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Mandated sexual violence prevention in higher education: a quantitative analysis of student response to sexual harassment and violence through a framework of organizational culture

Andrew L. Jones

Pepperdine University

The Graduate School of Education & Psychology

MANDATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF STUDENT RESPONSE TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND VIOLENCE THROUGH A FRAMEWORK OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

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by

Andrew L. Jones

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Eric Hamilton, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Andrew L. Jones

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Doctoral Committee:

Eric Hamilton, Ph.D., Chairperson

Joseph Green, Ed.D.

Benjamin F. Quillian Jr., Ph.D.

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DEDICATION

I am grateful that my time at the Graduate School of Education & Psychology is another important step towards self-actualization. I dedicate this work to my family, especially my daughter, Amaya Mary-Francis; my godchildren, Ava and Brandon; my brothers Demond, Melvin, and Leonard Jr.; my parents, Leonard and Diana; and my grandparents, L. C., Mary Francis, Cordia, and Tommy Sr. This doctoral journey has been one of the most challenging experiences of my life but also one of the most fulfilling. I am eternally grateful for the love, support, and sacrifices made throughout this journey. To Amaya, Ava, and Brandon, never forget that God has not given us the SPIRIT of FEAR but of POWER, LOVE, and a sound MIND. Know that my love for you is infinite and that the legacy I leave behind for you is one of manhood, scholarship, perseverance, and uplift. Lastly, I dedicate this to the unsung heroes in my life: my pastor, Bishop Bennie Lewis; my teachers/counselors, Dr. Paul, Mrs. Gray, Mrs. Richardson, Mrs. Anthony, Mrs. Taylor, Wayne Byrd, Frankie Moore, and Drs. Eric & Vickie Krenz, and coaches. Paul Knox, Reggie McKenzie, Jim Sweeney, and Jethro Franklin. Through them, I learned about hard work and determination. I learned that imagination x vividness = reality. With their help, a kid from Los Angeles imagined a vivid future that became reality through sustained persistence. Thank you.

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VITA

OVERVIEW

An accomplished program developer, researcher, and advocate for the economic, health, safety, and wellness of boys and men of color with over 15 years of administrative experience in the for-profit and higher education sectors.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Doctor of Philosophy – Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, CA, Pending 2023
Master of Arts, Education – Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, CA
Bachelor of Arts, English/American Literature, California State University, Fresno, CA

QUALIFICATIONS

- Over 15 years of experience in public safety-related grants, procurement, compliance, and contract management.
- Policy development, technical assistance, and training.
- Fiscal processes and procedures, budgeting, and compliance across 23 agencies.
- Qualitative and Quantitative data collection and analysis.
- Proficient in Office 365, PeopleSoft, Data Warehouse & Qualtrics.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Senior Analyst III, Systemwide Public Safety 2013–Current
California State University, Long Beach, CA

- Systemwide contract administration, request for proposal (RFP), procurement, internal and external agreements. Critical Response Unit management
- Internal auditing/monitoring activities to ensure regulatory compliance for risk management and public safety
- Training and technical assistance for sworn/non-sworn personnel federal and state compliance and associated regulations.
- Data collection, analysis, and policy development for senior management.
- Fiscal management, policies, and procedures. Year-end closeouts.

Program Manager 2008–2012
City of Clovis, Clovis, CA

- Managed the recruitment, education, training, and supervision of more than 200 clients ages 16–24 with Fresno County Workforce Investment Board.
- Managed requests for proposals (RFP), research, grant administration, and internal and external service agreements.
- Developed a database to track stakeholders, job readiness, and training strategies.
- Manage labor compliance, permits, audits, and quality assurance.

Health Collaborative Project Manager 2004–2018
Healthy African American Families II, Los Angeles, CA

- Managed a coalition of agencies researching health care disparities for men of color in Los Angeles County.

- Managed RFP, procurement, and interagency service agreements.
- Created qualitative and quantitative analysis designs to capture complex data, track initiative progress, and inform policies and procedures.
- Grant administration, fiscal monitoring, and expenditures reporting compliance. Training, data collection, and evaluation.
- Health Insurance Portability Accountability Act and institutional review board compliance.
- Lean Training (CSU)

CERTIFICATIONS

- Emergency Operations and Business Continuity (CSURMA)
- Training of Trainers Level I, II (PPFA)

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION

- African American Male Education Network (A2MEND) National Association Clery Compliance Officer Professionals National Center for Campus Public Safety
- Urban Fellows Program, Pepperdine University

ABSTRACT

Sexual violence (SV) is a global public health crisis of pandemic proportions. Sexual harassment (SH) and violence are pervasive on college campuses, negatively impacting students, faculty, and staff. To address this, U.S. universities are required by federal law to implement EBP programs to foster awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) to prevent or mitigate sexual misconduct. Improving these competencies can increase students' capacity to respond to SH and SV they experience or witness positively impacting retention, health, wellness, and graduation outcomes. Additionally, recent empirical evidence has linked organizational culture (i.e., values, shared beliefs, and artifacts) and competencies to effectively responding to institutional crises such as SV. This quantitative study analyzed state university disaggregated data from a 2016 Title IX student survey through a framework of organizational culture. Specifically, the study explored differences between rural-urban and undergraduate graduate students' competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors) and the values, artifacts, and beliefs stated in state university policy and procedures. Further research should consider the likely effects of organizational culture on the implementation of SH and SV prevention programs.

Keywords: Sexual harassment, sexual violence, organizational culture, organizational structure, Title IX, Clery Act, Violence Against Women Act, higher education, evidence-based sexual violence prevention

Chapter I: Introduction

> Values lay the foundation for understanding attitudes and motivation, and they influence our perceptions. We enter an organization with preconceived notions of what 'ought' and 'ought not' to be. These notions contain our interpretations of right and wrong and our preferences for certain behaviors or outcomes.
>
> —Robbins & Judge, 2017, p. 189

Sexual violence (SV) is a major public health problem affecting millions of individuals around the world (Black et al., 2011; García-Moreno et al., 2013; Terpstra & Baker, 1987). In the United States (U.S.), a report from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) asserted greater attention on sexual misconduct through awareness, programs, and reporting has provided greater transparency of prevalence rates in the workplace, including institutions of higher education (IHE; Dills et al., 2016). Empirical evidence suggests students struggle to respond to sexual harassment (SH) and violence as it occurs or soon thereafter for a myriad of reasons, including, but not limited to, fear of revictimization, alteration of allegations, or not being believed (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Freyd, 2014; Smidt & Freyd, 2019). Are IHEs aligning their stated values, beliefs, and norms with competencies that equip students with the tools necessary to prevent and mitigate acts of SH or violence?

Based on the significant harm caused by SH and SV at American colleges and universities, IHEs are mandated by federal law (i.e., Title IX, Clery Act, and Violence Against Women Act [VAWA], among others) to take certain precautions to prevent and/or mitigate all sexual discrimination. Sexual discrimination includes SH, SV, and other forms of gender-based violence (GBV; Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Terpstra & Baker, 1987). Through a framework of organizational culture (i.e., values, beliefs, and norms), this study aimed to analyze the differences, if at all, between rural and urban and undergraduate and graduate students'

competency levels (i.e., attitudes, beliefs, awareness, knowledge, and skills/behaviors) to respond to SH and SV they experience or witness on-campus.

Global Impact

Globally, violence against women has been traditionally examined through a lens of other forms of oppression (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020). One in every three women is exposed to physical violence and/or SV from a partner or another person (García-Moreno et al., 2013; United Nations Women, 2019). As reported by Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020), SV, prostitution, human trafficking, and rape are often seen as byproducts or means of war. Moreover, Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) asserted that women's SH had been established and normalized in that environment. Nine out of 10 countries worldwide have legal statutes prohibiting SH in the workplace; however, six out of 10 do not provide adequate protection against SH in higher education. GBV emerges from this violent paradigm as a framework to understand gender harassment, sexual assault (SA), SH, date rape, and other forms of violence predominantly against women.

SH is only one part of a larger structure perpetuating GBV in institutions such as colleges and universities. This GBV ranges from objectification, bullying, misogyny, SA, and rape. Researchers in sexual discrimination and violence have shifted their focus over the decades (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020). The 1970s and 80s focused on the prevalence of SH in the workplace. Next, in the 1990's and 2000's, the focus shifted to legal definitions, surveys, and scales for testing vulnerability, organizational, and psychological exposure to SH. Studies on sexual misconduct in higher education focus on direct or indirect consequences of poverty (i.e., access to services and other supports). New concepts such as intersectionality (i.e., people of color experiences), SH via social media, and organizational and structural barriers have been

examined. Finally, the rise of the #MeToo movement has raised awareness of SH's national and global impact (Gómez & Gobin, 2020).

There are new studies of SH at IHE. These studies are typically meta-analytical and contribute to knowledge and understanding of prevalence (Fedina et al., 2018), research methodology (Voth Schrag, 2017), prevention (Kettrey et al., 2019), marginalized communities (McClelland et al., 2015), and other issues. The limitations of these studies are that they only address prevalence on-campus, target only one segment of the university, do not represent a cross-section of the campus population, or only address SH targeting staff but not students.

Federal Protections Overview

The enactment of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 mandate educational institutions and workplaces to mitigate SH, misconduct, and proliferation of gender inequity in the professional and academic worlds (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 2021). Title IX purported to address gender equity in K-12 and IHE. At the outset, Title IX enforcement centered heavily on establishing equity in resources from institutions for women and girls in sports.

From 1997 to 2001, the Department of Education Office of Civil Rights division began addressing complaints of SH and misconduct at these institutions through written guidance. This guidance taught educational organizations to take serious action to mitigate GBV and gender harassment, prevent reoccurrence, provide accommodations, and measure damage (U.S. Department of Education, 1997, 2001). In 2011, the Department of Education published the Dear Colleague Letter (DCL), which codified institutional responsibilities in preventing and responding to SV. This shift in guidance signaled that significant enforcement was underway to address the epidemic of serious sexual misconduct on college campuses.

Zimmerman (2016) reported that since 2011, serious media attention has been given to cases of campus SAs and survivors who complain of being ignored by college administrators or, worse, retaliated against by institutional leaders. Consequently, these allegations brought scrutiny to campus public safety, ushering in a period of new hires and additional resources to institutions concerned about the impact of Department of Education audits, lawsuits, and reputational risk due to neglect in this area of Title IX compliance. Media attention galvanized colleges and universities, forcing them to invest in Title IX coordinators, victim advocates, and evidence-based prevention programs online and in person (Jessup-Anger et al., 2018).

