of motivation, agency and behavior (Bandura 1974). In particular Bandura and others have investigated the role of self-efficacy as a cognitive function that influences individuals agency and behavior (Bandura, 1974; Caprara, Regalia, & Bandura, 2002; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Bandura & Bussey, 2004; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli & Regalia, 2001). Bandura, et al., (2001) identify self-efficacy as a “belief system” which defines individuals belief that they have some control to produce desirable outcomes and to prevent undesirable outcomes;

> “Whatever other factors may operate as guides and motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to influence one’s own functioning and life circumstances” (p. 125). These beliefs are linked to a number of areas or domains of an individual’s life, and impact a myriad of behaviors, actions and cognitive processes (Bandura, et al., 2001; Caprara et al., 2002). Social cognitive theory recognizes that “people are proactive and self regulating agents whose psychosocial development takes place in transactions within a broad network of sociostructural and psychosocial
influences” (Caprara et. al., 2002 p. 64). Studying these transactions allows for a better understanding of individuals beliefs about their ability to control or contribute to issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Within the larger body of knowledge regarding social cognitive theory, a number of specific topics are applicable to this research including, the implications of efficacy beliefs on moral disengagement, self-regulatory efficacy and transgressive behaviors, as well as how efficacy beliefs impact gender development (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli, 1996; Bandura, 1974; Caprara, et al., 2002; Bussey, et al., 1999; Bandura, et al., 2004; Bandura, et al., 2001). Thus, a discussion of the literature pertaining to these topics is necessary.

*Moral disengagement, self-regulatory and transgressive behaviors*

As previously discussed the role of self-efficacy spans a number of domains including moral agency – suggesting that individuals engage in behaviors that increase positive self worth and are deterred from engaging in activities which will degrade self worth, or cause “self-censure” (Bandura, et al., 1996, p. 364). According to social cognitive theory, moral agency is motivated through a self-regulatory system; specifically, moral agency “operates through three major subfunctions…self-monitoring, judgmental, and self-reactive” (Bandura, et al., 1996, p.364). Essentially, individuals control behaviors by monitoring actions, then judging and evaluating them against moral standards which, in turn, activates individuals ability to control their own behavior based on perceived positive of negative outcomes (Bandura, et al., 1996; Bandura, 1974; Caprara, et al., 2002). Finally, the integral piece of Bandura’s moral disengagement and self-regulatory behaviors is the recognition of a number of specific cognitive practices,
which allow individuals to disengage from adverse behaviors during the movement through the self-regulatory system (Bandura, et al., 1996).

Social cognitive theory suggests that in order to promote self-regulatory systems that discourage moral disengagement as well as transgressive behaviors, positive self-efficacy must be developed through multiple domains and pro-social behavior (Bandura, 1974; Bandura, et al., 1996; Bandura, et al., 2001). One example of the relationship of moral disengagement (as defined through social cognitive theory) and issues of personal safety include the idea of victim blaming. Psychologically, individuals learn “self-exonerating justification” (p. 158) for those behaviors that are regarded as wrong. One of these behaviors that play an important role in the study of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence is victim blaming. As previously mentioned, social cognitive theory posits that individuals observe the behaviors of others, and then enact those that are appropriately based on the perceived impact on positive self-worth. Those behaviors, which may be internally driven by practices of moral disengagement, can be perceived as rewarding to the observer and thus, the modeled behavior is seen as socially acceptable and appropriate (Bandura, 1974; Bandura, et al., 1996, Bandura, et al., 2001). Victim blaming has become a social script (Bandura, 1996; Lee, et al., 1990; Dobbs, et al., 2009; Fisher, 1995; Wilcox, et al., 2007; Farmer, et al., 2005; Hertzog, et al., 2009; Kress, et al., 2006; Rich, et al., 2010; Hinck, et al., 1999; Murned, et al., 2002), which allows individuals and perpetrators to self-exonerate the violent or wrong doings committed against another human being through practices of moral disengagement. “Victims are faulted for bringing maltreatment on themselves, or extraordinary circumstances are
invoked as justifications for questionable conduct. One need not engage in self-reproach for committing acts prescribed by circumstances” (Bandura, et al., 1996 p.159).

The table below provides a list of the some of the disengagement practices, as well as an explanation of how each function. Littleton, et al. (2009) studied the relationship between college women’s social scripts of bad “hook-ups” and social scripts about rape. Some of the findings regarding those who had been sexually victimized or had someone confide victimization in them suggested, “having these experiences may not necessarily result in a change in participants’ scripts” (p. 802). This could be because practices of moral disengagement are activated through social scripts. For example, despite experiences with victimization, a large percentage of participants did not conceptualize their experience as rape, but something other than it like, “a miscommunication or bad sex”(p.802) – enacting euphemistic language. Recognizing the possible enactment of these practices of moral disengagement is beneficial to understanding students’ perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence as well as to develop interventions that are socially appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Euphemistic language</th>
<th>Convenient tool for masking reprehensible activities; conferring a respectable status on them</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advantageous comparison</td>
<td>Contrast injurious conduct with more reprehensible activities to render it benign or diminish consequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displacement of responsibility</td>
<td>View actions as springing from the social pressures or dictates of others; not personally responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffusion of responsibility</td>
<td>Division of detrimental behavior into</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
seemingly harmless pieces; group decision making – if everyone is responsible, no one is responsible and group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disregarding or distorting the consequences</th>
<th>Pursue activities harmful to others for personal gain, or because of social inducements, avoid facing harm caused or minimize harm; readily recall benefits not harmful effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dehumanization</td>
<td>Divests people of human qualities; attribute bestial qualities to them; no longer viewed as person with feelings, hopes, and concerns but as subhuman objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution of blame</td>
<td>View self as faultless victims driven to injurious conduct by forcible provocation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Practices of moral disengagement from Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli (1996)

*Bandura and gender development*

Social cognitive theory has been applied to the inquiry of gender studies and has resulted in the advancement of a sociocognitive analysis of gender development and differentiation. Bussey and Bandura (1999) analyzed a number of theories and frameworks, which attempt to explain gender role development, only to determine that there are three dimensions on which the other viewpoints are lacking empirical data, or do not address those viewpoints. Those three dimensions include: 1) relative emphasis on psychological, biological and sociocultural determinants, 2) the nature of the transmission model and 3) the temporal scope (p. 676). The expansion of a sociocognitive theory of gender development and differentiation addresses the relationship between the complex and nuanced dimensions through the analysis of empirical research. The sociocognitive
theory is a causal structure that can be utilized for the understanding of the development and differentiation of gender roles. According to Bussey, et al. (1999) “In social cognitive theory, gender development is neither totally shaped and regulated by environmental forces or by socially nonsituated intrapsychic processes. Rather, gender development is explained in terms of triadic reciprocal causation” (p. 684). Figure 2 displays the elements, which influence gender development and differentiation through triadic reciprocal causation. This model has a number of defining features including the recognition of the bi-directional relationship between the factors. This relationship identifies that it is the complex interaction between internal cognitive elements, modeled behaviors and multiple environments, which facilitate gender role development; this differs from other models, which emphasize one factor as more dominant, or as the only factor implicit for gender role development. It is important to recognize that a bi-directional relationship, does not suggest that each is equal in strength in terms of influence (Bussey, et al., 1999; Bandura and Bussey, 2004). The sociocognitive theory posits, “Their relative impact may fluctuate over time, situational circumstances, and activity domains” (Bussey, et al., 1999 p. 685). Using the sociocognitive theory can identify elements which implicate how students develop gender-linked behaviors and what this means in terms of their perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.
Sociocognitive theory (Bandura, et al., 1996; Bandura, 1974; Caprara, et al., 2002; Bussey, et al., 1999; Bandura, et al., 2004; Bandura, et al., 2001) of gender development also provides insight regarding how the learning of gender roles and differentiation occurs, and thus can be used to design and develop learning opportunities and interventions for college students regarding issues such as campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Rader and Crossman (2001) recognized the unique situation of college students in terms of fear for others, specifically how this fear is implicated by gender roles. Rader, et al. (2001) found that a university setting could develop close social networks of individuals of the same, and opposite sex. Within these networks students fear for others was implicated by gender as well as proximity. For example, women living with other women were found to have fear for other women, which Rader, et al. (2011) suggests could be a result of social gender scripts that suggest when the absence of a man as a protector is found, women will fill that void by caring for other women.

Sociocognitive theory recognizes that a social script of one’s self concept of gender, such as the one suggested by Rader, et. al., (2011), is not only constructed by
individual modeling or influence but rather it is shaped at a more collective social level (Bussey, et al., 1999; Bandura, et al., 2004). Specifically, sociocognitive theory recognizes three major regulators of gendered conduct, 1) outcome expectations of gendered conduct, 2) self evaluative standards and 3) self-efficacy beliefs. Recognizing that student’s regulate gender through these tools, and that gender as a social script implicates safety beliefs and practices, it is clear that understanding how to influence these tools through prevention, response and risk reduction strategies is advantageous.

Sociocognitive theory of gender development focuses on the importance of modeling as a tool for gender development, but also recognizes that direct tuition when supplemented by modeling is also very effective (Bussey, et al., 1999). However, recognizing that gender development is impacted at a collective level including, behavior patterns, social roles and social structures it is acknowledged that any direct intervention, which is attempting to influence these factors must be based on “shared values and receive widespread social support” (p. 689). Figure 3a is proposing that for this research, the current social system is supporting gendered outcome expectations, self-evaluative standards and efficacy beliefs that may cause students to engaging in high risk or negative behaviors. Conversely, Figure 3b is suggesting that a future system of “widespread social support” that encourages positive regulators of gendered conduct and thus, will oust those scripts that perpetuate negative behaviors.
Figure 3a. Individual Negative Behavior supported in the social system (as adapted by Roberts, 2012)

Figure 3b. Individual Negative Behavior impeded by social system (as adapted by Roberts, 2012)
The large outside circle represents the social system including language practices, media representations, policies and resources. Bussey, et al., (1999) recognize that

Handicapping practices that are built into the social order require social remedies. The collective social efforts must address the expectations, belief systems, and social practices in the home, school, mass media, and the workplace that not only diminish personal efficacy and aspirations but erect institutional impediments to making the most of one’s talents (p.694).

By utilizing the unique circumstances of university environments in which both genders can have access to modeling and direct tuition of gender roles, as well as developing increased self-efficacy through opportunities to practice behaviors that in other social settings may produce negative outcomes, individuals in the collective have a greater ability of changing the broader social system. In terms of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence sociocognitive theory is imperative in the development of a culture that can support and include the bystander approach, or the perceived ability of individuals to intervene in certain situations (Banyard, 2011; Gidycz, et al., 2011). Figure 3b., represents a model of a bystander experience in which an individual (internally) believes something is wrong and then chooses to intervene in the situation, based on the belief that one has the ability to positively impact the situation and that the social outcomes will increase self worth. This decision is supported through social acceptance and reward. And on the other hand, when individuals see others engaging in the perceived negative behavior, or not intervening, (despite what is observed) the social system does not accept or foster this choice. Gidycz, et al., (2011) identify this need for change in the social system in reference to sexual violence stating,
Although it is ultimately the responsibility of potential perpetrators to take responsibility for ending violence against women, these results suggest that researchers and advocates can play an important role in developing preventative interventions to facilitate community-based change in the norms that serve to condone sexual violence” (p. 737).

Utilizing social cognitive theory (Bandura, et al., 1996; Bandura, 1974; Caprara, et al., 2002; Bussey, et al., 1999; Bandura, et al., 2004; Bandura, et al., 2001) as a basis for the development of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies provides a complex and multifaceted, but holistic view of issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

*Maslow and Safety*

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is a theoretical model of individuals’ motivation to move towards self-actualization (Maslow, 1987a; Maslow 1987b; Maslow, 2000). Figure four illustrates Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 2000 p. 1)
Maslow identifies “the individual as an integrated and organic whole motivated by needs that are hierarchical – unfulfilled lower needs dominate thinking and behaviour until they are satisfied” (Gorman, 2010 p. 27). The five needs include physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow posits that satisfaction of needs is not a simplistic and sum-total process but rather, individual’s needs are met at a more gradual rate. Noting that the satisfaction of needs functions more so as, “decreasing percentages of satisfaction as we go up the hierarchy of prepotency” (Maslow, p. 388) rather than a dualistic fulfillment (1987b.). It is important to understand that Maslow recognizes that this theory does not always predict behavior because of the many confounding determinates of behavior, which are not factored into the basic theory (Maslow, 1987a.). As previously mentioned the hierarchy functions at a gradual rate of fulfillment, and is different depending on context for each individual. In certain context’s it is described that events can cause a reversal of the hierarchy. This is described as “when a need has been satisfied for a long time, this need may be underevaluated” (Maslow, 1987b. p. 387).