In 2018, under a new federal government administration and secretary of education, the 2011 DCL was rescinded and supplanted by controversial new guidance on preventing and responding to sexual misconduct on their campuses (McGuireWoods, 2017). In 2020, updated regulations under Title IX resulted in colleges and universities amending the policies and procedures after the original DCL guidance in 2011. The new amendments to the DCL were broadly viewed as a step in the wrong direction. The new regulations rescinded the previous evidentiary standards from preponderance to clear and convincing evidence, a more rigorous standard. In addition, SH was redefined as severe, pervasive, and objectively offensive (McGuireWoods, 2017). These changes were perceived to significantly narrow an institution's capacity to hold respondents who were found responsible for SH or violence accountable.

Many statutes other than Title IX also regulate employers and IHE's prevention and response to discrimination based on sex. Title VII, enacted as part of the broader Civil Rights Act of 1964, bans sex discrimination in the workplace, including SH. Although civil rights legislation prioritized racial discrimination, by the 1990s, most complaints under Title VII were related to SH and gender-based discrimination.

The Supreme Court of the U.S. (SCOTUS) issued rulings on SH cases that gave students, faculty, and staff the clearance to sue universities and employers for punitive and compensatory monetary damages for violations of Title VII and Title IX (*Burlington Industries Inc. v. Ellerth*, 1998; *Faraghar v. City of Boca Raton*, 1998; *Franklin v. Gwinnett*, 1992; *Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson*, 1986). The right to seek monetary damages for violating Title VII by employers for employees was later codified and clarified (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1991). More campus leaders have dedicated resources to ensuring student gender equity, specifically through increased funding for victim advocacy and the development of SA prevention programs, including online compliance training and in-person interactive programs for students (Jessup-Anger et al., 2018). During this time, media attention was focused primarily on student SA and rarely on the SH experienced by staff, faculty, and employees.

State Protections Overview

In California, state legislation has been enacted to prevent, mitigate, or reduce the prevalence of SH and SV in the workplace, including post-secondary higher education (Jessup-Anger et al., 2018). The Donahoe Higher Education Act, Senate Bill 33, Education Code § 22500, is home to the state's higher education policies and codes codified in the state's Master Education Plan for Higher Education (University of California, n.d.). The Master Plan has been amended several times in response to the changing dynamics of SH and SV on college and university campuses in California. This legislation includes the Kristen Smart Act, 1998; Senate Bill 967: Student Safety Sexual Assault Act 2014; and the Assembly Bill (AB) 1433: Student Safety Act 2014, which amended Education Code § 67380.

Higher Education in California

Under the Donohoe Higher Education Act (University of California, n.d.), California has three public systems of higher education and private colleges and universities. California State University (CSU) serves roughly half a million students and over 55,000 faculty and staff at 23 colleges and universities. It is the most extensive 4-year public university system in the U.S., with over four million living alums. One in 10 college graduates in the country earned their degree at a CSU campus. CSU is dedicated to creating opportunities for student success by providing access to quality higher education and promoting a culture of health, wellness, and safety for its students, faculty, and staff (California State University, 2022).

The University of California (UC) system includes 10 public land grant universities in Berkeley, Davis, Irvine, Los Angeles, Merced, Riverside, San Diego, San Francisco, Santa Cruz, and Santa Barbara. Founded in 1868 and reorganized as a system in 1957, the UC serves over 294,000 students with nearly 160,000 faculty and staff members. The UC San Francisco enrolls only health science and medicine graduate students, while the other nine universities serve undergraduate and graduate students. The UC boasts over two million living alumni (College Wise, 2022). The California Community College (CCC) system serves 1.8 million students at 116 colleges. According to CCC (2022), 29% of UC and 51% of CSU graduates began their higher education journey at a 2-year CCC. The CCC is the country's most extensive system of higher education, and 47% of students do not pay fees.

Sexual Harassment Overview

The National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (NASEM; 2018) reported that SH is pervasive and has negative consequences for university faculty, staff, and students. According to Feldblum and Lipnic (2016), SH includes sexual advances that are

unwelcome, offensive conduct in a workplace or academic environment. This behavior can disrupt professional advancement, work performance, and the overall mental health of its victims.

NASEM (2018) reported SH can be defined in three categories. Gender harassment includes objectification, offensive statements, crude jokes, gender-based hostility, unwanted sexual attention, or advances. Sexual coercion is typically referred to as “quid pro quo” harassment, in which the target of the harassment may face retaliation if they do not acquiesce to the perpetrator’s sexual demands. The two most common types of SH are verbal or non-verbal objectification and unwanted sexual attention (Cantor et al., 2015). Cantor et al. (2020) found that college students most commonly face harassment in text messages, verbally, or on social media.

SH and misconduct are prevalent in the U.S., with reports of approximately 12,600 in 2015. These reports were made to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2022). The complaints were from individuals experiencing SH in the workplace. Additional studies revealed that approximately 58% of women will experience SH in their lifetime (Ilies et al., 2006).

NASEM (2018) reported increasing levels of sexual misconduct experienced by both students and staff at American colleges and universities. In a report that included 33 universities from across the U.S., Cantor et al. (2020) asserted that 42% of students experienced some form of SH, including disrespectful comments regarding their appearance, offensive or lewd jokes that were sexual, or unwanted pressure for dates or sex. A subset of this group, roughly 45%, reported these incidents of SH disrupted their academic and social lives. Most of the complainants described men as responsible for this sexual misconduct.

Sexual Violence Overview

SA on college campuses is a serious public health concern in the U.S. and worldwide (Kettrey et al., 2019; Salazar et al., 2018). SA is defined as unwanted sexual contact that includes oral sex, sexual touching, intercourse, anal sex, or penetration with a finger or object. Before college enrollment, 19% of women had experienced attempted or completed SA (Kettrey et al., 2019).

Unsurprisingly, domestic violence, dating violence (DV), and stalking are prevalent and pervasive among young adults 16–24 years old, affecting millions each year. Salazar et al. (2018) contended that the prevalence of SV on campuses can be attributed to two areas of the college experience. One, student life, where excessive drinking, substance use, newfound independence, and lack of parental supervision intersect; and two, institutional administration in terms of alcohol policy, drinking rates, number of freshmen on campus, and popularity of athletic teams, including sports division.

In IHE, the number of victims of SV reflects or exceeds that of the general population. As cited by Voth Schrag (2017), it was reported that 22% of college women have experienced domestic violence, while 20% have experienced attempted or completed SA. Emerging literature asserted even higher rates of DV and SA have been reported on individual college campuses, approaching 40% of students.

In a study about SH and SV, a diverse sample of young men were recruited from 30 colleges across Georgia. The study's results revealed that a significant percentage of males, 19.3%, engaged in SV perpetration before college. The study asserted men exposed to sexual media consumption, binge drinking, hypermasculine beliefs, and friends who supported SV were likely to have perpetrated SV at college matriculation (Salazar et al., 2018). These rates should

concern colleges and universities that are mandated to mitigate SV harassment and misconduct on their campus.

SH & SV: A Paradigm Shift

In 2017, two words sent shockwaves worldwide as the hashtag #MeToo went viral in less than 24 hours. Individuals, leaning on the power of community, found the courage to come forward with their experiences of sexual violence. Over 12 million came forward in the first 24 hours, and over 19 million in the first year. The U.S. and numerous other countries are being forced to reckon with the systemic ills perpetuating gross abuses of power in society and a culture that predicates itself on the silence of those impacted (Kearl et al., 2019).

The #MeToo movement began in 2006 by Tarana Burke to signal unity and shift the focus of the GBV paradigm to survivors, as opposed to victimization of SH and assault (Gupta et al., 2019; Kearl et al., 2019), particularly against women (von Sikorski & Saumer, 2020). Tarana Burke's vision inspired several other social awareness campaigns that illuminate SV hidden by systems of power and influence (Klement et al., 2019).

The #MeToo movement steadily grew for almost two decades, becoming viral in October 2017, with the publication titled *From Aggressive Overtures to Sexual Assault: Harvey Weinstein Accusers Tell Their Stories* (Farrow, 2017). The article detailed stories of SV allegations from 13 separate women by then-prominent film producer and media mogul Harvey Weinstein. The #MeToo movement went viral with two words: establishing a virtual footprint and global presence (Johnson, 2019; von Sikorski & Saumer, 2020). The presence ignited synergy for policy reform to prevent SH and assault, birthing the social justice movement (Johnson, 2019; Kearl et al., 2019). The #MeToo movement has fostered state and local laws, policies, and other university or employer-related reforms (Johnson, 2019; Kite & Whitley, 2016).

Problem Statement

The issues of SH and SV are significant and prevalent. Millions of individuals in the U.S., particularly at IHE, were impacted (Basile et al., 2016; Black et al., 2011). In higher education, SH is an epidemic. Environments, where sexual misconduct thrives, lack executive leadership, encourage toxic masculinity, are more hierarchical, and normalize GBV and silence (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020).

Universities in the U.S. are required by federal law to prevent and/or mitigate SH and SV at their institution. Implementing an EBP program is one strategy mandated under the reauthorization of the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), signed by President Joseph R. Biden in March 2022. This act was previously authorized in 1994 by Bill Clinton (U.S. Department of Justice, 1995). The aim is to increase the competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors) that bolster students' capacity to address SH and SV, if necessary, at their institution (EduRisk, 2014; White House, 2022). The university increases students' competencies to respond to on-campus SH and SV they experience or witness based on this act.

Mitigating SH and SV before it occurs through primary prevention is often utilized in IHE (Galarneau & O'Neill, 2015). These programs are necessary for providing strategies that aim to educate constituencies about preventing re-victimization, recidivism, and the adverse effects of SV on victims (Black et al., 2011). According to Tyler (2013), relevant and engaging curriculum can increase awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Targeting college and university settings with a culturally competent evidence-based curriculum can reduce detrimental behaviors, creating safer environments that support student success and institutional effectiveness (Rich et al., 2008).

Universities utilize significant resources as a practical matter and fiduciary necessity, including staff time to limit liability through prevention, mitigation, training, compliance, and investigations in response to SH and SV complaints. Feldblum and Lipnic (2016) reported that since 2010, employers, including universities, in the U.S. have spent nearly 700 million dollars responding to sexual misconduct-related lawsuits. Claims against colleges and universities are a significant financial risk, so it serves the university's interest to implement SH and SV prevention programs.

Purpose of Study

University and college students in the U.S. face persistent and ongoing threats (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Kettrey et al., 2019). Sexual misconduct, including SH, SA, domestic violence, DV, and stalking, is a significant problem among college students. Federal law in the U.S. mandates that colleges and universities that receive Title IV funding mitigate and address SH and SV on their campuses through evidence-based prevention (EBP) programs (Advocates for Youth, 2017; McGuireWoods, 2017).

One promising strategy is bystander SA intervention (Kettrey et al., 2019). These programs train students in competencies to intervene when witnessing signs of potential SV (Kettrey et al., 2019; Rich et al., 2008). Participants in bystander prevention programs have reported an increase in awareness, knowledge, and skills to intervene when witnessing GBV.

Researchers also highlight the impact of these programs on participants' attitudes, behaviors, intent to help friends, intent to help strangers, and bystander efficacy (Feldwisch et al., 2020; Galarneau & O'Neill, 2015; Rich et al., 2008). Improving students' knowledge, awareness, skills, attitudes, and behaviors to prevent GBV from taking root on campus becomes imperative for student outcomes and institutional cohesion. Organizational culture is a system of shared

meaning held by members that distinguishes one organization from another (Robbins & Judge, 2017; Schein, 1992). Culture can stabilize an organization or be a barrier to institutional change.

Organizational culture in every institution significantly influences individual and group attitudes and behaviors (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Utilizing an organizational cultural framework provides an opportunity to review and assess the institution's "shared meaning" in response to SH and SV. By analyzing students' knowledge, awareness, skills, attitudes, and behaviors (competencies), the study may reveal if CSU's current culture is suitable for reducing the prevalence of on-campus sexual misconduct.

Xu et al. (2022) pointed out the mediating effect of psychological safety on institutional culture. This refers to the degree to which individuals within an organization believe they are "safe" (or will not face punishment or ridicule) when they make mistakes, allowing them to engage fully (Delizonna, 2017; Edmondson, 1999; Kahn, 1990). Group psychological safety is associated with positive learning behavior in university settings because positive leadership styles signal to students and staff that they are valued.

According to Xu et al. (2022), learning behavior mediates between group performance and psychological safety. Both perspectives provide a foundation for establishing shared beliefs and values and shape organizational culture norms (Edmondson, 1999; Xu et al., 2022). Psychological safety reflects a favorable emotional experience, which catalyzes willingness to share knowledge, establish connections with others, and influence a safe working environment (Xu et al., 2022).

State universities based on federal, state, and systemwide regulations and policies purport to build a culture that prevents and, when necessary, mitigates on-campus SH and SV. Federally

mandated EBP programs are required and implemented on every campus in the system. These programs aim to improve the competencies of college students to respond to acts of sexual misconduct they witness or experience themselves. But are these programs working? Do these programs affect the attitudes and actions of students? The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental descriptive research design was to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between Rural_ Urban and Undergraduate_ Graduate students' competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors) in responding to on-campus SH and SV at an urban and rural IHE located in California.

Research Questions

The following research questions (RQs) were examined.

- RQ1: Is there a statistically significant difference between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?
- RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference between Undergraduate_ Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors in responding to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?

Variables

The variables were as follows:

- Dependent variables: awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skill/behaviors
- Independent variable: Undergraduate_Graduate
- Dependent variable: awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors
- Independent variable: rural_urban

Hypothesis

- H1: There is a statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus.
    - Null: There is no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at an urban and rural state university campus.
- H2: There is a statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Undergraduate_Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban-rural state university campus.
    - Null: There is no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Undergraduate_Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at an urban and rural state university campus.

The methodological approach for this study was a non-experimental quantitative descriptive design with an independent samples *t*-test. Secondary disaggregated data from a 2016 Title IX addendum survey were examined to identify differences in Undergraduate_Graduate and Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) to respond to SH and SV they witness or experience.

Significance of Study

A review of the literature on SH and SV asserted that victims may struggle with reporting SH and SV for a myriad of reasons, including but not limited to fear of revictimization, alteration

of allegations, and not being believed (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Freyd, 2014; Smidt & Freyd, 2019). These attitudes and behaviors may be related to institutions such as colleges and universities' organizational culture, including but not limited to psychological safety (Xu et al., 2022; Yin et al., 2020), connectedness, and belonging within university culture (Delizonna 2017).

Studies have also linked culture to improved student engagement (Bailey, 2013; Bensimon, 1989), performance/success (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1992; Smart & St. John, 1996), satisfaction, and productivity (Xu et al., 2022). Conversely, EBP programs that increase awareness, knowledge, and skills to address sexual misconduct have been shown to reduce incidences of these types of on-campus violence (Rich, 2010; Rich et al., 2008). In short, a strong organizational culture at colleges and universities is imperative to mitigate SH and SV misconduct for individual and institutional success (Schein, 1992; Xu et al., 2022; Yin et al., 2020).

The study provides an overview of the legislative history of SH and SV and mandated EBP programs, such as bystander training on college campuses, through a lens of organizational culture. In addition, the anatomy of SH and SV and misconduct, including casual influences, SH behaviors, perceived SH, and individual responses/outcomes, is explored. Next, organizational consequences are examined, including the psychological safety of students, institutional courage in addressing sexual misconduct, financial and climate impacts, and student outcomes.

Finally, the study reviews laws, policies, and practices addressing sexual misconduct on college campuses. This review includes the global perspective, federal laws, and protections such as the Clery Act, state and local laws, policy perspective, university policies, and policing. The study’s principal investigator surmised that leadership could act by improving mandated

prevention programs by understanding students' knowledge, awareness, skills, attitudes, and behaviors as contributing factors in responses to on-campus SH and SV. Reshaping on-campus culture and student psychological safety may improve student academic performance.

Additionally, the prevention efforts examined in this study may engage students, faculty, and administrators in meaningful strategies to address the root cause of SV on campus (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Feldwisch et al., 2020; Rich et al., 2008). The next generation of corporate and institutional leaders' students are in a position to bring about meaningful change. The impact of these future leaders' ability to respond to issues of SH and SV misconduct in the workplace and universities could have global implications for the U.S. and the world. College and university administrators who are interested in improving campus safety, complying with federal and state mandates, and disrupting the culture of SH and SV must recognize that simply responding to victims of sexual misconduct is not enough.

Campus leaders will need to implement strategies that engage stakeholders and direct staff, funding, and programmatic efforts to prevent SV from occurring in the first place. To that end, a new paradigm leveraging organizational culture to mediate a campus environment free of harassment and violence should be considered. Federally mandated programs in higher education to prevent SV must go beyond creating awareness or alerting community members of available services. Instead, they must change the community standards that lead to sexual violence by encouraging the norms and behaviors we aim to promote and taking part in initiatives that promote social justice.

Positionality

The researcher acknowledged the multiple challenges that colleges and universities must surmount to deliver quality and equitable education in a safe environment for a cross-section of

students experiencing lower social and economic status, multi-lingual language barriers, having an undocumented status, fostering, or having one or more parents incarcerated. As an administrator in public safety within higher education policy and programs, personal experiences shaped an understanding of and desire to mitigate the conditions many students who deal with an incident of SH and SV while attending college may experience. Through this critical lens, the researcher drew a positionality approach, data gathering, and informs the analysis, implications, and recommendations drawn from this research.

Definition of Terms

- *Campus SaVE Act* requires postsecondary educational institutions contributing to Title IV financial aid programs to stipulate inbound college students with SV prevention coding, including a module on bystander intervention (Kettrey et al., 2019).
- *Cramér's V:* This is a measure of association between two categorical variables, giving a value between 0 and 1. Higher values indicate a stronger relationship.
- *Clery Act:* Passed into law in 1990, the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act mandates all colleges and universities receiving Title IV funding report criminal statistics. This report includes crimes such as SA, domestic violence, DV, stalking, and drug and alcohol violations (Van Vliet, 2020).
- *Degrees of Freedom (df):* These statistics are determined by multiplying the (number of rows − 1) × (number of columns − 1).
- *Descriptive Design:* A non-experimental form of research that involves the identification of attributes of a particular phenomenon based on an observational

basis or exploring a relationship between two or more variables or sets of scores (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

- *Descriptive Statistics*: These statistics are typically utilized to examine and provide information on tendencies found in a data set (Salkind, 2010). Mean and range scores commonly provide central tendency measures, while frequency distribution provides categorical information based on the number of occurrences. Inconsistency measures include dispersion of scores, variance, and standard deviation (SD).
- *Fallacy:* This term refers to a subject's physical condition in psychology. These conditions include cognitive efforts and desires, emotions and senses, or other elements that impact a subject's propensity to commit errors in judgment (Walsh, 1928).
- *Fisher's Exact Test*: Fisher's exact test measures if nominal variables have a relationship. Cell counts of each variable combination are reviewed, and the count is compared with the expected value for the cell. Expected values are the values of a cell if variables bear no significant relationship to each other. There will be a substantial difference between observed counts and expected values if significance is found. Chi-Square test of independence and Fisher's exact test is similar, but Fisher tests the p-value exactly without estimation to determine if the rejection of the null hypothesis is necessary. Additionally, Fisher's exact test is typically utilized for smaller datasets, and unlike the Chi-square test of independence, Fisher's exact test does not make assumptions for cell counts.
- *Gender-Based Violence (GBV):* Gender-based violence includes gender harassment, SA, domestic violence, DV, and stalking (NASEM, 2018; Voth Schrag, 2017).

- *Institutional Betrayal*: Institutions harm the individuals who depend on them. They commit institutional betrayal. Institutional betrayal manifests when an organization, such as a university, fails in its responsibilities to institutional members (Adams-Clark & Freyd, 2021; Freyd, 2018). This betrayal can occur through "both institutional actions (i.e., an institution actively committing a transgression or violation against a member) or inactions (i.e., an institution failing to enact appropriate policies or respond adequately to an expressed concern" (Adams-Clark & Freyd, 2021, p. 510).
- *Institutional Courage*: This principle is the antidote to institutional betrayal. Institutional courage is an expansive framework that can be applied across many institutions in response to many behaviors. The concept measures an institution's dedication to commit to moral action and seek the truth despite difficult and often risky decision-making despite short-term losses (Freyd, 2014; Smidt & Freyd, 2019).
- *Organizational Climate*: This phrase refers to the mutual perceptions members of an institution have about their shared environment (Robbins & Judge, 2017).
- *Organizational Culture*: A system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes one organization from another, including values, beliefs, and artifacts (Schein, 1992). It can stabilize an organization or be a barrier to institutional change. Organizational culture exists in every institution, having a significant influence on individual and group attitudes and behaviors (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Robbins & Judge, 2017; Schein, 1992).