The notion of hierarchical reversal could be applicable to issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Elam, Stratton, and Gibson, (2007) discussed the state of current generations of those students who may be entering colleges and universities, such as the Millennial generation. When discussing the role of safety, the authors emphasize that many of these individuals have been “protected and sheltered” for most of their life and that “they likely will hold university officials accountable for providing a safe and secure campus environment” (p. 24). Thus, it is possible that for some students their safety has been satisfied through protection from parents or authority
figures, and the need could be underevaluated when they become more independent as they move into the college setting. This underevaluation could cause students to be less aware of safety issues, or perhaps hyper-aware, causing overstimulation of potential for victimization. Other factors such as gender, which contribute to students’ perceptions of potential victimization will be discussed further (Dobbs, et al., 2009; Rader, et al., 2011). However, Maslow’s theory of the reversal of the hierarchy could be applicable to students’ potential behaviors.

This hierarchy is germane to this research because, as Maslow (Maslow, 1987a; Maslow, 1987b; Maslow, 2000) posits, needs are not exclusive, but rather multiple needs can influence behavior. This includes behavior related to gender construction; Maslow suggests that, “One may make love not only for pure sexual release, but also to convince one’s self of one’s masculinity, or to make a conquest, to feel powerful, or to win more basic affection” (Maslow, 1987b p. 390). Social scripts of gender development and roles may influence the desire to satisfy multiple needs that could lead to negative behaviors such as, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. While Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is an integral theory to furthering the understanding of students’ perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence, it is necessary to take a closer look at the safety need.

Individuals need for safety is identified by the following characteristics, “security; stability; dependency; protection; freedom from fear, anxiety, and chaos; need for structure, order, laws, and limits; strength in the protector; and so on” (Maslow, 1987a. p. 18). Maslow recognizes that for most adults in today’s society, the safety need is relatively satisfied. However, Maslow acknowledges that even an individual who is
generally satisfied, can allow safety to become a primary motivate if a threat to order, law or other previously identified characteristics occurs. He identifies that a safety line or threshold can exist, or be perceived. College students are a population living on the safety border, as previously discussed (Carr, et al., 2006). These threats to personal safety, even if just perceived can be enough to dominate one’s motivation thus suppressing other levels of needs (Maslow, 1987a.; Maslow, 1987b.; Maslow, 2000; Gorman, 2010). A number of studies have identified the physically constraining effects which perceived fear of crime can have on an individual (Dobbs et. al, 2009; Rader et. al., 2011; Day, Stump & Carreon, 2003; Fisher, 1995; Lee and Hilinski-Rosick, 2011). Thus, it is important to ascertain individuals’ perceptions of safety, as these perceptions could be linked to Maslow’s safety need.

Prevention and Response

Colleges and universities have been responding to the pressing concerns of campus safety issues, particularly sexual assault and IPV through a variety of interventions; however, there is a consistent dearth in the evaluation of the impacts which these programs or interventions have for students and universities alike (Pomerory, Parrish, Bost, Cowlagi, Cook & Stepura, 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Gidycz, et al., 2006; Gidycz, Orchowski & Berkowitz, 2011; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Orchowski, et al., 2006; Kress, et al, 2006; Vladutiu, Martin & Macey, 2011). Programs vary along lines of content, format, duration, audience and type of facilitator – but few programs assess effectiveness to reduce incidences of sexual assault due to the difficulty of gathering such information as a result of under reporting (Kress, et al., 2006; Vladutiu, et al., 2011; Rich, et al., 2010). Amongst all of the literature regarding issues of campus safety, sexual
assault and interpersonal violence there is a myriad of suggested implications, potential program development options and proposed ideas for researchers, educators and administrators (Vladutiu et al. 2011).

Other research has suggested a more holistic solution to provide programming for students by integrating prevention information and strategies into the curriculum as a whole (Cermel, 2004; Olson & Riley, 2009). However, what most studies agree upon is that in order to have any impact on the occurrences or affects of these issues, larger cultural problems must be addressed – such as the social scripts regarding gender which have been previously mentioned (Pomerory, et al., 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Gidycz, Rich, Orchowski, et al., 2006; Gidycz, Orchowski et al., 2011; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Kress, et al., 2006; Vladutiu, et al., 2011). The following section outlines a number of prevention methods, outcomes and suggestions based on the literature.

Although the focus of their literature review was sexual abuse or violence, Vladutiu, et al., (2011) provides an in-depth and comprehensive illustration of the current research, as well as possibilities for administrators or other decision makers. In terms of content, Vladutiu, et al., (2011) found, “suggested content for effective programs include gender-role socialization, risk education, sexual assault myths, rape-supportive attitudes, rape avoidance, men’s motivation to rape, victim empathy, dating communication, controlled drinking and relapse prevention”(p. 77). The choices in this list alone make it clear that designing and developing prevention interventions are a complex task. Overall the study offers a number of suggestions for implementing prevention programs on campuses, Table two offers a list of those suggestions. Overall, the study concludes that,
“different types of interventions may be needed to address different types of outcomes” (p.81).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consideration</th>
<th>Program focus or outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single-gender audiences</td>
<td>focusing on impacting rape attitudes, behavioral intent, rape knowledge and awareness, rape empathy, and rape myth acceptance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed-gender audiences</td>
<td>Can be effective at improving rape attitudes, behavioral intent and reducing rape myth acceptance – but often less effective than single-gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer facilitator</td>
<td>Reducing rape myth acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional facilitator</td>
<td>Focusing on improving rape-related attitudes and behavioral intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple and longer sessions</td>
<td>Effective at improving rape attitudes and rape myth acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program on risk reduction/sexual assault education</td>
<td>May improve sexual assault knowledge; may be unsuccessful changing rape-supportive attitudes and reduce incidence of sexual assault</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Design considerations and corresponding characteristics of prevention programs

Recognizing that the former list is by no means exhaustive, it is a clear call for the need for further research regarding the longitudinal impact of different prevention program efforts on college campuses.

Other programming efforts on college campuses include self-defense trainings (Gidycz, et al., 2006; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Orchowski, et al., 2006), bystander intervention education (Exner & Cummings, 2011; Banyard, 2011; McMahon & Farmer,
2009; Gidycz, et al., 2011) and education regarding interpersonal violence (Pomeroy, et al., 2011; Schwartz, Griffin, Russell, and Frontaura-Duck, 2006). As with the previously discussed programming or intervention efforts, the study of how gender impacts the design and development of these formats is an important consideration as well (Exner, et al., 2011; Banyard, 2011; Gidycz, et al., 2011; Gidycz, et al., 2006; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Orchowski, et al., 2006; Pomeroy, et al., 2011; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Kress, et al., 2006).

However, a common theme throughout self-defense, bystander and IPV education, for males and females, is the need to improve students’ self-efficacy, or belief that they are capable of acting in ways that can make a positive difference (Banyard, 2011; McMahon, et al., 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Exner, et al., 2011; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Ullman, et al., 1993, Cermele, 2004). For example, when studying bystander education programming for college students, Exner, et al. (2011) found that, “while most students may be willing to prevent violence, programming may need to focus on individual self-efficacy in order to convince students that they can learn the skills needed to make a difference in violence prevention” (p. 656). A bystander is a third party individual, or someone who intervenes to diffuse a high-risk situation such as one which may lead to an incidence of sexual assault, or another violent encounter (Banyard, 2011). Research specifically focusing on men’s perceptions of a bystander intervention program found that, “seven of the eight men expressed anxiety about intervening…two types of anxiety were evident in the interviews: anxiety about confidence and skills” (p. 13).

Another study regarding males’ resistance to rape prevention programs also found that while a number of men indicated that they felt men had a role in preventing sexual violence, the identified a need for knowledge specifically about that role (Rich, et al.,
2010). Emphasizing the importance which social scripts play in individual perceptions of
their role Rich, et al., (2010) found that “The third largest category of respondents (thirty-
three or 21%) believed their preventative role was to act chivalrous, physically intervene
as a bystander during an assault, or violently retaliate against the perpetrator”(p.279).
This was significant because these participants enacted stereotypical gender roles of men
as strong and women as weak, this is problematic because if men continue to believe,
“their primary role is to act as a responsible individual, they will fail to see the structural
implications of patriarchy and sexual assault” (Rich, et al., 2010, p. 280).

Increasing the self-efficacy of female students is just as culturally situated as with
males. When discussing the topic of self-defense, physical and verbal for women,
Cermele (2004) explicitly acknowledges that female students are often skeptical or
unsure about the ability of women to resist gender violence. This skepticism is deeply
rooted in social scripts and “leaves them unwilling or unable to evaluate the literature,
methodology, and data, let alone explore the reasons such myths persist and their larger
social, cultural, and theoretical implications” (p. 2). The study proceeds to evaluate the
impact of a theoretically based self-defense program, which consists of not only physical
and verbal resistance strategies, but also a coinciding lecture style course of gender issues.
Overall, Cermele (2004) found that the experience was transformative for students and
that “was effective in shifting students’ perspectives…in a way that allowed for the
possibility of serious intellectual examination…This experience gave each student
concrete and disconfirming evidence with which to challenge the belief, ‘I could never do
that’” (p.9). Understanding the role of self-efficacy in terms of safety prevention,
response and risk reduction strategies for college students is crucial to the development of effective interventions and programs, for both male and females.

A number of studies pose suggestions on future research within the realm of prevention, response and risk reduction programming or interventions for college students (Banyard, 2011; McMahon, et al., 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Exner, et al., 2011; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Ullman, et al., 1993, Cermele, 2004; Pomeroy, et al., 2011). Through the analysis of students’ perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence and a mid-sized Virginia university, this research intends to provide data that could be utilized in tandem with the current body of research, for administrator, students and others to determine the needs of this specific community.

Factors and affects for students and schools

Addressing the factors and affects of campus safety issues for both students and universities is a complex and culturally mediated issue. As has been suggested in other sections of this research, identifying and understanding these factors is the only way to develop prevention, response and risk reduction strategies that are multifaceted and will impact students and universities alike. In this section the research surrounding students’ and administrators’ perceptions and actions regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence are addressed, as well as the beliefs and implications of public policy or other initiatives. Recognizing the contradiction between policy, media and culture and the reality of campus violence is exemplified in the following statement:

We read about it in the newspaper, we fear it, and we know we have a problem. But [the fact] that most of the violence occurs among friends and family and acquaintances is often surprising because of what we get from
the news. What we get and what we fear and what our public policy addresses, for the most part, is that stranger bad guy –that someone from somewhere else –that nonstudent from over there who comes in and wreaks havoc” (Prothrow-Smith, 2007 p. 301).

Understanding the impact of fear, and perceptions of safety in relation to environment and behavior has been identified as an important factor in the development of effective prevention programming in the research (Dobbs, et al., 2009; Robinson, et al., 2001; Carr, et al., 2006; Rader, et al, 2011;Phelan, et al., 2010; Wilcox, et al., 2007). Carr, et al., (2006) report on the direct and indirect consequences of campus violence for students, staff and faculty emphasizing the emotional, mental, physical and behavioral effects that can be detrimental to a university and those individuals. The following is a review of factors and affects which campus violence has for universities’ faculty, staff and students.

*University and College administration, policy and procedure*

Although universities and colleges across the country have begun to implement prevention, response and risk reduction strategies, there is still a complex relationship between the administration’s role, and willingness to be open about issues such as sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Rich et al., (2010) identify that, “at the administrative level, university officials may shy away from openly discussing campus rapes or advocating prevention programs because they fear parents, students, and alumni may equate the efforts with a campus problem.” (p. 270). Other research has also recognized this issue (Carr, et al., 2006) and the unfortunate affects this contradiction may have one the ability to create effective policy and prevention programs. In order to change this contradiction, there must be a multi-disciplinary, holistic effort involving administrators,
alumni, community members, students, faculty, staff and families (Banyard, 2011; Campbell, et al., 2008; Sable, et al., 2006; Carr, et al., 2006; Starkweather, 2007). While Vladutiu, et al., (2011) stress that it would be beneficial for administrators to better prevent these issues by implementing evidence-based, or theoretically driven prevention strategies, they specifically charge policy makers “to consider rewarding or recognizing campuses that adopt evidence-based prevention practices to encourage colleges and universities to enact the most effective sexual assault prevention programs.” (p. 81). The ability to implement effective and holistic interventions is not just based on the willingness or knowledge of campus administration and leaders, but it is one, which is deeply entrenched, in financial implications. While it may seem costly to implement interventions, which address the deeper cultural issues that influence violence (Cermele, 2004) leaders in the arena must assess the long-term value of these programs. Kennedy (2010) acknowledges that,

> When the economic climate is gloomy, few areas of schools and universities are spared. In areas outside the classroom, such as a safety and security, the cuts may be larger and come more quickly. Yet, the need to provide a safe environment for students, staff and visitors to education institutions has not diminished…When money is scarce, education administrators seeking to maintain or improve campus security may be able to receive grants or donations to carry out their plans (p. 17).

Kennedy (2010) continues to discuss the ways in which institutions can make financially savvy changes that impact campus safety, focusing mostly on security response and prevention issue. These include suggestions such as developing campus communication
systems to alert individuals of any security breech on campus or other target hardening strategies like trimming hedges and adding lights to areas of campus. While these strategies are essential to maintaining a safe campus, these practices do not address the deeper cultural issues, which tend to mask problems such as sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

As previously mentioned the Clery Act has become an impending issue for administration and leaders of many universities (Fisher, et al., 1997; Gregory, 2006). In 2007, the Virginia Tech shootings brought the procedures and regulation standards of the Clery Act into the spotlight (Kennedy, 2010). In 2010 “The U.S. Department of Education…asserted that the university violated the federal Clery Act in 2007 by failing to issue a timely warning about the first deadly shooting at the residence hall” (Kennedy, 2010 p. 18). While the university refuted this charge, based on the assertion that they did not violate the act because those procedures did not exist prior to the event, the concern for procedure and policy change rippled through the higher education community.

Organizations like the American College Health Association have dispersed suggestions regarding the enforcement and development of the Clery Act procedures on college campuses particularly reporting processes (Carr, et al., 2006; ACHA,2007). Despite efforts to change reporting procedures of crimes including sexual assault and interpersonal violence research has suggested that there are multiple and complex barriers to students willingness and desire to report these crimes to officials (Carr, et al., 2006; Rich et al, 2011; Campbell, et al., 2010; Wilcox, et al., 2007). Sable, et al., (2006) recognizes that barriers to reporting sexual assault include issues of confidentiality, belief that it was a private matter, not labeling and incident as sexual assault, perception of
police or officials and gender. Also, recognizing that sexual assault for both males and females are continuing to go un-reported (Sable et al., 2006). Despite efforts to develop a more efficient and valid system of reporting campus crimes, the Clery Act’s success has been limited by “jurisdictional confusion, organizational inefficiency, and concern with student confidentiality” (Wilcox, et al., 2007 p. 222).

Thus, while continuing to implement Clery Act sanctions and procedures is important to maintaining campus safety, “other methods must be explored and implemented” (Gregory & Janosik, 2006 p. 34) that address the deeper cultural issues that prevent students from not only reporting crimes, but more specifically, reporting incidences of sexual assault and interpersonal violence. One such example of other best practices is found in Lichty, Campbell and Schuiteman’s (2008) case study of a universities effort to develop a multi-disciplinary and holistic plan to better prevent and respond to issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. The model provides five minimal components to address this issue:

1) campus policies, 2) campus protocols (i.e., procedures for responding to incidents of sexual and relationship violence), 3) victim services, 4) strategies for preventing sexual and relationship violence, and 5) faculty and staff training (p. 13).

In order to develop an effective plan through the use of this model, it would be beneficial to understand best practices and to incorporate the larger cultural issues, which contribute to the incidences of sexual assault and IPV. Additionally, it is critical to recognize those constructions, which are unique to a university’s culture. This research attempts to develop a foundation upon which an in-depth inquiry into students’ perceptions of issues
of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence can be assessed and thus incorporated into the administration’s policies, procedures and other intervention plans.

**Impact of campus safety on students**

As previously mentioned it should be the goal of the university to create an environment, which does not keep these issues out of the mainstream but rather an environment that is a “Cultivation of humaneness [which,] therefore requires, in addition to benevolent personal codes, safeguards built into social systems that counteract detrimental sanctioning practices and uphold compassionate behavior” (Bandura, 1974 p. 163). Therefore university policies concerning target hardening practices as a means of preventing inhumane and/or criminal behavior are contributing to students’ perceptions and thus fear of victimization as coming from an external threat, or ‘the stranger in the bushes’ (Dobbs, et al, 2009; Rader, et al., 2011; Cermele, 2004; Brecklin, et al., 2004; Day, et al., 2003; Kress, et al., 2006; Robinson, et al., 2001; Starkweather, 2007).

Understanding students’ perceptions of victimization and fear of victimization is essential to the development of effective interventions. As Robinson, et al., (2001) recognized that the physical environment can impact one’s perception of the existence of a risk to personal safety, but not fear victimization, or one may perceive a risk to personal safety and fear victimization. In either scenario these perceptions and fears may or may not be justified. The research surrounding campus safety has identified the impact which gender scripts have on student’s perceptions and fears of victimization, which result in decisions on how to behave or strategies to manage these perceptions and fears (Hertzog, et al., 2009; Dobbs, et al., 2009; Starkweather, 2007; Campbell, et al., 2010; Rich, et al.,
Specifically, social scripts and target hardening practices can impact these perceptions and fears of victimization and ultimately restrict women’s lives; such as, women choosing to not attend night classes, or to restrict their mobility around campus all based on a fear of victimization (Kelly et al., 2006). Research recognizes that if this concern is addressed with strategies to make women feel more safe, such as target hardening practices, it is only perpetuating the deeper social issue of normalizing rigid gender scripts (Hertzog et al., 2009; Dobbs et al., 2009; Starkweather, 2007; Campbell et al., 2010; Rich et al., 2011; Rader et al., 2011; Cermele, 2004; Kelly et al.). Starkweather (2007) asserts,

Such a perspective has undesirable implications for both women and men, since for both restrictive gender roles are reinforced and the range of acceptable responses to potential threats are severely limited: female fear is normalized and even encouraged (for example, through exhortations to be hyper-cautious), while the possibility of male fear is discounted and its expression devalued, even made an object of scorn (p. 357-358).

Differentiating how this gendered construction of fear impacts students’ is essential to changing social scripts. A number of studies have recognized that women’s fear of crime is impacted by the fear of rape, or as Warr (1984) states, “fear of crime is fear of rape” (p. 700). Studies have shown that for women, the “fear of rape and sexual assault increases fear of other crimes, because any crime could potentially result in rape or sexual assault”, an effect which can be crippling to women’s lives. Recognizing that
college students are more-apt to engage behaviors which could put them at risk for personal injury or victimization, such as consuming alcohol or drugs and partying, it is suggested that the development of strategies to control for perceived victimization is of great importance (Boekeloo, et al., 2009; Howard, et al., 2007; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Lee, et al., 2011). Pomeroy (2011) notes that because of this particular environment, “it is especially important to disseminate information regarding IPV that empowers college students to increase their knowledge and understanding of sexual assault as well as challenging deep seated gender-based beliefs” (p.527). This is important for both males and females as, Phelan, et al., (2010) found, “increased fear of crime has damaging consequences for gender relations, self-worth, and behavioral autonomy for both men and women” (p. 43). Thus, it is essential to identify students’ perceptions of safety risks, and fear of victimization in order to develop intervention programs, which address the reality and social issues that may influence them.

Studies have found that the impact which experiences of sexual assault and interpersonal violence is detrimental to students, physically, mentally and emotionally (Smith, et al., 2003; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Draucker et al., 2010; Fass, et al., 2008; Carr, et al., 2006). While studying student’s social scripts of rape and hook-ups, Littleton, et al., (2009) found that, “participants regarded rape as a potentially life altering experience that has a persistent and perhaps life-long negative impact on victims” (p. 801). Interestingly, participants also identified that bad-hook ups could also result in negative psychological effects and damage to individuals reputation (Littleton, et al., 2009). Another factor, which alters the social experience of interpersonal violence, is the role of technology. Draucker, et al., (2010) found that “communication technologies facilitated the escalation
of arguments, provided a means for the intrusive monitoring of a partner’s behavior, and facilitated interactions among estranged couples, often resulting in more violence” (p. 140). Despite changes in social scripts, acts of violence including sexual assault and interpersonal violence continue to be related to issues of anxiety, depression, eating disorders and other problems (Smith, et al., 2003; Schwartz, et al., 2006; Draucker, et al., 2010; Fass, et al., 2008; Carr, et al., 2006). Thus, it is clear that as social scripts are changing, it is important to understand how students are communicating about these issues. As, Hertzog, et al., (2009) acknowledged, “gaining and understanding of whether young women are actually communicating about sexual assault in general conversation and whether this communication helps increase incorporation of risk reduction methods is important” (p.61).

Understanding the relationship, which students develop between each other, and how this affects their choices or understanding regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence are only one piece of the solution. As previously, mentioned by utilizing social cognitive theory to inquire into these issues, the university as a larger social structure can influence student’s perceptions and behaviors by supporting and investing in intervention programs that are based on their potential to impact social scripts. Thus, creating a space in which the ability to excuse or exonerate certain negative behaviors cannot exist because one’s behaviors are not supported by the social system (See Figure 3b. p. 43). It is the purpose of this study to focus on unveiling student perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence through the qualitative method of thematic analysis. In doing so, this study will also examine how
these perceptions impact university decisions regarding prevention, response and risk reduction strategies
Methodology

As a mixed method study this research will utilize both qualitative and quantitative methods of gathering data. However, the quantitative data is collected as a supplemental tool to be used with the thematic analysis of the qualitative data in order to develop a more inholistic picture. Qualitative inquiry is the guiding method for this study, as it is the means of analysis by which participants’ perceptions can be recognized. It is their construction of reality; thus the data must be analyzed by collecting their stories and understandings of their surroundings. Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe the relationship between data collection and analysis as in the naturalistic research paradigm as follows, “Data are, so to speak, the constructions offered by or in the sources; data analysis leads to a reconstruction of those constructions” (p.332). The data collected from the UCT survey will provide more insight into students’ construction of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. These baseline rates act as a member check for the researcher to identify participant reported themes rather than imposing themes based just on researcher perceptions or based only on theory. This hybrid method to develop code and themes will be discussed in further detail in the analysis section of this paper. In the following section a more detailed description and explanation of the methodological and analytical choices of the research are presented.
Research Design

According to Lincoln and Guba (1986) naturalistic research is defined by the following characteristics,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Naturalistic:</th>
<th>Conventional:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Focus can change because it determines procedures, and procedure can change based on focus</td>
<td>• State problem/focus and justify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Theory emerges from the research</td>
<td>• Theory, developed prior to conducting research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sampling serves different purposes</td>
<td>• Sampling aids in generalizability and validity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Subjective instruments</td>
<td>• Objective instruments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Analysis is inductive – understandable</td>
<td>• Deductive analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No timing</td>
<td>• Schedule and time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Comparison of naturalistic research and conventional research (adapted from Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 224)

As previously discussed this research functions under the constructivist framework, thus recognizing the goal of the inquiry is not to determine one objective reality, it is appropriate to follow the research design of naturalistic inquiry. Constructivism is the most commonly used research framework used to uncover students’ perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence (Hammond & Calhoun, 2007; Littleton, et al., 2009; Rader, et al., 2011; Robinson, et al., 2001; Rothman, et al., 200; Kelly, et al., 2006). According to Patton (2002) there are “Alternative sets of criteria for judging the quality and credibility of qualitative inquiry” (p. 544). These criteria provide the language and design goals related to the characteristics of naturalistic inquiry defined above. Table four provides a list of the appropriate criteria.
Social Construction and Constructivist Criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjectivity acknowledged (discusses and takes into account biases)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authenticity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triangulation (capturing and respecting multiple perspectives)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praxis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particularity (doing justice to the integrity of unique cases)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhanced and deepened understanding (Verstehen)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributes to Dialogue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Criteria for judging credibility for qualitative research (as adapted from Patton, 2002)

The following sections discuss the design of this research inquiry including sampling methods, data collection tools as well as a data analysis plan. Lincoln and Guba (2000) recognize that, “perception is not absolute like the sun is…[rather it is]…made up and shaped by cultural linguistic constructs” (p. 96). Through the qualitative analysis of data collected during a group interview of the specified population, as well as, results of survey data, will provide the foundation to understand students perceptions of issues regarding campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence at a mid-sized Virginia university.
**Data Collection**

Recognizing that the focus of this inquiry is a sensitive subject the methods of data collection have been designed accordingly to safeguard as best possible against undesired effects for participants. As previously mentioned the study is designed to allow participants to share their perceptions, however the research specifically does not question or inquire into victimization or personal incidents of violence or assault. This includes the qualitative data collection method of a focus group interview, as well as the distribution of the UCT survey, which allows for self-report without specifically endorsing a sensitive item. It is imperative to recognize the role which social desirability plays in the collection of data. Social desirability “is defined as the tendency to alter response on a test, questionnaire, or interview in order to be viewed in a favorable light by other people” (p.139 Rayburn, et al., 2003). The previously discussed plans and measures have been taken to control for possible threats to participants. However, as part of the naturalistic paradigm and as a qualitative study, these plans and methods are apt to evolve as the data is collected. The following sections detail the purposed and implemented methods of data collection, focus group interviews and the use of an UCT survey.

**Focus Group**

The use of a focus group interview as the primary data collection method was both conducive to the studies constructivist nature as well as to its scope. Lee (1993) identifies the strengths of this method noting that, “Focus groups provide a relatively effective, low-cost and rapid method for developing insights in community concerns” (p. 159). Participants in the focus group are voluntary members of the undergraduate
population at the university, which was chosen. Purposive sampling provides 5 individuals who are representative of the larger population at the university. Although the sampling procedure is described in more detail in a latter section of this paper, Patton (2002) notes that, “sampling for focus groups typically involves bringing together people of similar backgrounds and experiences to participate in a group interview about major issues that affect them” (p. 236). During the focus group interview some demographic information will be recorded and assessed including gender, ethnicity, class status and relationships between participants.