- *Independent/Predictor Variables*: According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), independent/predictor variables can cause, influence, or affect outcomes. The independent variables in this study were Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate.
- *Independent Samples T-test* determines whether a difference exists between observed/actual values and expected values.
- *Psychological Safety*: The belief that one will not be punished if a mistake is made (Delizonna, 2017; Edmondson, 1999; Kahn, 1990). This definition emphasizes individual perception, which underscores the need for reduced personal risk to a member of an organization (Xu et al., 2022).
- *Sexual Harassment* (SH): This occurrence manifests in many forms, but generally, it is unwanted sexual attention (Black et al., 2011; Shakeshaft, 2004; Terpstra & Baker, 1987). Creates a hostile or offensive environment in the workplace or campus of an IHE.
- *Sexual Misconduct:* This concept typically refers to sexual activity without affirmative consent and includes SA, sexual battery, and rape. Sexual misconduct differs from SH in that it includes some form of nonconsensual physical contact (Schrock, 2021).
- *Sexual Violence (SV):* This principle includes but is not limited to non-consensual sexual activity, unwanted contact, attempted rape, rape facilitated by physical force, or alcohol and drug incapacitation (Foubert et al., 2021; Salazar et al., 2018).
- *Title IV*: According to Federal Student Aid (2022), Title IV denotes the array of financial support initiatives for students in postsecondary education, as established by Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, with subsequent amendments. These

programs are overseen by the U.S. Department of Education and are detailed in 34 CFR 668.1.

- *Title VII*: Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, and national origin. Codified in statute in (Pub. L. 88- 352) Title VII (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2022).
- *Title IX*: This title prohibits discrimination based on sex in educational institutions that receive federal funding. Private K-12 schools, colleges, and universities must adhere to the legislation, which mandates that schools respond to and remedy hostile educational environments (Advocates for Youth, 2017).
- *VAWA*: This act requires colleges and universities to provide evidenced-based primary SV prevention programs and state their adjudication and disciplinary procedural outcomes for accusers (i.e., complainant) and accused respondents (White House, 2022).

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of this study include its assessment of only undergraduate and graduate students within a system of predominately White institutions similar in size, resources, university mission, and sexual misconduct policies and procedures. The findings of this study can only be generalized to other settings similar to the colleges and universities included in the study. Additionally, the researcher is an administrator within the university system, thus introducing potential biases. Lastly, the study was limited to two campuses due to time constraints.

Organization of the Study

This chapter introduced the research questions, problem statement, significance of the study, limitations, and assumptions. Chapter 2 explored the literature on organizational development, organizational culture, SH, SV, and misconduct. Chapter 3 comprised the research design, sample, instrument, procedures, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and data analysis. Chapter 4 displayed the results of the data analysis according to the research questions. Finally, Chapter 5 illuminated the results of the research questions, study implications, and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review and analysis explores SH and SV, the prevalence at IHE, student attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, skills (competencies), and mandated EBP programs through a lens of organizational culture. SV's public health and safety crisis at colleges and universities in the U.S. has reached what Gladwell (2000) coined the tipping point. Gladwell asserted that issues of significant social concern can be compared to an epidemic due to three major characteristics. One, epidemics are very contagious. Second, seemingly insignificant changes can make a significant impact. Third, the natural trajectory of an epidemic is not a gradual climb, but rather, it grows to a tipping point or a critical mass.

SH/violence in America's universities has reached a tipping point. Federal, state, and local laws, institutional policies, and procedures over the past 50 years have all coalesced to create a foundation for colleges and universities to leverage, developing an organizational culture resistant to environments that perpetuate on-campus SH/violence. How are university values as articulated through its mission, policies, and procedures reflected in campus culture- norms, traditions, and practices translated to students' competency to respond to on-campus sexual misconduct they witness or experience themselves?

Since 2011, California IHE has made substantive changes in campus policies and procedures to address these issues in response to public campaigns, victim advocates, and subsequent legislation. These events provide an opportunity to analyze the efforts made by colleges and universities to prevent and mitigate SV by investigating institutional culture (i.e., values, beliefs, norms) as evidenced by the competencies reported by CSU students.

Organizational Theory

The structure of an organization can be defined by how tasks for a job are formally divided, grouped, and distributed. According to Mintzberg (1980), there are five typologies or basic configurations of an organization, which consist of (a) the strategic apex, (b) the operations core, (c) the middle line, (d) technostructure, and (e) support staff. Coordination mechanisms have five parts, including (a) mutual adjustment, (b) work process standardization, (c) outputs, (d) direct supervision, and (e) skills. Design parameters include (a) job specialization, (b) training and indoctrination, (c) behavior formalization, (d) unit size, (e) unit grouping, (f) performance control systems, (g) liaison design, (integrating managers, matrix structure, teams, and task force), (h) action planning, and (i) vertical and horizontal decentralization (delegation to line managers or power-sharing nonmanagers). Contingency factors include (a) size, (b) age, (c) technical system, (d) power, and (e) environment.

Each of these elements is integral and connected to the five organizational structural typologies explored by Mintzberg (1980). These five structures include (a) simple structure, (b) machine bureaucracy, (c) professional bureaucracy, (d) divisionalized form, and (e) adhocracy. In a simple structure, a central tenet is a strategic apex. Strategic apex requires direct supervision and is not complex but very centralized. Typically, this structure is found in newer organizations, is simple, and draws strength and resilience from strong leadership.

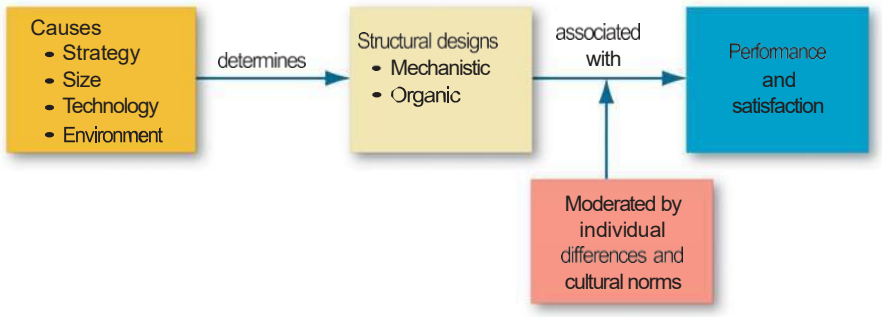
The machine and professional bureaucracy focuses primarily on standardizing work or skills at the core of its operations. The jobs can be formal or informal, highly specialized, and exist in large units (operations level). The machine bureaucracy differs from the professional in its dependence on centralized power at the strategic apex and horizontal decentralization across the technostructure. Conversely, professional bureaucracy relies on decentralization in the

organization's vertical and horizontal areas. Each of these structures lend themselves to different types of organizations. Machine bureaucracy aligns more with older legacy institutions involving external controls and technical mass production systems. Professional bureaucracy is more associated with stable but complex environments with simple technical systems that are non-regulating.

The simple structure has been compared to Warren Buffet's investment firm Berkshire Hathaway©. Some critics of Mr. Buffet's organizational structure have underscored that a lack of supervision and oversight and too much freedom for some staff are problematic. In contrast, the machine and professional bureaucratic structures have been compared to companies such as Boeing© and Siemens©. According to Robbins and Judge (2017), these companies have formal, complex, and bureaucratic structures that have been instrumental in their success.

Figure 1

Organization Structure: Its Determinants and Outcomes



Note. Adapted from Robbins and Judge (2017).

Three models of governance at IHE were proposed by Baldridge et al. (1977). These models include bureaucratic, collegial, and political as a set of beliefs about the governance of colleges and universities. Bolman and Deal (1991) proposed an organizational framework that

built upon these three historic models for IHE. The frameworks include human resources, political, symbolic, and bureaucratic, which are four approaches to understanding organizational culture.

Organizational Culture

Hofstede (1980) defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 25). As quoted by Watkins (2013), the Greek philosopher Aristotle asserted that what we do repeatedly makes us who we are. To that end, culture can be defined as consistent, observable organizational behavior patterns.

According to Schein (2004), culture may be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that a group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel relating to those problems. Robbins and Judge (2017) purported that organizational culture is a "system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations" (p. 565). Masland's (1985) and Peterson and Spencer's (1994) research support this assertion about organizational culture in higher education.

A significant and wide range of comprehensive studies have examined the roles of organizational culture, management styles, and their connection to organizational effectiveness (Bailey, 2013). In IHE, culture has been utilized to foster cycles of change processes, which can be imperative in adapting to a shifting environment (Gaus et al., 2017). Chaffee and Tierney (1988) asserted that organizational culture involves decision-making, actions taken, and communication on both an instrumental and symbolic level. Schein (2004) posited that

historically, theorists have suggested that an organization's culture is foundational in understanding the institution.

According to Gaus et al. (2017), research in higher education has focused on culture as a conceptual tool used to facilitate improvements in the morale, commitment, motivation, productivity, and loyalty of an organization and its members. A foundational construct of an organization within a society is its culture (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Masland, 1985; Schein, 1992; Smart et al., 1997). Organizational culture is shaped by what is done, how it is done, and who is involved in making sure things get done (Gaus et al., 2017).

Every organization has a culture. This culture can significantly influence the attitudes and behaviors of members within the organization. Organizational culture is a descriptive term that reflects how members operationalize the traits of an organization, not whether they agree with them. Research suggests when communities and individuals change because of social movements, “organizational culture and processes must also change to support all… regardless of demographic difference” (Robbins & Judge, 2017, p. 251).

Climate

As Robbins and Judge (2017) stated, organizational climate is a shared perception organizational members have about the institution and environment. The climate of an organization can be reflected in its members' overall energy and commitment at the organizational level. In the university setting, shared attitudes between students, faculty, and staff can create feelings about what is imperative and how things are going within a campus environment. This shared meaning at an organizational level can translate to an on-campus the climate that values everyone, overcoming the traditional barriers that impact institutional effectiveness.

Empirical evidence suggests a correlation between climate, motivation, and involvement at the member level of an organization (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Organizational climate has also been linked to increased individual satisfaction and financial reward. This connection also exists between climate and culture within an organization.

One determinant of climate is the disparate treatment of persons of color and other marginalized groups within an organization. For example, a student of color attending a predominately White college or university who experiences SV at the hands of another student may experience barriers when attempting to make a report. Kite and Whitley (2016) stated:

> Although organizational discrimination can be manifested in many ways, one area that typically comes to mind is the racial/ethnic and gender discrimination that still exists in the workplace. More than 50 years have passed since the enactment of the landmark U.S. Civil Rights Act of 1964, yet discriminatory practices are still in evidence (p. 17).

Opie and Roberts (2017) asserted that existing empirical data reveal overwhelming evidence indicating that inequities for marginalized groups, such as pay gaps for women, still exist. These inequities are associated with discriminatory practices and ineffective long-term diversity and inclusion programs that fail to foster a thriving organizational culture. This disparate treatment negatively affects women, people of color, and other marginalized persons. Ultimately, these failures can impede the adaptation of beliefs, values, and norms that impact the organizational climate for members.