One demographic characteristic that impacts the study of such sensitive issues is the gender make up of the group. Research of co-ed prevention programs effectiveness, regarding sexual assault and violence suggests that although students may be slightly more hesitant to share very personal experiences, the overall outcome is more beneficial to both sexes because they get to hear things that few other occasions allow for (Edwards, et al., 2009). However, research has also suggested that single sex intervention groups are the most effective way to target students depending upon the desired outcome (Vladutiu, et al., 2011). Since this research is not an educational intervention, but rather a naturalistic inquiry into students’ experiences, in order to maintain authenticity a mixed gender group is used. Although this is a sensitive topic to research, the benefits for students will be presented and explained during the focus group. These include a better awareness of peers’ experiences and an open dialogue about students’ perceptions of campus safety. It has also been suggested that research regarding sexual assault (Davis, DeMaio, & Fricker-Elhai, 2004) found that rather than imposing negative impacts, inquiries into sexual assault incidents and awareness were identified as providing a sense
of comfort and counseling effects for a number of students. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also note the preparedness of naturalistic inquiry to account for issues of participant disclosure; they discuss the willingness of disclosure from participants, noting that the characteristics of naturalistic inquiry can “uncover” and “deal with respondents half truths” (p. 231). A number of plans have been made to ensure that all procedures during the focus group interview are ethical and focused on the wellbeing of participants.

This research plans to maintain credibility through a number of methodological choices. However, it is important to note that the nature of qualitative research and analysis “means planning for certain broad contingencies without, however, indicating exactly what will be done in relation to each” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 p. 226) The first being the explicit avoidance of any inquiry specifically questioning students past or present personal experience with being victimized, particularly when inquiring about sexual assault and IPV. During the focus group a semi-structured interview protocol will be followed.

Students will be informed in a written and verbal format regarding their rights as voluntary participants including their ability to leave the study at any time free of consequence. As part of the consent for participation in the focus group, all participants will be notified that the entire session will be video and audio recorded. All raw data that is collected and recorded will be used only by the researcher and will be coded in a way that ensures participants confidentiality. All raw data and coding keys will be kept in a secure office in Memorial Hall that only the researcher and research advisor will have access to. It will also be reiterated that this is a focus group of peers, and that it is essential to respect each other during the discussion but also after the interview session.
While the research will refrain from asking questions of victimization, it does not eliminate the potential for this topic to be addressed by the students; “…the is no guarantee that informants will realize before an interview begins what they might reveal, in what ways, or what risk” (Raymond, 1993 p.103). In order to ensure students mental and emotional security, a licensed counselor/psychologist will be available before, during and after the study, via telephone. The students will be informed that if for any reason they feel any distress for any reason during or directly after the session, this resource will be available to them. At the onset of the interview students will also be informed that if at anytime they have something they would like to share, but do not feel comfortable sharing with the group at large, they are more than welcome to approach the researcher after the session and have a brief discussion in private. Because of this choice, it was decided that ensuring access to a professional mental health care provider was crucial in case a student discloses something which the research is not in authority to or comfortable with responding to. This data collection plan will continue to develop as the research continues.

In regards to the proposed quantitative data collection method, it is also important to determine ways in which to protect participants’ identity and potential for harm. By utilizing the un-matched count technique the researcher can ensure anonymity and confidentiality for participants because no identifying data is collected. Also, participant anonymity is maintained because participants do not directly endorse any of the items on the survey, including sensitive ones. Thus, unlike traditional self-report survey methods, UCT allows for the gathering of self-report data regarding sensitive subjects and ensuring anonymity.
Survey

Utilizing the UCT survey technique is meant to provide baseline statistics of a sample, rather than specific aggregated data, when studying sensitive topics. Dalton, Wimbush and Daily, (1994) suggest that in order for the survey to be most effective the total number of participants should be between 80 and 100 individuals (N = 80 to 100), thus allowing for at least 40 to 50 participants (n= 40 to 50) in each subsamples (explained in detail below). In most studies, which use UCT, the obtained data is compared to data collected via a traditional self-report survey in order to determine the affects of UCT on self report data. In a study on hate crimes, Rayburn, et al., (2003) indicates, “At this point, we can conclude that the UCT is a promising procedure that awaits comprehensive validation” (p. 1219). However, it is was not within the scope of this research to also conduct a traditional self report survey, as the role of the data collected from the UCT is to provide supplemental information to the thematic analysis of focus group data. Also, proving the validity of the survey tool is not the focus of this research because the goal of generalizability is not applicable to this study. It is believed that this is the first study to extend the use of UCT to the area of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

The design and implementation of the survey is as follows. The total sample (N) is divided in to two subsamples (n) of as equal number of participants as possible. One subsample is given a survey with items that provide five possible statements that could be true for the participants; second subsample is given a survey with items that provide six possible statements that can be true for participants. Thus, the addition of the sixth statement, which is the sensitive statement (ie. I think about the potential for
victimization), is the only difference between the two surveys. Calculating the average number of statements endorsed per item for both sub samples, and subtracting these means allows for the identification of the average number of participants who endorsed the sensitive statement. This process is displayed in the following equation, \( p = mean \ b - mean \ a \), resulting in baseline data of participants who endorsed the sensitive statements (Anderson, Simmons, Milnes, & Earlywine, 2007; Ahart & Sacket, 2004; LaBrie & Earlywine, 2000; Lavender & Anderson, 2009; Rayburn, Earleywine, & Davison, 2003; Walsh & Braithwaite, 2008; Dalton, Daily & Wimbush, 1997; Dalton, Wimbush & Daily, 1994).

This survey was created and distributed in a traditional paper and pencil format to four courses of undergraduate students in the Psychology department Health and Human Services department at mid-sized Virginia university. In total there were two surveys created, and one of the two distributed to every student. Completion of the surveys was estimated to take ten minutes of the participants’ time. The two surveys created were the UCT survey sans the sensitive questions and the UCT survey with the sensitive questions. At the beginning of each survey the researcher presented the study and all pertinent information in terms of participants’ rights and role. Participants were informed that if they had no questions and understood what was just explained, by completing the survey they were consenting to be a part of this research.

The research surrounding UCT has suggested that it is important to provide participants with an explanation of the survey directions as well as an example answer. On all surveys, a sample question and answer was provided with the directions. Also included in the prelude to the survey, the researcher provided a visual of that sample
question and filled it out as if the researcher were taking the survey. For all four classes the researcher coordinated in advance with the professor to come in at the beginning of class to conduct the survey. A power-point slide was displayed with an example of the survey format. See Appendix B for complete survey protocol and consent information.

**Threats**

Threats to this method include potential for a limited sample size due to confounding variables such as student attendance to class. The researcher has attempted to control for the threat of abandoned surveys by presenting the processes at the beginning of class when students are not focused on leaving, and thus more likely to focus on the questions. In order to gather data from four classes, it is not possible to conduct all of the research simultaneously. Because of this time restriction the hard copy of all surveys will be collected at the end of each session. This is to attempt to control for possible sharing of surveys, although this would not pose a detrimental threat to the research, it was a concern.

**Sampling**

Patton (2002) identifies a number of sampling strategies for qualitative research (exhibit 5.6, p.243). For the purpose of this research the following two strategies were implemented. Purposive sampling is the strategic and purposeful selection of information-rich cases where a specific type and number of cases selected depends upon the study’s purpose and resources. The students for the focus group were gathered from those who took the survey, and specifically included undergraduates and selected cases of both male and female experiences. Moreover, selecting a more homogeneous group allowed for the focus and reduction of variation as well as the simplification of analysis,
which was appropriate for the scope of this research. Also taken into consideration when enlisting participants in this research were four techniques that have been identified to heavily impact thematic analysis; these include “setting, events, people & relationships” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 55). This research applied sampling by setting due to the inextricable link of the context and physical setting of the participants to the inquiry at hand. Thus, it has been inferred that the participants all will come from the same rural, public university in Virginia. Doing so allows for this research to develop a foundation for future and more extensive research. With further and more in-depth study, these themes might be generalized to the specific university population at large, and eventually to other rural, public universities in Virginia, however this is not the goal of this research. Themes do not necessarily apply to all universities sharing the above characteristics, and obviously would not be adequate to be solely applied to those with characteristics differing such as being an urban, private university in another region of the country. The themes that will be concluded from this research are however, a starting point to continue constructivist and naturalistic research on topics of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Boyatzis (1998) again refers to the stage of the research on the phenomenon. As applied to this study it is meant to be a starting point to discover students socially constructed and learned perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Thus, although the focus group sample of five participants is small, it is still an authentic collection of narrative and information that has been socially constructed, and can be deconstructed in order to better identify students’ perceptions of issues of campus
safety, sexual assault, and interpersonal violence. Thus, providing further information on which to build prevention, response and risk reduction strategies.

*Analysis Framework*

In accordance with the qualitative research framework, which this inquiry is following, the data or narratives collected from participants will be deconstructed through the use of thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is an analytical technique that allows researchers to develop potential relationships or themes regarding a phenomenon, based on participants’ narratives about said phenomenon (Boyatzis, 1998). However, in order to maintain authenticity of the constructed phenomenon this research will use the quantitative data as a source of member check, as well as having another researcher review coding.

The purpose of this research, as well as the theoretical background which supports it, clearly delineates that student’s perceptions, and multiple truths are sought as the result of the inquiry. This naturalist inquiry is unlike positivist research, which seeks a singular truth that may exist in the natural world. As previously mentioned, Denzin, et al., (2000) explain that in the human world “perception is not absolute like the sun [rather it is] ‘made up’ and shaped by cultural linguistic constructs” (p.96). The transcription of the focus group interview will provide the raw data by which these linguistic constructs can be deconstructed and analyzed to form a codebook, and reconstructed as possible themes. This research provides a foundational starting point, that is informed by theory, to view students’ perceptions of issues of campus safety, sexual assault and IPV.
Coding

Patton (2002) also emphasizes the role of the collection of linguistic data, in relation to the goal of qualitative research. Further, Patton suggests that, “open ended and observation methods used to examine the importance of different constructions [not to declare a “true” reality] (p. 100) are critical components of qualitative research, and thus are employed in this inquiry. Such constructions have been examined in this research through the process, which Boyatzis (1998) identifies as a “hybrid approach” to thematic analysis; the resulting coding method will be discussed further. Through an in-depth synthesis of the literature regarding campus safety, sexual assault and IPV, as well as the use of data collected from a quantitative survey a coding system will be developed for the analysis of student’s perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Boyatzis (1998) identifies a continuum of three methods of developing code through thematic analysis; 1) theory-driven, 2) prior research-driven and 3) data-driven. An in depth discussion of the characteristics and steps in developing code via all of these approaches is also provided by Boyatzis (1998). The researcher has determined that the appropriate method for this study is a “hybrid method” which can be used when the inductive or data driven method is desired, but sample or phenomenon does not allow the process. Such is the case in this research; as the scope is to identify student perspectives (one phenomenon) of a very specific culture and sample (university students). Thus, the ability to create subsamples of comparison is null. In other words

There are also times at which the researcher is seeking to describe a person, group, culture or event. Thematic analysis helps in making that
description clearer and in making the themes or code developed potentially useful to other researchers (Boyatzis 1998, p. 53).

It is the intention of this research to provide a starting point from which future research can continue to describe the student perspective, resulting in data that can be beneficial to the prevention, response and risk reduction strategies implemented by the university.

The Data

Thematic analysis is sensitive to the quality of the raw data or information (Boyatzis, 1998), as thematic analysis is the chosen methodology of this inquiry, the data’s quality is crucial to the reliability and authenticity of the study. Also, often in qualitative research the degree of generalizability is not emphasized because of the specific and interpretive nature of such studies. Boyatzis’ (1998) protocol for developing thematic codes recognizes that,

Although various epistemologies address and emphasize generalizability in considerably different ways, once you offer something to others, especially through written or electronic communication in which you are not present to add qualifications, you have an ethical responsibility to not mislead readers” (p. 55)

In order to control as much as possible for irresponsible interpretations or generalizations, the researcher utilized purposive sampling for the focus group interview to ensure an adequate and appropriate representation of the larger group as previously discussed. Also the hybrid method of code development, as previously discussed, allows for prior research and theory to guide the development of codes while allowing the research to develop specific and flexible codes based on observations of the specific
sample (Boyatzis, 1998). The following sections will review and analysis of the data and identify themes that were found.
Data Analysis and Results

The data analysis of this research consists of two parts. The first being the analysis of the quantitative data collected from the UCT surveys and then the findings from the thematic analysis of the data collected during the focus group interview. Thus, the quantitative data will be presented first as it provides baseline data that is wide in breadth, and then the qualitative data will be presented as it is deep in scope.

Survey Results

The results of the UCT survey that was administered provided baseline data regarding students’ perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Table five displays the percentages of participants who endorsed the sensitive statement in the sample \((n=87)\). It is important to recognize that an error occurred in the survey procedure, which affects the data for one item. Despite review by multiple sources, a question was repeated. The statement “I think about the potential for victimization” was asked in item 2 and item 13. This has a number of impacts for the study. First, for the purpose of this research the response rate in question 13 is invalid due to the influence which item repetition can have on participants. However, the statistics for question two are not threatened. It is of interest to note that there was a large gap between items 2 and 13, that perhaps could have allowed for enough time to elapse so as not to influence the participants’ reaction. The fact that more students identified that they think about the potential for victimization on item 13 than on item 2 may, in fact, be problematic. However as mentioned, the statistic from item 13 is not considered in the analysis of these results.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sensitive item</th>
<th>Percentage of participants who endorsed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have felt unsafe on campus</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think about the potential for victimization</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I have had experiences, which I perceived a potential risk to my personal safety</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I know someone who has been sexually assaulted</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I know others who have experienced a threat to their personal safety</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I know someone who has been in a violent/unsafe intimate relationship</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I talk about interpersonal violence with my peers</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I talk about the risk of sexual assault with my peers</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I talk about safety risks with my friends/peers</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I have felt that my personal, physical space has been threatened before</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I think others are concerned about issues of campus safety</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I am concerned with the possibility of being sexually assaulted</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I think about the potential for victimization</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Unmatched count technique survey results

According to the survey results 80% of participants endorsed the statement, “I have had experiences, which I perceived a potential risk to my personal safety” and 84% recognized that they “know others who have experienced a threat to their personal safety”. This suggests that students are experiencing threats to their personal safety and thus it is crucial to understand when these threats occur, how students define a threat and to whom this is happening. Interestingly, although the data suggests that students are experiencing and acknowledging risk for breeches of personal safety, they are not identifying these
concerns as a conversation of great frequency. Specifically, while students identified that 72% are “concerned with the possibility of being sexually assaulted” only 28% of students acknowledge they talk about this concern with their peers. Thus, inquiring into the role of peers in determining risk could be a possible theme during the focus group interview. As previously mentioned this data is meant to accompany the more in-depth qualitative analysis, thus it could be possible that students will express concern and acknowledge that issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence occur. Also of interest will be how students identify “on campus”, recognizing that 30% said they “have felt unsafe on campus”. Understanding how students delineate between on and off campus, and the associated risks, is important for the development of effective prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. Overall this data suggested that issues of campus safety are relevant to students at a mid-sized Virginia university. Further research would benefit from collecting demographic data as well as having a more extensive survey to inquiry into the previously mentioned issues.

**Qualitative Analysis**

Through the implementation of thematic analysis this research presents a number of suggestions regarding how students perceive issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. The following four key variables were being investigated, students perceptions of campus safety, perceptions of sexual assault, perceptions of interpersonal violence, and impact for prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. Figure five identifies and depicts the method used to analyze the data.
The goal of this study was to utilize each student as a unit of analysis, recognizing and emphasizing the importance of their backgrounds and perceptions as they relate to each other. Themes were developed based on qualitative code that allowed the researcher to identify commonalities and differences among student’s perceptions as they relate to the four key variables.

In order to analyze this data the researcher went through extensive processes. The researcher transcribed the audio recording of the focus group interview; during this time participants’ names were replaced with labels of identification to ensure anonymity. Attempts to use live video streaming at the same time audio recording was taking place, met with unsuccessful results. No video was collected for the focus group. Upon completion of the transcript the researcher reviewed the data multiple times, keeping copious notes regarding possible themes. The next step was to separate the raw data based on the four key variables, and some sub-variables that impacted student’s perceptions, for each unit of analysis. This allowed the researcher to view the relationships, similarities and differences between each participant regarding multiple topics. The final step in the analysis process was to return to the raw data (or transcription) and develop an outline of the information. Each of these processes was part
of the researcher’s efforts to deconstruct the data, in order to re-construct it in a meaningful way, via thematic analysis.

The following section identifies and describes the themes that emerged from the raw data, as well as the codes, which were used to determine the themes. The results were organized under the four key variables identified previously. This process served as a way to begin categorizing the data. The following table provides the definition of each variable as well as key questions used by the research as a filter while analyzing the raw data. These definitions and questions were developed by the researcher and are not meant to serve as exclusive rules but rather guidelines that fluid and flexible. A number of themes and sub-themes were identified in relation to each research variable. They are reported in the following section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Variable</th>
<th>Definition (Researchers)</th>
<th>Key questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Campus Safety</td>
<td>How individuals (within this group) identify or define the area of campus, as well as the characteristics attributed to this area in terms of safety.</td>
<td>• What is campus? • What is not campus? • What is safe? • What is not safe? • Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Sexual Assault</td>
<td>How individuals (within this group) define the incidence of sexual assault, as well as the description of characteristics associated with such an occurrence.</td>
<td>• When does this happen? • Who is involved? • Where does this happen • What makes it sexual assault or not sexual assault? • Does this happen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Interpersonal Violence</td>
<td>How individuals (within this group) identify the occurrence of interpersonal violence/dating violence, as well as the description of how to recognize this phenomena.</td>
<td>• Do you see this violence? • What is it like? • How do you know what it is? • Who is involved? • What do you do or not do? Why?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact for Prevention, Response and Risk Reduction Strategies</td>
<td>How individuals (within this group) describe their experiences with prevention,</td>
<td>• What does this mean? • Who’s responsible? • How do you know about</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
response and risk reduction strategies

Table 6. Four key variables defined

As previous research suggests (Tobin, 2011; Rich, et al., 2010; Cermele 2004; Hinck, et al., 1999; Murned, et al., 2002; Exner, et al., 2011; Bryden, 2007) gender appeared as an overarching and pervasive filter that affected all other themes. Other themes were discussed, defined or referred to through a gender filter of male and female. Thus, gender often became a sub-theme, which allowed for the identification of how the gender of each individual related to themes. Through this filter, participants also were able to identify their perceptions of the opposite gender. One other important implication of the participants’ demographic backgrounds and experiences, which became an apparent filter for the two male participants, was their association and participation in a campus club that has a religious (specifically Christian) affiliation. This affiliation cannot be perceived as a one to one correlation, but rather it is important to identify because participants often define their experiences as being a part of this group or not. Group affiliation (being in the mainstream gender group of students or out of that group) may impact participants’ perceptions of the four key variables: campus safety, sexual assault, interpersonal violence, and prevention and risk reduction strategies. Other sub-themes are identified and described in the following sections and are also organized into tables.

Perceptions of campus safety

As previously mentioned the first of the four key variables was students’ perceptions of campus safety. The themes have been labeled as “safety is gendered” and “On campus vs. off campus”. Within each theme important sub-variables are recognized as well as, examples of code and quotes. Overall, it seems that students view threats to
their personal safety as being lessened, particularly for females when on campus. Mostly this was discussed in terms of walking. For both males and females, it seemed that the potential for victimization was higher when off campus. Also, student’s recognized that these threats more often than not came from an external person. As one student noted, they felt safe on campus because the people who were there were “supposed to be there”. This supports the ideas of campuses being perceived as bastions of safety, despite the fact that they are physically open spaces.

Through this discussion it also became clear that females recognized a higher awareness of surroundings and safety concerns; thus, leading them to develop ways in which to deal with these concerns. These included restricting movement “across” campus, or in certain areas, particularly at night. As research has suggested these practices are gendered and dichotomized to teach women they are physically more vulnerable than men, and to teach men that they are stronger than women and expected to protect them (Rader, et al., 2011). The two males in the group both indicated that the concerns voiced by female participants, were not as applicable to them. Specifically, the two males were identified to be in two categories: one whom ascribed the role of males as a protector of females and the other whom identified that he was shocked at how concerned females were, and did not realize this was such an issue. One other important finding was the perceptions, which students held of the timely notice alerts, used by the university to alert students of incidences of victimization that occur on and off campus. The following table depicts the themes and sub-themes found regarding student perceptions of campus safety.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme or Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Descriptions and Identifiers</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Safety is gendered</td>
<td>Females: restrict movement, focus on walking alone at night as a threat – identify on campus people are supposed to be here, trust them. Discuss and identify importance of physical surroundings and ability to communicate with others. Males: not restricted, not concerned – safety connected with chivalry for some, others just don’t see need to “walk girls home”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-theme: Fear is for girls</td>
<td>Students identified the fear and perception for victimization was clearly different based on gender; Females recognized that fear of crime lead to fear of rape or being killed. Males assert that fear of crime and implications are far less severe. Although fear for both came from an “outside” source – One male acknowledged that the only threat that could cause fear is a “rough area” where “gang activity” is known to occur – suggesting that it’s a specific and clearly dangerous</td>
<td>Male recognize “distant fear” for them and interesting female would “not ever walk somewhere”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Setting. | Students experiences are defined in terms of on and off campus, however not a clear and accepted line for this university of what is on and off—particularly as grows. Definition different for male and female. 
Females: Identify on campus safe, particularly during day, use physical characteristics and places to delineate where is safe and where is not; focus on where other people are outside. 
Females: Identify off campus as unsafe, because a clear lack of protection and a perceived threat from people not associated with university. Males, On or off campus: asked for distinction from others; on campus pretty safe; most off campus safe. Identify fear as “distant”. People, can’t hear if you scream, no security, no cameras, |
|---|---|
| 2. On campus or off campus | Sub-theme: Not so timely notices:  
Severity and proximity |
| Recognize that peers and word of mouth are the most used and most reliable source of information about incidences of victimization.  
Most students were unsure or unaware of | Waste of time; come late, fear tactic, relevance based on physical proximity and severity; is it a fear |
the legality and purpose behind the timely notices received; unaware of Clery act and the rights and other information it concerns. Identify notices as being overall un-affective or not worth while (Gregory et al., 2006). Exception of one student who recognized this was only way heard about these events – alluding to distant proximity to crimes. Students recognized that being on campus they felt sense of community and trust. As, well as when off campus recognize the importance of proximity and severity of crimes that may increase fear and frequency of conversations of victimization. Also, women recognize that they are concerned for other female’s safety like roommates, where as males recognize need to protect all females (Rader, 2011)

| Proximities | Tactic, pointless, don’t read, too late perp changed, about males, no rapes, more important if you live certain places | Interesting definition of “severity” of crime (males particularly – defining assault and with weapon etc.) “and I don’t live on Devon lane so I like stopped reading them,” “so many people around, they are usually looking out for one another…off campus it’s just like the townies and like other people you don’t know who are just like wandering around, that’s what...” |

Identify proximity defined by cultural understanding of certain areas of town

Issue of defining severity differed, and was complex – particularly for males
Table 7. Student perceptions of campus safety themes

Roommate in CARE always asks, “where they going, only because of her situation, she was around it all the time. So she was more aware, so she was sure we were all safe.”

Female: “Actually a rape like right, like a block away from my apartment complex. So those conversations became more common and it was like, oh well are you going to be home tonight, if not write it on the board so we know where you are.”

makes me…”
Perceptions of sexual assault

As discussed previously, the survey results recognized that 59% (found in Table 6 p. 78) of students knew someone who had been sexually assaulted. Juxtaposed with the university’s Annual Clery report from 2010, which asserts that there, were five forcible sexual offenses on campus and zero non-campus offenses; also reporting that there were zero non-forcible sexual offenses in 2010 (both on-campus and off-campus (http://www.jmu.edu/pubsafety/CleryAnnualStatistics.shtml)), there is a clear and concerning contrast. This is not to suggest fault, or place blame on the university, but to recognize the need for new ways to understand students’ experiences. While the current data seems incomplete, this is likely due to the fact that the university only displays the reported incidents, which research suggests are often not representative of the frequency of sexual assaults. Thus, recognizing there is a need to understand students perceptions of sexual assault, and the barriers to reporting incidents through some other method of inquiry to provide a more holistic picture.

One other interesting point is the way in which students explained, described and confirmed what sexual assault meant. Particularly, a male participant identified “sexual abuse” as an issue on campus rather than “sexual assault”. The discussion continued to addresses abuse in families and the fact that incidences of sexual abuse occur in environments such as fraternity parties; this includes the recognition of the role of alcohol and other substances used to promote forcible sexual encounters. Students also agreed to the recognition of these issues, but were un-aware that it “could happen here”. When continuing to discuss the issue of sexual assault students defined it as a breach of consent to sexual activity; but this situation was only defined in terms of females being assaulted
by males. What was interesting was the students’ recognition of this situation, but their descriptions and experiences were labeled as “hooking up” or just “having sex with someone you don’t know”; often resulting in the female who regrets her choices and then alleges sexual assault. Thus, they defined issues such as rape and sexual abuse as being negative, and often involving violent and forceful tactics. In contrast, the research recognizes acquaintance rape as involving less violence, where more students define this experience as men taking advantage of women (Littleton, et al., 2006).