Another determinant of organizational climate is establishing norms that support creating appropriate boundaries within IHE. For example, efforts to address and mitigate SH/violence often require deliberations and assessments of workplace relationship dynamics (Kovera, 2004). With this in mind, institutional leaders and policymakers should recognize romances inside an

organization are inevitable. Though inevitable, many colleges and universities are more reactive than proactive when addressing SH/SV on campus. Due to this trend, policymakers should consider that most organizational romances will end and can disrupt institutional cohesion (Kovera, 2004). These disruptions can cause a shift in group dynamics, exposing the organization to claims of SH/SV, favoritism allegations, and risk of retaliation. This exposure can shine an unpleasant, if not negative, light on leadership, faculty, and students, impacting the overall climate of an educational environment.

Leadership

Kruse et al. (2017) asserted what leaders say and do express what they value, and their behaviors reinforce the organizational mission and vision. Without clear support from above, it was unlikely that grassroots efforts would take hold, no matter how passionate. Leaders should ask several questions when focusing on improving organizational culture. These questions could be any of the following. What does the institution look like internally? How do individuals feel in the organization? And identify areas of improvement through hiring an outside consultant who can audit or evaluate opportunities for improvement.

A leader can take additional steps to improve organizational culture by using the moment to foster commitment, not just compliance by institutional members. The organization can achieve transparency by sharing internal survey and audit results. The author argued that this approach creates cross-functional groups to implement strategies and empowers members to share their concerns constructively. All aspects of the organization must influence changing policies and procedures and contribute to thought leadership. These efforts can permeate traditional structural barriers within an organization, such as colleges and universities, and improve its culture. If an organization and its people know better, then doing better is achievable.

Schein (1992) suggested there is a correlation between culture and leadership. The relationship is akin to one coin with two sides. Schein contended, “The only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture” (p. 1). Specifically, IHE leaders communicate culture and transmit new cultural directions when necessary.

The operationalization of communication and transmitting new cultural direction could take shape as what priorities leadership sets, goals and objectives that are regularly paid attention to, and their behavior and reactions to critical incidents or social movements. In addition, budget priorities, allocations of resources, recruitment, promotion, and retention of quality individuals who exemplify and amplify the values and beliefs of the organization. The sum of these decisions exercised by leadership will contribute or be detrimental to creating and influencing the organization's culture.

Jacoby (2022) published an article that detailed explosive allegations about the CSU and its recently appointed leader, Chancellor Dr. Joseph I. Castro. The report detailed SH complainants who came forward during Dr. Castro’s tenure as president of CSU, Fresno. The campus, located in the Central Valley, the agricultural heartland of California, had become an epicenter for allegations of multiple SH violations by one senior administrator on campus.

The complainants in these cases alleged Dr. Castro was not practicing the policies articulated in the systemwide sex discrimination, SH, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022b). The executive order, first released in 2014 and revised in 2020, 2021, and 2022, is a statement of the CSU's espoused values, beliefs, and norms articulated through its policies, protocols, and procedures. These policies are designed to prevent and mitigate SH and sexual misconduct on campus.

Unfortunately, Jacoby (2022) revealed severe, pervasive, and systemic issues at CSU Fresno in its handling of sexual misconduct cases under Dr. Castro's leadership. These issues included a six-figure settlement approved by the CSU board of trustees, an agreement to provide a letter of recommendation for future employment if the accused was seeking a job outside the CSU, and an achievement award for the alleged perpetrator. But more troubling, CSU Fresno only fully investigated one complaint of sexual misconduct out of at least 12 made against the same senior administrator. After the allegations were reported in national and local media, Dr. Castro resigned as CSU Chancellor two weeks later.

Leaders are responsible for creating and managing organizational culture (Schein, 1992). In hindsight, the policies as practiced, failure to mitigate on-campus SH, poor decision-making, and lack of transparency in communicating to stakeholders about the incidents of sexual misconduct were not aligned with the espoused values, beliefs, and norms of the organization. The damage is substantial- reputational damage, costly litigation, federal and state investigations, and distrust between students, staff, faculty, and administrative leaders.

The actions or inaction by former Chancellor Dr. Joseph Castro and other CSU senior leaders may conflict with the organizational culture outlined in Executive Order 1095-1098 (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022b). Any misalignment between values/beliefs and actions taken by campus leaders should be addressed. Realignment can allow CSU leaders to turn this crisis into a moment. CSU leaders can use this moment to recommit to the values, beliefs, and norms codified in Executive Order 1095-1098. CSU leaders' recommendation to prevent and mitigate SH on-campus can strengthen organizational culture by turning leadership's words into action on every CSU campus.

Assessing Cultural Strength

Uniformity is an expectation within an organization's culture; members at various levels should describe the culture similarly. Most members typically express the more dominant culture in an organization as its core value. Less dominant subcultures may develop in larger institutions, reflecting the common experiences of a subset of members. Robbins and Judge (2017) posited that strong and weak organizational cultures can be differentiated. The organization's core values are intensely believed and widely shared in a dominant, strong culture. The greater the commitment and acceptance of core values by its members, the stronger the culture is in an organization. This high degree of acceptance is associated with creating a climate of high behavioral control among organization members. Additionally, a strong culture can create predictability, consistency, and continuity.

Smart and St. John (1996) asserted that the "strong" culture hypothesis has reached consensus in the work of researchers (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Saffold (1988) posited that for culture to contribute to increased performance levels, it must be strong and include characteristics that embrace certain values, beliefs, and shared behavior patterns. A strong culture demands more than just a system of shared meaning. The values and beliefs associated with an organization's culture must be backed by its policies, procedures, and practices.

The alignment of the espoused values and belief systems and actual practices is a catalyst for developing a strong culture, which empirical evidence states is a determinant of organizational performance (Smart & St. John, 1996). Smart and St. John (1996) asserted that this alignment between espoused values, beliefs, and practices is the defining characteristic of a

strong culture. This is due to the strong culture's mediating factor as a facilitating mechanism that assists in developing consensus, information dissemination, and coordination of activities.

Culture Matters

Culture is imperative in assessing organizational performance improvement efforts (Smart & St. John, 1996). Culture also has a boundary-defining role, creating important nuances between organizations. Additionally, culture supports the identity development of members while facilitating commitment to organizational goals versus self-interest.

A strong, durable culture can foster organizational stability, shaping members' attitudes and behaviors (Smart & St. John, 1996). The stability created by culture is imperative in an environment where decentralization of organizations is an emerging business model for many leaders. Culture defines the rules of the game for an organization and its members. The trend of decentralized institutions underscores the importance of culture but also makes establishing a strong culture more challenging. According to Robbins and Judge (2017), the shared meaning of culture can strengthen an organization when formal authority and control systems are diluted. The shared meaning promulgated by culture can point everyone in the same direction, while institutional members organized in decentralized teams may show greater allegiance to the values of their team more than the institution itself.

The centrality of organizational culture in contemporary research on organizational performance results from its capacity to solve basic problems (Schein, 1992). Per Schein (1992), this includes "(a) organizational survival in and adaptation to the external environment, and (b) integration of internal processes to ensure the capacity to continue to survive and adapt" (p. 50). In response to federal, state, and local laws enacted since 2011, university administrators such as the CSUs have implemented broad policies and procedures to adapt to the external environment.

Next, the leadership moved to integrate internal processes that ensure the organization's viability. This study investigated if these broad policies and procedures exemplify CSU culture and have permeated the institutions as reflected in students' attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills (competencies).

In addition, Schein (1992) asserted there are significant and serious implications for college administrators if espoused cultural values do not align with management practices. According to Schein, administrators should align between expansive statements that reflect general campus ideologies and specific aspects of their campuses' organizational structure and management practices if they are to earn the benefits accruing from their primary culture type. Evidence shows that institutional effectiveness for colleges and universities is linked to their culture. This suggests management of culture is imperative for higher education leaders.

Derived from multiple disciplines such as sociology and anthropology, studying organizational culture, particularly in higher education settings, is complex (Gaus et al., 2017). There is a multiplicity of perspectives on organizational culture within the research community. Martin's (2002) ideational and Cameron and Ettington's (1989) functionalist and mental program, as described by Hofstede (1980), are frameworks utilized in the past to examine organizational culture.

Martin (2002) conceptually defined ideation as a connection to the cognitive aspects of a culture. Cameron and Ettington's (1989) functionalist perspective describes culture as it exists in the minds of group members. In functionalism, the organization embodies its culture, which can be changed or manipulated by researcher-based data versus data derived from native viewpoints. Hofstede (1980) described culture as a mental program whereby constructs regulate an organization's attitudes, behaviors, and actions. All three perspectives relate to the symbolic

meaning members of a group or institution adhere to. This cultural lens supports investigating shared beliefs, values, systems, and norms revealed in institutional members' everyday actions and behaviors (Gaus et al., 2017).

Cultural Competence and Cultural Competency Agenda

Cultural competence is a developmental process that includes a set of behaviors, attitudes, and policies applied in a system, organization, or agency that enables effective work with an individual or community. Cultural competency involves interacting and working with individuals (Kruse et al., 2017). Additionally, it includes an ability to negotiate cross-cultural differences to accomplish goals successfully and at the organizational level, reducing inequities in retention, service delivery, health risk, and legal liability.

Kruse et al. (2017) asserted two distinct methods of time utilization when learning to support cultural competency. First, time is allotted for traditional meetings and events where faculty and other professionals participate in training and conferences, resulting in discussions, planning, knowledge acquisition, and agenda-setting. Administrators can develop new understandings of complex constructs and ideas by focusing on knowledge development academics. Time must be set aside to interact with colleagues and challenge the appropriateness of new knowledge, former ideas, and beliefs (Zhu & Engels, 2014). The second-best use of time in support of cultural competence encompasses interpersonal learning for stakeholders. Faculty and staff must be allotted time to learn new ideas, process, and reflect upon the learning (Hurtado, 2001; Kruse et al., 2017).

Cultural competence alone is inadequate to support sustained and successful efforts. Kruse et al. (2017) called for a cultural competency agenda (CCA) to operationalize a shift within organizational culture. The literature has identified six necessary conditions to implement

a cultural competency agenda. The conditions are derived from research literature focusing on higher education and organizational studies, which are a time to meet, learn, and process new learning. Zhu and Engels (2014) included time to monitor, evaluate, and refine processes and practices across the campus. A cultural competence agenda requires a communication structure that supports the work, a climate of trust and openness to improvement and learning, supportive leadership, and access to expertise to support organizational learning. When implementing a CCA, time spent in knowledge acquisition is key to broad acceptance and understanding of the values and goals.

Kruse et al. (2017) posited none of these traits are mutually reinforcing. One individual trait cannot ensure positive outcomes; rather, as each trait increases effectiveness, the whole becomes stronger. Organizations like individuals need time to learn and process this learning; the institution as a collective needs time to revisit and evaluate. Colleges and universities can benefit from a CCA. Successful organizational change only occurs when existing norms are challenged and reimagined in a comprehensive policy that includes new practices and procedures (Feldman, 2000; Lozano, 2014; Spillane, 2012).

Creating an environment that fosters cultural competency and a cultural competency agenda requires exchanging ideas within and across the institution. Leaders must stress the importance of getting the work done right. Revisiting, evaluating, and refining the CCA supports course corrections and expansion with additional voices allowed to contribute. According to Kruse et al. (2017), the success of a CCA is based on the collective attainment of intellectual and practical knowledge and skills. Practices without empirical support will likely be received with lukewarm acceptance or, worse, normalize unfair practices and fortify barriers. Supportive

leaders are necessary to stimulate the commitment of faculty and staff by amplifying a climate for Individual and organizational learning.

IHE faces significant barriers and constraints in implementing mandated programs to prevent and mitigate SH/violence. Kruse et al. (2017) suggested that organizational culture is created through social interactions in the workplace and influenced by how meaning is developed within those settings. Therefore, from a leadership standpoint, it is vital to understand and interpret the general signs of an organization's culture. Importantly, focusing on cultural competency can impact the organizational atmosphere in a manner that challenges and possibly changes less effective practices.

Sexual Harassment

SH is pervasive in the U.S. It harms students, faculty, and staff across colleges and universities (NASEM, 2018). SH typically consists of activities from one of three categories. Gender harassment is associated with verbal or non-verbal objectification, hostility based on an individual's gender, statements, or remarks that are objectively offensive, usually under the guise of crude jokes. Next, unwanted sexual attention. This includes unwelcome sexual advances and sexual coercion (NASEM, 2018).

In a nationwide study, Cantor et al. (2015) found the two most common types of SH students experienced were offensive jokes or remarks and unwelcome comments about their appearance, sexual activity, or bodies. NASEM (2018) reported the wide-ranging impact on the emotional and physical lives of students, faculty, and staff at IHE. Rosenthal et al. (2016) reported SH disproportionately impacts women, women of color, and nonbinary students and employees.

Cantor et al. (2020) asserted that of the 42% of undergraduate and graduate students who reported SH, other students were most victimized. However, roughly 24% of female graduate students reporting SH identified staff or faculty as the perpetrator. Conversely, only 6% of undergraduate complainants reported a similar relationship dynamic with their harasser. SH is common in the American workplace and presents various organizational, legal, and fiscal challenges. As a result, leaders must be prepared to handle and mitigate SH claims (Ruhe & Allen, 1997). That task is easier said than done for many reasons, including but not limited to the social nature of these environments and increased romances in these spaces.

Higher rates of SH have been found consistently at IHE. These studies include students, faculty, and staff (Cantor et al., 2015; Cantor et al., 2020; NASEM, 2018). These studies reveal that academia's hierarchical, highly structured, and diffused power setting makes oversight of SH challenging. In higher education, for example, senior managers may have the power to make decisions on advancement with little guidance or restrictions (Settles et al., 2006). A meta-analysis study of women in higher education discovered that 58% of women faculty or staff had experienced SH in the workplace (Ilies et al., 2003). Women in the sciences have consistently been found to experience SH as an impediment to advancement in their chosen profession and, therefore, suffer significant attrition rates among women faculty (Glomb et al., 1997; Settles et al., 2006).

Cantor et al. (2020) discovered that of 41% of students who reported sexual misconduct, 19% believed their experience disrupted their academic progress, limited opportunities to participate in educational activities, and fostered an openly hostile environment. Most harassers were identified as male by participants in the study. SH by faculty or instructors reported by students were second in frequency. Women graduate students were likelier than their

undergraduate peers to experience SH from a faculty member, while women undergraduate students were likelier to experience SH overall.

Men largely commit sexual misconduct at IHE. Rosenthal et al. (2016) asserted that 86% of female students and 64% of male students revealed the harasser in their case was a man working as a faculty or staff. Cantalupo and Kidder (2019) posited males who commit harassment on campuses are more times than not serial harassers. These perpetrators typically move from campus to campus after facing an accusation, disciplinary action, or termination. The prevalence of SH experienced by women students by their male peers indicates an urgency for targeted primary evidence-based prevention and intervention programs.

There are a wide range of negative consequences for students who experience sexual misconduct in the university setting. Willness et al. (2007), in a meta-analysis of 41 studies investigating SH, revealed extensive detrimental impacts on the health and well-being of students. The researchers found a significant relationship between SH experiences, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), and other detrimental mental health issues.

Larsen and Fitzgerald (2011) found a correlation between the frequency of SH and PTSD symptoms among participants in their study. SH has also been shown to increase depression rates, alcohol use, and anxiety among those with these experiences compared to those who have not (Chan et al., 2008; Rosenthal et al., 2016). Furthermore, SH also has a statistically significant but moderate effect on physical symptoms of distress and a small negative impact on overall life satisfaction (Willness et al., 2007).

The most common type of SH is peer-to-peer (Brewer et al., 2022; Cantor et al., 2020). In addition, Willness et al. (2007) found that SH impacts satisfaction with the institution. These experiences can also have a significant impact on work relations with colleagues. McLaughlin et

al. (2017) believed these strained relationships are because women who experience multiple incidents of SH often leave the organization. Survivors of SH faced significant economic hardship versus peers who did not experience the same harassment. Thus, it was concluded SH is one of the most persistent and pervasive barriers to success within an organization for women (McLaughlin et al., 2017).

Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate Beliefs and Attitudes Toward SH & SV

Understanding the challenge of SH and SV violence at colleges and universities requires exploring educational and organizational culture constructs that strengthen or weaken support that mitigates institutional and students' ability to respond. Identifying detrimental beliefs and attitudes of student populations regarding SH and SV is imperative to addressing barriers and improving institutional response. Attitudes toward women, status differentials (i.e., Undergraduate_Graduate), gender differences, orientation (i.e., individualist vs. collectivist), local climate (i.e., attitudes supporting or opposing SH), and general attitudes toward punishment are key characteristics or traits of a population that policymakers need to co-opt when developing SH and SV policy at their campus (Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999).

Co-opting the local characteristics and traits of the population when appropriate may aid in adopting and integrating policies that mitigate SH and SV. These deleterious beliefs about SH and SV function to normalize a culture that informs how students and staff within the higher education context interpret and respond to incidents of sexual misconduct. Policy prescriptions to address SH and SV can only go so far. Assumptions, attitudes, and belief systems that promote and normalize a culture of violence must be challenged. These beliefs, values, and norms influence how SH and SV are both perceived and confronted by students.

Diamond-Welch et al. (2016) examined how university students' traits impacted bystander intervention attitudes in SA cases. The study found the dynamics of gender, age (i.e., older or younger), and race of students interact to affect violence myth acceptance, intention to intervene, bystander behaviors, empathy, and bystander efficacy. Rich et al. (2008) found a significant relationship between rape myth acceptance and the underreporting of SV by students. This is the basis for selecting the categorical variables Rural_Urban (i.e., community origin) and Undergraduate_Graduate (i.e., older /younger students).

Orchowski et al. (2020) addressed the relationship between psychological, physical, and sexual victimization and the role of sexual assertiveness in resisting sexual coercion among college students. Diamond-Welch et al. (2016) also considered the students' community of origin (i.e., rural or urban) and found that these characteristics alone made no difference in students' willingness to intervene. However, interesting patterns emerged when the community of origin was paired with specific traits. For example, rural younger-aged minority women had the lowest acceptance of rape myth acceptance while younger-aged urban White males had the highest rate of rape myth acceptance. In addition, community origin affected bystander behaviors among students. Younger-aged minorities from rural areas reported a willingness to intervene to stop SA more than their White and older-aged minorities from rural backgrounds.

Students Experiencing SH

Glomb et al. (1997) coined ambient SH in a study. The researchers found that individuals witnessing SH/SV directed at others (i.e., ambient SH) experience negative impacts in the workplace or other environments. In that study, organization members who observed others experiencing SH directed towards them expressed increased detrimental psychological distress

than other institutional members who had not witnessed the SH incident. In addition, those who experienced ambient SH reported decreased employment and overall satisfaction.

Like other forms of oppression, SH impacts marginalized groups in unique and different ways. In the U.S., African American women experience more sexual coercion, while White women experience more gender-based harassment, unwanted sexual attention, or both (Yoon et al., 2010). Sexual coercion has been linked to an increase in negative health and wellness outcomes for African American women versus other women (Willness et al., 2007). In the non-Hispanic White population, students reported more SH than Hispanic students, although both groups reported significant rates of harassment (Kearney & Gilbert, 2012).

SH can substantially impact student academic success on university and college campuses. Rosenthal et al. (2016) asserted sexual misconduct negatively impacts perceptions of faculty by students. This perception can often lead to students avoiding selecting certain courses available during a particular semester; at the same time, students who experience SH while pursuing medical-related degrees may change fields and coursework (Stratton et al., 2005).

In a nationwide study in the U.S., almost a quarter of transgender and non-binary (TGNB) identifying students reported physical, verbal, and SH while enrolled in vocational school, colleges, or universities, leading to lower retention, certification, and degree completion (James et al., 2016). There is a gap in the empirical research focusing on the experiences of marginalized groups such as Black, Indigenous, and People of Color (BIPOC) and TGNB on university and college campuses. More research is needed.

Tipping Point: The Impact of #MeToo Movement

In 2017, shockwaves were sent worldwide as the hashtag #MeToo went viral in under 24 hours. Individuals empowered through the power of community found the courage to come

forward with their experiences of SV (Farrow, 2017). Over 12 million in the first 24 hours and over 19 million in the first year. The U.S. and numerous other countries have been forced to consider the systemic issues perpetuating an uncultured abuse of power in society with a culture that establishes itself on the silence of people impacted.

The term #MeToo was coined in 2006 by Tarana Burke to signify unity and understanding of survival, as opposed to victimization, of SV and assault (Gupta et al., 2019; Jeffrey, 2018; Kearl et al., 2019), particularly against women (von Sikorski & Saumer, 2020). Tarana Burke's vision has inspired several other social awareness campaigns that illuminate SV hidden by systems of power and influence in famous cases like R. Kelly, Woody Allen, Roman Polanski, and Harvey Weinstein (Klement et al., 2019). The #MeToo movement has been inclining for over two decades but reached the tipping point in October 2017 (Farrow, 2017; Gupta et al., 2019; Johnson, 2019).

Farrow (2017) detailed stories of SV allegations from 13 separate women by then-prominent film producer and media mogul Harvey Weinstein. Soon after, the #MeToo movement went viral. This viral moment was facilitated through social media circulation of the unique hashtag identifier that categorized the massive amount of similar content, establishing a virtual footprint and global presence (Johnson, 2019; von Sikorski & Saumer, 2020).