Social scripts regarding hook-ups became the topic of conversation; particularly the motives of males and females. Participants shared their experiences and suggestions as to why other students engage in behaviors that are detrimental, or seen as high risk (ie. partying, casual sexual encounters etc.); for the most part acknowledging that this is clearly understood to be negative behavior, and that they are not the ones who may be engaging in such activities. The following table provides a list of themes, identifiers and other examples regarding student’s perceptions of sexual assault or abuse and hooking up.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme or Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Descriptions and Identifiers</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It’s a problem that is not reported</td>
<td>Participants acknowledge that “this” (sexual assault, abuse and forcible hook-ups) is an issue, despite campus statistics. Recognizing that barriers exist to prevent people from reporting to authorities, and authorities inability to share some information for confidentiality reasons.</td>
<td>Barriers: Seeing “him” on campus, embarrassed, friends mad, regret, court, seeing friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All issues of sexual assault were in terms of males assaulting females, the issue of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
males being sexually assaulted was not discussed. Students also identified that this issue was only discussed when others may bring it up; particularly those who bring it up or talk about it are identified as having a special situation. “friend girls” come out with idea of party or roommate involved in programs like CARE who are “around it all the time”. If an event occurs near by ie. rape near apartment

| 2. Sexual assault as abuse | Recognized sexual abuse as coming from family or other (specifically female victimization) as a precursor to IPV or other issues of sexual assault. And when referring to “rape” – it was identified as an incident outside of the norm, or which excessive and violent force was used differing from other discussions of issues in which females were still incapacitated, but the degree of force was not as extreme; and the frequency was more often and more expected. | When refer to “rape” occurs as an outside, stranger, forced incident, down the street outside apartment, in the dark, skeezy guys, drugging drinks |

| 3. Hook-ups not sexual assault | Students identify and describe sexual assaults occurring more often as hook-ups, the social scripts include the influence and role of alcohol, party environments and a lack of consent – that is not always clear. | Consent “if it’s defined as wanted or unwanted – if girl wants it then she gives her consent and if she does it then that’s a hook up but if it’s unwanted he hurts |
When discussing specific experiences of individuals who are close to participants (ie. roommates etc.) Some victim blaming language was used, in terms of the females regretting sexual activity because ashamed of sexual experience that was heavily influenced by alcohol use; and descriptions of an attempt to prevent other females from engaging in these activities, that participants and friends, know are wrong – but un-willing to listen or change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-theme: Motivation to engage in risk behaviors as gendered.</th>
<th>Students discussion of the motivation of males and females to engaging in risk behaviors, such as partying and excessive drinking, that often lead to negative hook-ups. As well as the role of each group in impacting possible “root” causes of this toxic motivational mix.</th>
<th>Male: “I don’t know how girls act but if there is some sort of behavior that, is really putting girls in dangerous positions because they don’t feel loved…ummm like actually I guess this is a problem I feel like, I’ve</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males: Male participant describes need for “release” from anxiety and stress, as</td>
<td>or, or she tries to back away and he won’t let her then it is assault” “even if the girl is drunk and she has sex with the guy because that’s like not consent right?” “didn’t consent to it since they were drunk”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friend: ashamed, getting sloshed to hook-up, that’s intent, know I’m mad etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
understood through discussion with those who engage in such behaviors. Specifically the role of control of one’s life and power, for men. Recognized “girls and sex” can be a way to cope with threats to this control, like the stresses of college.

Males and females described some pressures from male peers to par-take in these types of behaviors to maintain some type of status

Female’s identify that other women’s motivation to go out and ‘hook up’ is in search of some connection, relationship, and “attention”. Focus on this need for attention as causing student’s to seek fulfillment through the engagement in negative behaviors; this is despite others telling them not to (i.e. peers, parents, social scripts)

| Male: “alcohol and going out in general can be like a big release… and girls, the girls as well. Like any type of sexual activity as well can just be a release” |
| “focus guys attention elsewhere? And to put their like efforts toward something greater” |
| Female: “so is like, like also some pressure from the guys’ friends” |

hear a lot of girls say, that they like go home with…”

Use of release, drinking and sex as coping activity, norms
Table 8. Student perceptions of sexual assault themes

3. Perceptions of IPV or dating violence

As with all themes, gender created clear distinctions among participants’ experience with interpersonal and dating violence. In accordance with the results from the survey, students acknowledged that incidents of IPV and dating violence occur within their environment. The experiences described by female participants acknowledged that they see, or have seen relationships that are violent among peers; predominately this IPV was discussed as an issue in which males are violent towards females. One exception to this was a female discussing an experience in which a male was “abused” by a female partner; however, it was emphasized that he was “verbally and emotionally abused, not physically” where as other experiences identified females who were being pushed or physically abused. While participants discussed experiences and perceptions of what is dating violence, both male participants recognized that they could not confirm conversations with other males about being violent because their peer group did not engage in such behaviors. Consistent with the research, all participants acknowledged a lack of influence and ability to impact the incidences of violence they are seeing around them (Exner, et al., 2011; Rich, et al., 2010). Thus, it critical to recognize students perceptions regarding IPV in order to develop intervention and education programs that...
encourage students to be confident in their ability to appropriately intervene in violent situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme or Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Descriptions and Identifiers</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It’s happening around us – females</td>
<td>Females recognize interpersonal violence, specifically dating violence occurs. Describe intent and a desire to help but in ability to affect others choices, specifically women in a violent relationship. Males also recognize not having skill to intervene or just not having opportunity, as both men stated that their other peers aren’t violent. (Important delineation between them and other males due to background CRU)</td>
<td>“I’ve seen it happening but you don’t say anything because that girl...she won’t admit to herself, so the conversation doesn’t happen” “personally I’ve seen it happen...I have a roommate...and if I try to say anything, like I’ve tried to say something to her – but like you said she just brushes it off and doesn’t see it” don’t see it, don’t want to see it, dating violence females can’t get out of relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Different conversation –</td>
<td>Conversation with a female, who is being pushed, yelling,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>males abused, differs from a male who may be experiencing abuse. For one it was defined that when a female is abused it is physically, verbally, and emotionally; and recognizing the male as an unstoppable abuser. Where as when one participant described incident of male as victim – clearly identify female only verbally and emotionally abused; qualifying that the female was crazy. Perpetuating females as victims of abuse who are totally incapable or unwilling to make choice about remaining in an abusive relationship.</td>
<td>drinking and sober, as female roommate cannot tell male to stop or female to leave; seen others or experience with an abused women who was offered an “out” but “couldn’t” or “wouldn’t” take it. Males easily influenced by peers and more open; listen to friends; “which isn’t surprising because interactions between males are kind of easier in general”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Student perceptions of IPV and dating violence themes
4. Perceptions of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies

The purpose of this research is to develop a foundational understanding of student’s perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence at a mid-sized Virginia university. Students’ perceptions are integral to the design, development and implementation of any type of intervention that addresses these issues. The students who participated in the focus group discussed a number of interventions and resources offered by the university. However, they had an overall sentiment that the university could do more in terms of advertising and education on issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Also, when discussing these resources, students reinforced that they were un-aware of many other opportunities provided by the university and that the best way to spread information was word of mouth from their peers and from professors.

As research has suggested (Krebs, et al., 2009; Farmer, et al., 2005) first year students are of particular importance as recipients of educational interventions; participants also recognized the importance of educating specifically freshman, as well as all students, because it is the first time many students are away from home, and they do not know “these things”. Participants also discussed the ineffectiveness of some educational programs which currently exist, particularly on the grounds that the interventions are not pertinent and are not provided to enough people; this was specific to one participant who was a transfer student who discussed her lack of awareness of many programs and resources. Students also commented on their lack of connection with certain resources or programs because they live off campus. Interestingly this discussion lead students to assert that they felt once they lived off campus the university “cared less”
about them, in terms of safety. Understanding students’ perceptions of current prevention, response and risk reduction strategies allows for a method of the assessment of university efforts and the opportunity to develop pertinent and tailored interventions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme or Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Descriptions and Identifiers</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What does the university do?</td>
<td>Target hardening practices and procedures were discussed and identified. Also, student described knowledge of some university actions as only existing due to a roommate or close friend who may participate in an organization that shares’ information. Discussion of the timely notices as a fear tactic. Ineffective, or short lasting affects of orientation type activities, particularly for the one participant who was a transfer student.</td>
<td>See campus cadets and blue lights (this is reinforcing stranger in bushes) discuss CARE organization. “I mean they didn’t say anything at orientation, like (for transfer students) yeah, like I mean I have never heard of CARE or SWO, I never heard of any of that stuff”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What should the university do?</td>
<td>Identify professors as source of knowledge regarding safety issues and campus resources (already and future roles) Student’s identify that they university could “do more” in terms of advertising the resources available on campus regarding safety issues, etc. Student’s also recognize the need to educate and provide more outreach specifically to freshman</td>
<td>Professors, word of mouth, role of buses, educate “mostly word of mouth, like I don’t have any friends that are in CARE so I don’t really know anything about it…but I know I have several friends who have gone there [counseling center] for help and like so they must be doing something right…” “you are on your own for the first time when you come to college, and things are so different and we need to be educated on all that stuff, I mean like the freshman they like they don’t know”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. We are not important anymore</td>
<td>Interesting (as generational study suggest students expect university to provide safety) that participants acknowledge that</td>
<td>“once you are off campus they are done with you, …like you get these timely”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10. Student perceptions of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies

| they felt “less” taken care of once they moved off campus. | warning, and like you get anything that your professors say…now that I’m off campus and obviously I’m still a JMU student and yes it would still look bad, but it’s not as bad as living on campus maybe” referring to if something happened to student |

themes
Conclusions and Recommendations

A number of findings from this research are important for future study of student’s perceptions of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. A need for further research, at a larger scale utilizing the framework and methodology of this research would be beneficial to educators, administrators, students, and faculty of the specific university that was investigated. Moreover, longitudinal research would allow the university to investigate trend data year over year. Important findings included that students recognized the benefit of hearing the perspective of other students, particularly those of the opposite sex. Also, while generalization was not the goal of this study, by broadening the scope and number of participants, more data can be collected, deconstructed and reconstructed to better understand the mitigating factors that influence students’ perceptions. Thus, these mitigating factors must be addressed to implicate any deeper cultural shifts toward the development of a community that is free of issues of violence – including sexual assault and interpersonal violence.

Conclusions

This research identified a number of themes, which are pertinent and valuable to administrators, educators and researchers alike. Specific to prevention, response and risk reduction strategies of the university as a whole, is the recognition of the complexity and language students’ use when discussing sexual assault. In particular more study into the “hook up” culture that may or may not exist on this campus would be beneficial. This potential research would allow for the design, development and implementation of programs that address specific student experiences in terms of the role of alcohol, motivation and gender, as well as, the definition of consent. Also, it would be beneficial
to continue research regarding student’s perceptions and experiences concerning IPV and dating violence in relation to the impact and effectiveness of bystander intervention programs. It is critical to understand these experiences and perceptions, and how they influence students’ efficacy beliefs about their ability to intervene in situations that pose a threat to those around them. For example it would be interesting to investigate further how students’ perceptions of a “hook up culture” and motivation to engage in high-risk behaviors are related. As the gendered intentions of engaging in these behaviors is attributed to what seemed like a broader identification of behaviors which research and practitioners define as sexual assault, interpersonal violence and dating violence. For example, students discussed the “program” in which male students stood at a prominent location, where students routinely congregate on nights designated as “party nights” (i.e. Friday or Saturday) handing out roses to women in order to mitigate female students’ needs for male attention (according to the male participants). Female participants asserted that this attention would have helped their roommate by providing an act, which would satisfy the need for attention that encouraged her to engage in high-risk behaviors. It would be beneficial to assess the larger population about this type of experience to understand if an informal gesture of showing attention is a way of enrolling men as allies to prevent sexual assault and IPV; or is just perpetuating ‘rigid gender roles’ and the patriarchal system by suggesting that women will be satisfied and should be satisfied by male attention, be it high risk or not.

A positive effect of this study that was recognized by participants was an opportunity for males and females to discuss their views of issues that are recognized as socially sensitive and gendered. Participants noted that it was interesting to hear each
others perceptions of the same issue, particularly males recognized that they had never thought that female’s restricted their behavior based on a perception of the potential for victimization that was so distant for them. Thus, at a larger scale the impacts of such opportunities could be beneficial to students as well as administrators by providing students an opportunity to engage in dialogue with one another to better understand these cultural issues. In terms of opportunities that are currently being offered it would be interesting to review the research regarding gender, social roles and effectiveness of different programming as well as being sure to evaluate any current programming or education efforts which the university is implementing. Overall, through the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data, participants recognized that issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence exist and are pertinent to students’ lives.

The originally proposed research questions that focused and guided this study were as follows:

RQ 1: How do students perceive the issue of campus safety, including sexual assault and interpersonal violence at a mid-sized Virginia university?

RQ 2: What implications (if any) do these perceptions have on the steps taken by the university to prevent and respond to issues of safety as well as promote risk-reduction strategies?

Through the collection and analysis of the data it is clear that students perceive that issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence are occurring around them. However, as previously mentioned the data also found that the student’s perception of the occurrence of these incidences, or the fear of victimization was gendered. Most importantly, the research found that these fears clearly impacted the behaviors of females
and males when it comes to personal safety such as, restricting behavior for females. Participants also identified that perceived threats to their personal safety came from “off campus”, thus if they remained within the internalized boundaries of campus the threat was decreased. However, student’s associated threats to personal safety also included student on student violence or incidence; but, the cultural environment, which this was discussed, was defined often in a party setting and driven by gendered motivations and fueled by social factors such as drinking. Thus, to address research question number two it is concluded from that data that they want more education, and advertisement about the resources available to them from the university. Also, the results from the quantitative survey suggest that sexual assault, and the resounding impacts of a “hook up” culture are pertinent issues that must be addressed. Participants discussed their experiences in terms re-education programs about campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence (this would include programming an freshman orientation etc.) as limited and “forgotten”. A clear contradiction then arises and suggests that there is need for a re-examination of possible programming and policies that are aimed at response and prevention of these issues, as students are not benefiting from the current state. Suggested actions for the university specifically are suggested below in terms of analyzing these issues, and the possible re-design of an intervention program.