The online presence and in-real-life protest ignited synergy for policy reforms- birthing a social justice movement to prevent SH and assault (Johnson, 2019; Kearl et al., 2019). Since his trial in 2020, Harvey Weinstein has been convicted of criminal SA in New York. In December 2022, a Los Angeles jury found Weinstein guilty of rape and sentenced him to 16 years in prison (BBC News, 2023). The #MeToo movement has spearheaded enacting laws, policies, and

sociocultural reform to prevent and mitigate SV at the interpersonal, organizational, and institutional levels (Johnson, 2019; Kite & Whitley, 2016).

Sexual Violence

SV is a significant public health problem among teens and college students globally and in the U.S. (Kettrey et al., 2019). SA is defined as unwanted sexual contact that includes oral sex, sexual touching, intercourse, anal sex, or penetration with a finger or object. Before college enrollment, 19% of women had experienced attempted or completed SV. Young women who are college age between 18 and 24 years old were found to be at high risk of victimization and perpetration (Voth Schrag, 2017). Subgroups of students, such as women of color and younger students, have been at an increased risk of victimization. Krebs et al. (2009), in their campus sexual assault study, estimated about 15.9% of women enrolled in college experienced attempted or completed SA. The California Study on Violence Experiences Across the Lifespan, the Center on Gender Equity and Health, and UC San Diego reported that one in seven adults in California experienced SV. According to the study, SV increased between 2020–2022, with more than 2.3 million women and 2.1 million men reporting SV 2022 alone (Raj et al., 2022).

According to Milton et al. (2018), the prevalence of SV in California is more than one in three adult women, while one in four adult men experience SV with physical contact during their lifetime, respectively. The interpersonal impact on the women and men victimized by SA is almost incalculable, and the financial toll is extensive. Miller et al. (2018) estimated the lifetime cost of SA is, on average, $122,461.00 per victim. On an annual basis, these costs negatively impact the welfare of Californians, contributing millions of dollars in health care, incarceration, and lost productivity liability.

Figure 2

SV Facts

Note. Adapted from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2022).

In IHE, the number of victims of SV reflects or exceeds that of the general population. Voth Schrag (2017) reported that 22% of college women have experienced domestic violence, while 20% have experienced attempted or completed SA. Emerging literature asserted even higher rates of DV and SA have been reported on individual college campuses, approaching 40% of students. Muehlenhard et al. (2017), in a systematic review of available data from studies utilizing large representative samples of undergraduate women, concluded the often cited one in five college women SA victimization rate was reasonably accurate. One contributing factor explored in the literature is the role of interpersonal discrimination in perpetuating SV.

Interpersonal Impact of SV

Interpersonal discrimination and bias are pervasive norms in SV cases on college campuses. According to Kite and Whitley (2016), interpersonal discrimination is an unfair treatment that happens on a personal level between individuals and can reinforce stereotypical beliefs, judgments about a group, or both. Additionally, prejudice at the individual level causes people to act as if their group is superior to others, advocating for the preservation of this perceived hierarchy between groups.

Rape myths and gender misconceptions continue to perpetuate negative and sometimes groundless societal stereotypes of femininity, virility, sexuality, and aggression toward women. The following rape myths often shift blame from perpetrators to victims and are the most common, according to Doherty and Anderson (2004),

- Women bring about rape by their behavior or appearance.
- Rape cannot be damaging because, after all, it is only sex.
- Real rape victims have signs of injury to prove it because a person cannot be raped against their will.
- Women frequently lie about rape due to being malevolent and deceiving.
- Actual rapists are psychopathologic individuals.

Rape myths are exemplary of longstanding barriers to communicating or reporting SV throughout history, preventing prompt disclosure of incidents by survivors (Doherty & Anderson, 2004). The #MeToo movement has influenced advancements in this area to include shifting the prevailing narrative from victim blaming, shaming, and silencing (Gómez & Gobin, 2020; Johnson, 2019; Klement et al., 2019) invoking those sexually abused to identify themselves on social media by typing #MeToo (Gómez & Gobin, 2020).

Famous cases like film producer Harvey Weinstein and musician Robert Kelly (R. Kelly) provide clear examples of survivors finding the courage to speak up and call for reforms through the community built and sustained by the #MeToo movement. Other examples can be found among SV survivors at colleges and universities across the U.S.. At Michigan State University, former doctor Larry Nassar sexually abused over 500 girls and women (Johnson, 2019). Penn State University's former football coach Jerry Sandusky was accused and convicted of 45 counts of sexual abuse and was sentenced to 30–60 years in prison (Cykosky, 2021). In 2021, the

University of Southern California reached a settlement of more than $1.1 billion with the more than 17,000 SA victims of former doctor George Tyndall. The literature often highlighted the role of organizations such as colleges and universities in mitigating and responding to SV on campus. Ultimately, the effectiveness of these efforts relies on the capacity or willingness of the organization to prioritize addressing SV.

Organizational Impact of SV

SV can significantly impact colleges and universities at the organizational level. Highly publicized instances of SV pose a substantial enterprise risk to a university's image, reputation, and appeal with prospective employees, students, faculty, staff, and donors. The liability risk resulting from on-campus SV can result in significant payouts to assault survivors. The complaints against colleges and universities can be submitted in civil court, the EEOC, the state or federal Office for Civil Rights, or (in California) the Department of Fair Labor and Housing. These state and federal regulatory bodies, such as the aforementioned, are responsible for ensuring that universities and other employers comply with federal and state laws that seek to prohibit sexual discrimination, including SV/harassment.

The #MeToo movement has shifted social norms, ideologies, communication, and perspectives about SV and assault on an individual, person-to-person level. Although the #MeToo movement reached its apex in 2018, sexual misconduct in the workplace is not a new concept. Office romances and SV are common occurrences in these organizations that present serious organizational, legal, and fiscal challenges. Leaders must be prepared to prevent and, when necessary, mitigate sexual misconduct claims within the organization. This task is easier said than done for many reasons, including but not limited to the social nature of the campus environment and the increase in workplace romances (Ruhe & Allen, 1997).

According to Johnson (2019), on the first anniversary "of #MeToo going viral, nearly 300 organizations aligned against SH and SV came together to call for strengthened protections against SH and SV at work and in schools, homes, and communities—demanding concrete advances in 20 states by 2020" (p. 3). In addition, to 20 states by 2020, the #MeToo movement has greatly expanded protections for students, staff, faculty, and other workers nationwide. Some of the accomplishments include but are not limited to (a) restricting nondisclosure agreements, (b) eliminating no-rehire provisions, (c) heightening transparency of harassment claims, (d) prohibiting forced arbitration agreements, (e) lengthening the "statute of limitations," (f) updating the "severe or pervasive" liability criteria, (g) illuminating loopholes for employer liability, (h) restoring the harm to victims of harassment, (i) mandating anti-harassment training, (j) right notices and policies, and (k) requiring surveys in the workplace related to climate (Johnson, 2019; Kearl et al, 2019).

For example, in California, SH training provisions were expanded. Since January 1, 2020, organizations must deliver mandatory training to every employee once every 2 years to organizations with five or more employees instead of just managers with over 50 employees. These local statutes apply to IHE in California. Additionally, the state passed regulations that authorize but do not mandate, employers, to provide bystander intervention training.

Institutional Impact of SV

The differences between types of institutions and student populations could be critical to our understanding of SV and DV on campus. The evolution of SH/SV into federal law and the development of other laws related to human rights and employment helped establish a governing body for employment practices. The EEOC was established to help leaders manage and implement anti-harassment expectations in the work environment. The EEOC was established in

1964 through Title VII of the Civil Rights Act and is responsible for enforcing federal employment discrimination laws (Mueller & Kleiner, 2001).

The EEOC aims to promote equality in employment through laws and policies enforcement, training, and procedural assistance (EEOC, n.d.). Moreover, the EEOC governs eight main laws, including those that explain SH. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 codifies sex discrimination but excludes SH until the late 70s (Gabel & Mansfield, 2005; Leskinen et al., 2011). Cases like *Barnes v. Costle* (1977) and *Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson* (1986) helped to broaden the designation of sex discrimination and set precedence in American courts about SH rulings (Gabel & Mansfield, 2005; Leskinen et al., 2011). *Barnes v. Costle* (1977) was the first case to categorize SH as sex discrimination under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In the Vinson case, for example, the Supreme Court decided on three specific issues:

1. Is SH considered sex discrimination?
2. Are employers liable for the misconduct of supervisors toward employees related to "offensive or hostile working environments" fueled by acts of sexual misconduct?
3. Are voluntary sexual relationships between employees and supervisors considered a violation of Title VII?

The court ruled that sexual harassment, which establishes a hostile or offensive atmosphere for one gender, is just as much an arbitrary obstacle to gender equality at work as racial harassment impedes racial equality. It is equally humiliating and unsettling to expect men and women to endure sexual mistreatment as a condition of employment as it is to confront severe racial slurs (Gabel & Mansfield, 2005). Again, this case helped to evolve the current legal stance on SH in the workplace and streamlined protection against SH for women. The courtroom

and legal definition of SH is unwelcome sexual conduct that is so severe or pervasive that it would alter the employment terms and conditions for a woman. In addition, the judge added another definition by offering that unwelcome sexual advances or requests for favors sexual in nature will create a hostile or offensive work atmosphere.

Hostile environment as a legal designation of SH is intentionally broad and specifies gender therein because SH in the workplace continues to develop, and women are disproportionately affected by it (Gabel & Mansfield, 2005; Leskinen et al., 2011). According to the EEOC, women are still disproportionately affected by practices of SH compared to men. Between 1992 and 2001, SH claims increased by 50%. Also, in 2011 the EEOC and Fair Employment Practices Agency (FEPA) received over 11,000 charges. Of those, only 16.3% were filed by men. Women are reporting SH more but still are the primary victims of SH in the workplace (Gabel & Mansfield, 2005).

Unfunded Mandates Overview

Emerging federal regulations require IHE to comply with mandated programs (Colestock, 2020). Similarly, states seeking to improve university accountability and compliance with federal mandates are implementing new regulations to address campus SAs (Brubaker & Mancini, 2017). Since founding the U.S. of America, policymakers, elected officials, courts, and scholars have argued for a balance between federal and state rights and obligations (Adler, 1997). Advocates for greater local control coined the phrase unfunded mandates, which generally refer to federal government funding requirements imposed on localities (Garrett, 1997).