Recommendations for Future Research

The analysis and results of this research have contributed to the current body of literature, which addresses issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence. Recognizing that the mixed method approach that was used to fulfill the previously identified need in the literature for inquiry which is constructed and
implemented in a way that is flexible, yet comprehensive, to attend to culturally sensitive topics. The themes identified also have begun to create the narrative of the student experience at this specific university in a rich and complex manner that is grounded in theory. Enable to implement any changes regarding possible intervention programs it would be beneficial to conduct this type of mix-method inquiry at a larger scale. The collection of student’s perception of their cultural environment would be valuable to the university and the body of knowledge, which pertains to this research. At a larger scale it would be useful to gather demographic data during the UCT survey, with particular emphasis on participants ascribed gender roles; recognizing the significance which gender had upon the identified themes. The occurrence of the sexual assault of males or gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgendered individuals was not identified or discussed by participants. It would be important for future research to provide an opportunity to allow such demographic groups to voice how these issues pertain to them.

Future research should continue to develop an understanding of student’s perceptions of the “hook-up” culture that may or may not exist at this particular university. It is important to understand where and when these events are taking place, and specifically inquiring into the potential motivations which the participants recognized, for each gender, to engage in high-risk behaviors. When inquiring into student’s perceptions of these issues it is critical for future research to delve into the beliefs students have of their role in changing or intervening when they know others are engaging in such behaviors. Recognizing that students are using specific language and terminology that is culturally implicated to evaluate and identify events such as sexual assaults is crucial to response and prevention programming. An effective intervention
must incorporate this language to be effective, as the narrow legal or even academic
definition of some of these incidents may not resonate with students; through qualitative
analysis of how students measure the severity and impacts of events will allow for more
effective interventions (Hamby & Koss, 2003).

Understanding the barriers or concerns which impact students’ efficacy would
thus allow for interventions and programming efforts to focus on how to increase this
efficacy. In a larger scale study it would also be beneficial to further research the
perception that once student’s move off campus they are of less concern to the university,
in terms of personal safety. Recognizing that this is the students’ reality, regardless of the
university’s intentions or actions, it is crucial to find effective strategies to better educate
and impact students who live off campus. Finally, it would be of use for future research
to investigate the value of information which students gather from different resources
such as, warnings that come from professors versus information that may be coming from
some type of advertising outreach. What media and methods do students feel are
beneficial to convey the messages they see as important concerning issues of campus
safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence?

Recommendations for Practice

This research provides a foundation to the unveiling of students’ perceptions of
campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence at a mid-sized Virginia
university and the impacts these perceptions may have on prevention, response and risk
reduction strategies. While there is a clear need for further research prior to implementing
any actions, the following suggestions are posited as a basis for practice. First, it is
important for administrators, faculty, staff and other university leaders to recognize that
issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence are occurring among their student population, as well as among students all over the country. During the focus group interview participants inquired into the purpose of this project in terms of application and implication for them and the university. It is the belief of this researcher that understanding student perceptions such as those concerning how students are defining sexual assault as compared to “hook ups”, or student’s gendered beliefs of each other’s experiences and roles as pro-social bystanders must be recognized and be the basis for any and all prevention, response and risk reduction strategies.

It is the interest of this researcher to utilize information found to develop a program to be implemented at the university regarding these issues. The design and development of the program will rely on the findings in terms of when to provide such an intervention; students recognize the importance of first year students being educated as well as all students, thus a focus on assessing interventions for freshman is suggested. Recognizing the clear gendered delineations of male and female when it comes to perceptions of these issues must be taken into consideration. By applying learning theory such as social cognitive theory as a framework to develop an educational intervention, it is suggested a multi part intervention that allows an opportunity for female and male students to experience and discuss these issues among a single-gendered group might be advantageous. This provides students an opportunity to begin to de-construct or at least acknowledge the social scripts, which may or may not be guiding their behavior. These social scripts can then be identified. Integrating the developed model of how behavior is impacted by the social system becomes a framework for realistic analysis of the cultural environment, in which incidences of safety breeches, sexual assault and interpersonal
violence are occurring as recognized by participants. The model can become a tool to identify the specific social factors that influence, condone or reject the behaviors that students identify as negative or harmful.

Finally, the results of this research also suggest that investigating students who live off campus and what they perceive the university’s role to be when it comes to their personal safety is critical. Understanding the social scripts, as well as generational expectations of the responsibility of safety would also help the university to develop more effective and pertinent interventions for students off campus; such as participants’ suggestions of advertising and utilizing professors as a way to encourage students to use campus resources. Finally, regardless of the type, design, timing or method of intervention the university implements, a method of evaluation is necessary. Utilizing a theoretically grounded mix-method framework of evaluation such as, UCT surveys and other qualitative methods, the university would be able to collect data that is a more realistic picture of the implications of prevention, response and risk reduction strategies; as it will be the picture painted not in statistics of occurrence, but in the voice of those who are experiencing and living in a world where issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence exists.

The picture that is painted thus far by this research is clear, that issues of campus safety, sexual assault and interpersonal violence exist at this university. Campus leaders must take notice to bring these issues into the light and develop a sustained commitment to not only addressing these specific issues, but also continue to strive towards changing the broader social culture. Students’ perceptions of campus safety including sexual
assault and interpersonal violence at mid-sized Virginia university are clear as the students surveyed endorsed that:

- 80% have had experiences, which they perceived a potential risk to their personal safety
- 59% know someone who has been sexually assaulted
- 84% know others who have experienced a threat to their personal safety
- 72% are concerned with the possibility of being sexually assaulted
- 60% think that others are concerned about issues of campus safety

Compiled with the qualitative data in this research, the need to allocate more resources, energy and attention to these issues must become a priority. The purpose of this investigation is aligned with the fulfillment of the mission of the university which states, “We are a community committed to preparing students to be educated and enlightened citizens who lead productive and meaningful lives” (University Planning & Analysis, 2011). Inherent in this mission is the belief that there is opportunity for change and growth during student’s time at the university. However, recognizing that even if just one students’ life is controlled, altered or disfigured by the fear or reality of victimization – it is one too many. These issues, these public health issues, can be solved; the collegiate community must be utilized as a catalyst for this epic shift. Through the implementation of theoretically based programming and evaluation methods, as purposed in this research, the necessary, complex and difficult paradigm shifts that encourage the development of enlightened citizens who can lead more meaningful lives can begin; lives which are free of the psychological and direct physical violence that squelches access, opportunity, safety and general well being, something that most college campuses should strive for.
Appendix A: Uncount match technique studies matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dalton, Wimbush and Daily, 1994</td>
<td>Base rates of admission of unethical behavior of auctioneers; Organizational studies</td>
<td>Empirical assessment of UCT as used to determine base rates of un-ethical behavior of auctioneers</td>
<td>Professional auctioneers N=240 (n=80) for all three groups; random sampling to divide into groups; Mostly from Southwest and Western U.S.</td>
<td>Statistically significant difference for all 6 sensitive items; control item for conventional survey and UCT showed no difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dalton, Daily and Wimbush, 1997</td>
<td>Examples regarding “nontrivial theft” of employees – business ethics</td>
<td>Descriptive study about UCT method</td>
<td>Not an empirical study; provided description of UCT including a descriptive example with fictional sample of N=400 (n=200)</td>
<td>Explain that UCT is a step to allow for more valid research of sensitive subjects; maintains confidentiality anonymity; provide base line data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wimbush and Dalton, 1997</td>
<td>“non trivial theft” from business such as fast-food restaurants and convenience stores</td>
<td>Administered a conventional self report survey, UCT and RRT. Compare responses</td>
<td>4 intact groups n=210, 796, 174 and 179; Participants were employed in the industry or had been in past 2 years; Largely from Midwestern U.S.</td>
<td>Statistically significant difference in 3 of 4 sensitive items; control item also showed no difference between conventional and UCT;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaBrie and Earlywine, 2000</td>
<td>Risky sexual behavior and alcohol use in college students</td>
<td>Administered a conventional self report survey and UCT. Compared responses from the two survey methods; as well as UCT</td>
<td>College students N=346 n= 102, 122, 122; psychology classes; 145 male 201 female; Average age 21.93; Diverse ethnicities; random sampling divide into 3 groups.</td>
<td>Statistically significant difference for 2 of five items (which included the control item). 2 most highly sensitive items concern condom use. Students who endorsed having sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rayburn, Earleywine and Davison, 2003</td>
<td>Base rate anti-gay hate crime perpetration of college students</td>
<td>Administered conventional self report and UCT to compare results; as well as UCT analysis of base line information</td>
<td>College students N= 466; psychology classes (University Southern California); 118 male 346 female (representative of enrollment at the time); Average age = 19.84 yrs., Diverse ethnicities; Group 1 n=150 (111 females and 39 males); Group 2 n= 173 (129 females and 44 males); Group 3 n=143 (106 females,35 males, 2 did not indicate sex)</td>
<td>Significant differences include: items concerning “having gotten in a physical fight with a gay person and damaging someone’s property because he was gay”. Both items higher base rate on UCT; no statistical difference concerning graffiti; significant difference item about verbal threats, conventional survey produced higher base rate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rayburn, Earleywine and Davison, 2003</td>
<td>Base rate of hate crime victimization of college students</td>
<td>Administered conventional self report and UCT to compare results; as well as UCT analysis of base line information; Administered survey during</td>
<td>College students N= 287 psychology classes at a large urban university; 201 male 86 female; Average age 19.88 yrs.; Diverse ethnicities, mostly Caucasian and Asian American</td>
<td>Significantly higher base rates for all hate crimes investigated except assault with a weapon, property damage and chasing (although UCT produced higher base rate for</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Results</td>
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<td>Ahart and Sacket, 2004</td>
<td>Counterproductive behavior (CB) in organizations; Integrity and conscientiousness</td>
<td>Administered conventional self-report and UCT to compare results: as well as UCT analysis of base line information; Examine relationships between individual difference measures; altering the procedure and structure of the UCT method and inclusion of two other scales as part of task; Students met after class; Control group,</td>
<td>College students N=318 (99 male 219 female); Average age 20.9 yrs.; 99.6% had some work experience; random sample divided into three groups (n=123, 120, 75); G1, control no sensitive items UTC, also administered two other scales about Integrity and conscientiousness; then complete direct self-report; G2, sensitive items an UCT survey, no direct self-report also no direction or demonstration (criteria of UCT being tested); G3, sensitive item G1, one time endorsement higher on UCT, but not statistically significant; G3 baseline did not differ significantly from self-report all 5 items; also analyzed correlations between integrity, conscientiousness and CBs with direct self-report; complex statistical analysis process; small sample size limitation emphasized; UCT base rates among UCT data significantly bigger with instruction than...</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authors, Year</td>
<td>Study Title</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Results</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anderson, Simmons, Milnes and Earleywine, 2007</td>
<td>Effects of anonymity and reporting methods concerning eating disorders</td>
<td>Administered conventional self report and UCT to compare results; as well as UCT analysis of base line information</td>
<td>College students N=454 (175 males 279 females); Psychology students; Average age 18.3; Diverse ethnicities however, dominantly Caucasian; 30 item survey with 6 sensitive items; sample randomly divided into 3 groups</td>
<td>Significant differences for some items for males and females found when UCT compared to conventional survey; Female significantly different on 5 of 6 sensitive items, higher endorsement UCT; Males significantly different on 4 of 6 sensitive items, higher endorsement UCT; suggest belief of true anonymity effected higher rates for UCT, note that further study needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walsh and Braithwaite, 2008</td>
<td>Excessive alcohol consumption and relationship to sexual behavior</td>
<td>Administered conventional self report and UCT to compare</td>
<td>College students N=842 (306 males 536 females); Seniors large Midwestern</td>
<td>Significant difference for 7 of 16 sensitive items, UCT report higher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College campuses (U.S) results; as well as UCT analysis of base line information; Administered in classrooms; instructors distribute surveys (traditions, UCT, Non-UCT) randomly and equally.</td>
<td>University from 6 academic colleges 44 courses in 23 departments; Average age 21-23; predominately Caucasian (n=752) other ethnicities represented; Random assigned to 3 groups; n=277 (99 males 178 females), 283 (98 males 185 females), 282 (109 males 173 females); base rate; Traditional yield 3 of 16 significantly different; UCT produced statistically higher affirmative rates by males 6 of 16 sensitive items; Traditions report 1 difference of 16 sensitive items; UCT for females 9 of 16 questions endorsed; Traditional 1 of 16; Overall, UCT elicit affirmative response to sensitive items at 6:1 ratio</td>
<td>Lavender and Anderson, 2009 Effects of anonymity and response format in assessment of eating disordered behaviors and attitudes</td>
<td>College female only; N=469;</td>
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Appendix B: Qualitative interview protocol and informed consent

**Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form for Focus Group Interview**

**Purpose of Study**
You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Elaine Roberts from James Madison University. The purpose of this study is to investigate student’s perceptions of campus safety and the implications for prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. This study is for the completion of the researcher’s thesis.

**Time Required**
Participation in this focus group interview will take approximately 1-2 hours of your time. You are able to leave at anytime for any reason with out penalty or consequences.

**Research Procedures**
This research involves participating in a focus group interview session, with other student peers. The focus group will involve a semi-structured interview process, as a participant you will be able to guide the conversation for the most part. The interview will be concerning your perceptions of campus safety, your may answer any questions to the extent to which you feel comfortable. The interview process will be visually and audio recorded with your permission. Upon transcription of the data this will be destroyed. During the coding process your identity will remain confidential and protected. One other researcher may be present in the room to assist with the facilitation of the session. This graduate researcher completed IRB training, and will adhere to all protocol of this research. This research is truly interested in your point of view, attitudes and beliefs regarding campus safety.

**Confidentiality**
The results of this research will be presented in the researcher’s thesis. In this report all information that could allow for identification will be eliminated to ensure your confidentiality. The researcher cannot control for the actions of your peers in the study, thus if you feel any discomfort or uncertainty when disclosing any information, please do not be pressured to disclose information for the benefit of the study. If you would like to disclose any sensitive information because you believe it to be relevant to the study feel free to approach the researcher at the end of the interview session. All recorded and coded qualitative data will also be kept and stored in a secure office on campus. Any demographic info will only be used for the researcher’s own observations, but will not be presented in the final form of this study. All data will be stored in a secure location only accessible to the researcher. The researcher retains the right to use and publish non-identifiable data. At the end of the study, all records will be shredded. Final results will be made available to participants upon request.

**Risks and Benefits**
Your participation in this study will involve minimal risk. It is not anticipated that your physical and mental health will be jeopardized by the participation in this study; however, due to the potential for discussion of sensitive topics minimal risk may be involved. As mentioned you are absolutely free to withdraw at any time. Also, if during the course of
the interview and or post interview you feel you have been suffered any mental, emotional or psychological harm a licensed counselor will be available via telephone for your aide. This study could provide some direct or indirect benefit to you in terms of learning more about campus safety, your peers’ perceptions of safety and possible implications.

**Participation & Withdrawal**
Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to choose not to participate. Should you choose to participate, you can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. However, once your responses are recorded they will be transcribed with all other raw data, but will remain confidential as with all data.

**Questions about the Study**
If you have questions or concerns during the time of your participation in this study, or after its completion or you would like to receive a copy of the final results of this study, please contact:

Researcher’s Contact Info:   Elaine Roberts  
Jane Thall  
Learning Technology & Leadership  
Education  
Email: robertef@gmail.com  
thalljb@jmu.edu  
(540) 568-5531

**As an informed participant of this experiment, I understand that:**

1) My participation is voluntary and I may cease to take part in this experiment at any time, without penalty.

2) I am aware of what my participation involves.

3) *There is minimal risk in the participation of this study, which has been explained to me I understand the risk.*

4) All my questions about the study have been satisfactorily answered.

[ ] I give consent to be video/audio taped during my interview. ________ (initials)

I have read and understood the above, and give consent to participate:

Participant’s Signature: ___________________________  Date:__________

I have explained the above and answered all questions asked by the participant:  
Researcher’s Signature: ___________________________  Date:__________
Appendix C: Quantitative UCT protocol and informed consent

**Survey Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form**

**Purpose of Study**
You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Elaine Roberts from James Madison University. The purpose of this study is to investigate student’s perceptions of campus safety and the implications for prevention, response and risk reduction strategies. This study is for the completion of the researcher’s thesis.

**Time Required**
Participation in this study will require 10 to 15 minutes of your time.

**Research Procedures**
This study consists of survey that will be administered to participants through paper and pencil scantron methods. You will be presented a series of questions related to the variables of student perceptions of campus safety.

**Confidentiality**
The results of this research will be presented in the researcher’s thesis. Individual responses are anonymous through the use of a specific survey technique. All survey data is kept in the strictest confidence. All recorded and coded quantitative data will also be kept and stored in a secure office on campus. All data will be stored in a secure location only accessible to the researcher. The researcher retains the right to use and publish non-identifiable data. At the end of the study, all records will be shredded. Final results will be made available to participants upon request.

**Risks and Benefits**
Your participation in this study will involve no more than minimal risks. It is not anticipated that your physical and mental health will be jeopardized by the participation in this study. This study could provide some direct or indirect benefit to you in terms of learning more about campus safety, your peers’ perceptions of safety and possible implications.

**Participation & Withdrawal**
Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to choose not to participate, simply do not fill out a scantron. You may wait and turn this in blank at anytime to ensure that your choice remains anonymous. Should you choose to participate, you can withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. However, once your responses have been submitted and anonymously recorded you will not be able to withdraw from the study.

**Participation in Further Research**
A focus group interview will be conduct at a later date regarding this topic. If you would like to participate in the focus group interview please contact the researcher at the following phone number (757) 525-3853. Any information left in a voicemail at this number will be only accessible by the researcher.
Questions about the Study
If you have questions or concerns during the time of your participation in this study, or after its completion or you would like to receive a copy of the final results of this study, please contact:

Researcher’s Contact Info: Elaine Roberts
Jane Thall
Learning Technology & Leadership
Education
Email: robertef@gmail.com
thalljb@jmu.edu
Advisor: Dr. Jane Thall
Learning Technology & Leadership
Education
Email:
(540) 568-5531

Giving of Consent
I certify that I am at least 18 years of age and have been given the opportunity to ask questions about this study. I have read this consent and I understand what is being requested of me as a participant in this study.

As an informed participant of this experiment, I understand that:

1) My participation is voluntary and I may cease to take part in this experiment at any time, without penalty.

2) I am aware of what my participation involves.

3) There is minimal risk in the participation of this study, which has been explained to me I understand the risk.

4) All my questions about the study have been satisfactorily answered.

I have read and understood the above, and give consent to participate.

I have explained the above and answered all questions asked by the participant:

Researcher’s Signature: ____________________________ Date: __________
Appendix D: Survey with sensitive questions

Survey:

The following survey intends to gather data from students to provide base line information about their perceptions of campus safety. The information you provide will be completely anonymous because you will not supply any personal information, and you will not directly identify your answer to any question.

Directions: For each block of questions, read the statements and in the answer box fill in the amount of these statements that are true for you. Do not circle or directly indicate the answers that are true for you. Only select the number in answer box on your scantron form.

Example:

I go to JMU
I am right handed
I enjoy roller skating
I want to work for a non-profit
I have blue eyes
I enjoy photography

Block 1

I have felt unsafe on campus
I follow a religion
I have a brother
I own a car
I go to the movies once a week
I am studying to be a lawyer

Block 2

I have a dog
I think about the potential for victimization
My favorite color is blue
I live in a one-bedroom apartment with no roommates
I go out to eat at least twice a week (not including dining halls)
I am a fan of a professional hockey team
Block 3

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I have been hiking in Nepal
My eyes are blue
I have had experiences, which I perceived a potential risk to my personal safety
I have been out of the country more than once
I have broken a bone
I am a snowboarding instructor

Block 4

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I vacation at the beach at least once a year
I do not grocery shop for myself
I know someone who has been sexually assaulted
I went to public school for middle school
I have a cat
I own a motorcycle

Block 5

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I was born in Virginia
I know others who have experienced a threat to the personal safety
I attended private school for elementary school
I work in a restaurant
I never study at the library
I own a laptop

Block 6

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I am currently single
I go to a live music event every month
I know someone who has been in a violent/unsafe intimate relationship
I know how to knit
I have been a part of a competitive swim team
I have completed a marathon

### Block 7

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- I am in a club on campus
- I talk about interpersonal violence with my peers
- I follow national news on a daily basis
- I talk about the news with my peers
- I enjoy going to the movies
- I own a bicycle

### Block 8

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- I have a pet cat
- I have worked in a hardware store
- I do not have a facebook account
- I talk about the risk of sexual assault with my peers
- I own a SUV
- I skateboard as a means of transportation

### Block 9

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- I talk about safety risks with my friends/peers
- I have a credit card in my name that I pay for
- I talk about my personal finances with my friends/peers
- I own a house
- I live in an apartment complex off campus
- I play darts at least once a year
Block 10

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- I read one book that is not for school every month
- I am enrolled in a painting class
- I have felt that my personal, physical space has been threatened before
- I drink one cup of coffee daily
- I use a laptop to take notes in class
- I have a sister

Block 11

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- I think others are concerned about issues of campus safety
- I have been to Spain
- I can speak another language
- I have voted in a presidential election
- I practice yoga at least twice a week
- I work in a retail store

Block 12

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- I read the Washington Post regularly
- I am studying to be a doctor
- I am concerned with the possibility of being sexually assaulted
- I own a pet bird
- I follow a professional volleyball team
- I know how to read music

Block 13

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- I think about the potential for victimization
- I am a vegetarian
- I am allergic to strawberries
- My eyes are green
- I am left-handed
- I know how to use Microsoft Power Point

*Thank you for completing the survey!*
Appendix E: Survey without sensitive questions

**Survey:**

The following survey intends to gather data from students to provide baseline information about their perceptions of campus safety. The information you provide will be completely anonymous because you will not supply any personal information, and you will not directly identify your answer to any question.

Directions: For each block of questions, read the statements and in the answer box fill in the amount of these statements that are true for you. Do not circle or directly indicate the answers that are true for you. Only select the number in answer box on your scantron form.

Example:

I go to JMU
I am right handed
I enjoy roller skating
I want to work for a non-profit
I enjoy photography

Block 1

I follow a religion
I have a brother
I own a car
I go to the movies once a week
I am studying to be a lawyer

Block 2

I have a dog
My favorite color is blue
I live in a one-bedroom apartment with no roommates
I go out to eat at least twice a week (not including dining halls)
I am a fan of a professional hockey team
Block 3

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I have been hiking in Nepal
My eyes are blue
I have been out of the country more than once
I have broken a bone
I am a snowboarding instructor

Block 4

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I vacation at the beach at least once a year
I do not grocery shop for myself
I went to public school for middle school
I have a cat
I own a motorcycle

Block 5

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I was born in Virginia
I attended private school for elementary school
I work in a restaurant
I never study at the library
I own a laptop

Block 6

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I am currently single
I go to a live music event every month
I know how to knit
I have been a part of a competitive swim team
I have completed a marathon
Block 7

1 2 3 4 5

I am in a club on campus
I follow national news on a daily basis
I talk about the news with my peers
I enjoy going to the movies
I own a bicycle

Block 8

1 2 3 4 5

I have a pet cat
I have worked in a hardware store
I do not have a facebook account
I own a SUV
I skateboard as a means of transportation

Block 9

1 2 3 4 5

I have a credit card in my name that I pay for
I talk about my personal finances with my friends/peers
I own a house
I live in an apartment complex off campus
I play darts at least once a year

Block 10

1 2 3 4 5

I read one book that is not for school every month
I am enrolled in a painting class
I drink one cup of coffee daily
I use a laptop to take notes in class
I have a sister
I think others are concerned about issues of campus safety
I have been to Spain
I can speak another language
I have voted in a presidential election
I practice yoga at least twice a week
I work in a retail store

I read the Washington Post regularly
I am studying to be a doctor
I own a pet bird
I follow a professional volleyball team
I know how to read music

I am a vegetarian
I am allergic to strawberries
My eyes are green
I am left-handed
I know how to use Microsoft Power Point

Thank you for completing the survey!
Appendix F: Focus group interview guided questions

Possible questions:

1. Can you all tell me about your perceptions of campus safety here at JMU? What issues to you see or think are a problem, what does the university do well or not well?

2. In your peer groups do you all talk about issues of campus safety? What is this conversation like? Who is involved?

3. Are there times, which you feel safer on campus? Are there times when you fell unsafe on campus?

4. Can you all talk about you perceptions of the potential for your safety to be at risk?

5. Interpersonal violence is a current national issue, is this something that you or your friends talk about? Or are you concerned about it? What is it to you?

6. The issue of sexual assault on college campuses has been studied and discussed quite a bit. Please recognize that this is a sensitive issue, so let’s be respectful to our peers. Do you all talk about issues of sexual assault with your friends? Why or why not?

7. Do you think about situations, which may increase your risk, or a friend’s risk for victimization in any way?
8. Do you all believe that others are concerned with issues of campus safety, sexual assault and/or interpersonal violence?
References


Cooper, K., & McNab, S. L. (2009). Questioning as a Pedagogical Tool in Teaching and Research. In S. Kouritzin, N. Piquemal, & R. Norman (Eds.), *Qualitative


High, C. (1994). *A Descriptive Study of Southwest College: An Analysis of Selected Variables as They Relate to Students Attitudes toward Campus Safety*, Available


Murnen, S., Wright, C., & Kaluzny, G. (2002). If "boys will be boys," then girls will be victims? A meta-analytic review of the research that relates masculine ideology to sexual aggression. *Sex Roles*, 46 (11/12), 359-375.