Ross (2018) posited that an unfunded expenditure mandate occurs when local governments, organizations, and businesses are required to provide services and goods without accompanying revenue sources from a higher level of government. Zelinsky (1993) asserted,

"Few contemporary issues concern state and local policymakers as intensely as unfunded mandates" (p. 1356). State and local elected officials, including mayors, county executives, and city councilpersons, contend state and federal governments have imposed expensive requirements on municipalities, businesses, and other organizations without granting corresponding funds for compliance. These unfunded mandates have been derided as misguided and irresponsible. Local stakeholders asserted these unfunded mandates strain the budgets of municipalities, businesses, and organizations, curtailing their ability to maintain essential services and business functions (Zelinsky, 1993).

Adler (1997) stated that unfunded federal mandates represent a significant challenge to federal obligations imposed on businesses and localities without necessary economic support, therefore improperly infringing on local organizational control. Complaints by businesses, colleges, universities, and local leaders have catalyzed many proposals to restrain unfunded mandates. The proposals include the obligation to disclose proposed mandates, projected costs, supermajorities requirements for legislative action, and statutory and constitutional reimbursement arrangements for state-imposed obligations on local governments (Adler, 1997). The debate about unfunded mandates has traditionally drawn upon two issues from anti-mandate advocates. One argument is that unfunded mandates amount to hidden taxation, and two, they violate the tenth amendment to the constitution of the U.S. During a State of the Union speech in 1992, President George H. W. Bush identified unfunded mandates as a serious concern that should be addressed. However, despite the near-universal condemnation of the practice, unfunded mandates persist (Zelinsky, 1993).

Researchers contended that the unfunded mandate phenomenon is a structural challenge to local government-organizational control because it is a form of hidden taxation imposed by

opportunistic legislators (Adler,1997; Garrett, 1997; Zelinsky, 1993). In addition, unfinanced mandates may require a constitutional response at the state and federal levels. Brubaker and Mancini (2017) reported the state of Virginia recently implemented a controversial unfunded mandated reporting law and other initiatives across higher education institutions.

Assessing the impact of unfunded mandates is a linchpin in understanding the paradigm by which the federal government has attempted to address SH and SV at IHE in the U.S. Colestock (2020) reported that complying with federal regulations and participating in mandated compliance are complex processes requiring cooperation across numerous departments. Despite their importance to state and local policymakers, Zelinsky (1993) asserted unfunded mandates have received little attention from scholars who study public finance and municipal government. Ross (2018) reported little has changed and posited no significant empirical studies are providing causal evidence on the budgetary or fiscal influence of unfunded expenditure mandates at the federal level.

In Florida, a study cited by Ross (2018) utilizing a synthetic control method found Amendment 3, which sought to limit unfunded state mandates, resulted in a decrease in intergovernmental revenue of 10% to local municipalities. The study suggests that municipalities protected by Amendment 3 were likely targeted special districts, which ultimately served to interrupt or fragment local public service delivery. Fragmented local public service delivery identified in the Florida Amendment 3 study exemplifies the challenges colleges and universities experience in delivering campus public safety programs. As previously stated, federal mandates are complex. Brubaker and Mancini (2017) contended policies to address campus sexual misconduct remain an empirical ‘black box,’ and campus personnel, although largely supportive of these mandates, remain concerned.

The following federal, state, and local statutes, policies, and procedures, discussed next, all require institutions to mitigate SH/SV. The mandates also have the distinction of being unfunded by the federal, state, or local authorities that imposed them, impacting the efficacy of implementing these laws at colleges and universities.

Federal Law (1972-2018)

Colleges and universities in the U.S. are highly regulated institutions with complex compliance obligations to local, state, and federal authorities. Most universities must comply with laws such as the Clery Act, VAWA, and Title IX as a Title IV federally funded financial aid institution. Under these federal laws, also known as unfunded federal mandates, 4-year IHE must prevent, mitigate, and report SH/SV and misconduct cases at their institution or receive financial penalties.

Civil Rights Act (1964) Title VI & VII

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is monumental legislation resulting from decades of struggle for equality under the law by Black Americans in the U.S. Title VI, and VII of the landmark Act prohibits discrimination due to sex, race, color, religion, and national origin by employers (Feldblum & Lipnic, 2016). In 1965, the EEOC, a regulatory agency, was created to ensure that protected classes were protected from discrimination and harassment by employers. SCOTUS issued a ruling insisting Title VII prohibits sex (male or female) discrimination, including sexual orientation and gender identity in the workplace (*Bostock v. Clayton County*, 2020). Although Title VII covers nondiscrimination by employers, the statute was limited to covering only the workplace. Educational institutions such as colleges and universities did not protect employees based on sex from discrimination. Title VI did enact a prohibition on discrimination at educational institutions because of race, color, and national origin. In 1984,

SCOTUS clarified that SH is included in discrimination based on sex. Sex is a protected class under Title VII (*Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson*, 1986).

Title IX Act (1972)

Title IX states, "No person in the U.S. shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Advocates for Youth, 2017, p. 1). According to Advocates for Youth (2017), Title IX prohibits discrimination based on sex in educational institutions that receive federal funding. Private K-12 schools, colleges, and universities must adhere to the legislation, which mandates that school administrators are required to respond to and remedy hostile educational environments. If a school administrator fails to address sex discrimination on their campuses, they risk losing federal funding. The legislation also covers gender equity in school programs such as sports.

In 1972, the U.S. Congress adopted Title IX legislation under the educational amendments. The amendment stated students must have equal access to education and related opportunities, regardless of sex. Title IX is generally associated with equity for girls and women in intercollegiate athletics (Anderson et al., 1998). Since 1972, the amendment has ensured equal access to sports teams, scholarships, equipment, and facilities. Lhamon and Gupta (2016) pointed to the significance of Title IX, including the expansion of protections for sexual orientation and gender identity, which was asserted by guidance documents published by the U.S. Department of Education in 2016. Under the Trump administration in 2019, Title IX regulations were significantly curtailed, including the definition and scope of SH. Thus, *SH* was now redefined as conduct that is severe, pervasive, and objectively offensive (U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, 2022). Further limitations were placed on how universities could respond

to accusations of sexual misconduct. In addition, all educational programs must include the new definition for SH and the limitations placed on higher education institutions.

Clery Act (1990)

In 1986, Jeanne Clery was a 19-year-old student at Lehigh University when she was brutally raped and murdered in her dormitory housing. Her parents, Howard and Constance Clery, later learned that standards for campus crime reporting did not exist then. After several years of lobbying, in 1990, the original bill, Crime Awareness, and Campus Security Act was passed; the bill was later renamed in the 1998 amendment, the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (Van Vliet, 2020).

Known simply as the Clery Act, the bill is a "consumer protection law that aims to provide transparency around campus crime policy by requiring institutions of higher education that participate in federal financial aid programs to release crime statistics related to an array of criminal activities" (Van Vliet, 2020, p. 2). The bill mandates all colleges and universities receiving Title IV funding report criminal statistics. This report includes crimes such as SA, domestic violence, and DV, stalking, drug and alcohol violations (Terman, 2022).

VAWA (1994)

Originally passed and signed into law in 1994 and signed by President Bill Clinton in 2013, the VAWA was reauthorized and signed into law by President Barack Obama, thereby amending the Clery Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). VAWA requires colleges and universities to provide evidence-based primary SV prevention programs and state their adjudication and disciplinary procedural outcomes for accusers (complainants) and accused (respondents). These programs and policies must be reported in every college campus's annual security report (ASR) and made available annually on October 1 (Terman, 2022).

Since its passage in 1994, VAWA has been expanded significantly. Its protections now extend to lesbian, gay, and transgender individuals, Native Americans, and immigrants. The Act also includes protections for male victims of SV. Noncompliance with the Act can put colleges and universities at risk of losing Title IV financial aid funding.

Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act

When the VAWA of 2013 was passed, it included the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act (SaVE Act). The SaVE Act amended the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act (commonly called the Clery Act) and requires most U.S. colleges and universities to make campus security-related data available as follows.

- Adding statistics covering domestic violence, DV, and stalking to crimes the institution must report in their ASR.
- Expands reportable “hate crimes” to include bias against national origin and gender identity.
- ASR's required policy statement must include institutional procedures for domestic violence, DV, or stalking cases and information about its evidence-based education and prevention programs (EduRisk, 2014).

The 2011 “Dear Colleague” letter (DCL) issued by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, which addresses Title IX compliance, is, in part, codified into the Campus SaVE Act. The SaVE Act for example, mandates the DCL requirement for a prompt and impartial investigation. SV victims must be informed of their right to file internal and criminal complaints, and institutions must specify what procedural and evidentiary standards they will utilize.

In conclusion, the Campus SaVE requires colleges and universities to expand their crime reporting obligations. More importantly, the SaVE Act mandates institutions implement detailed procedures, policies, and evidence-based SV and intimate partner violence prevention training. The SaVE Act is detailed, prescriptive, and cumbersome, which can create additional barriers for institutions attempting to meet compliance requirements (EduRisk, 2014).

The Donahoe Higher Education Act (University of California, n.d.) is the California Master Plan for Higher Education. The act was approved by the regents and the state board of education (the previous governing body for the CCC and CSU) and then submitted to the state legislature. The Donahoe Higher Education Act is vested with authority Title 3, Division 5, Part 40, of the state of California Education Code Section 66000.

The bill's namesake was Assemblywoman Dorothy Donahoe, chair of the Assembly Education Committee. Assemblywoman Donahoe authored ACR 88, the initial resolution, and had been instrumental in the negotiations leading to the bill's adoption. She passed away weeks before final passage, so the legislature named the bill in her honor. A key feature of the Donohoe Higher Education Act is delineating the functions and responsibilities each higher education segment includes in its mission statements (University of California Office of the President [UCOP], 2010).

The UC was designated as the primary state-sponsored academic agency for research. The State College System (now CSU) was designated primarily for undergraduate and graduate students in liberal arts, science, applied fields, and the professions, including teaching and nursing. The Public Junior College System (now called the CCC) is part of the public school system and is authorized to offer instruction through Grade 14. Instruction at CCC may include college courses for transfer to 4-year institutions, vocational and technical fields leading to

employment, and general or liberal arts courses leading to an associate in arts and science degrees (Senate Bill 33, 1960).

Kristen Smart Act

The Kristin Smart Safety Act (the Act) was enacted on August 19, 1998, in response to the disappearance of Kristin Smart, a Cal Poly San Luis Obispo student, who remains missing. The Act proposed to remedy the alleged failed investigative efforts by campus police and the lack of coordination between campus police and local law enforcement following Ms. Smart's disappearance. The Act became effective January 1, 1999, and requires publicly funded educational institutions to do the following.

- Compile reports of occurrences and arrests for crimes occurring on campus that involve violence, hate violence, theft, destruction of property, illegal drugs, or alcohol intoxication committed on campus.
- Have agreements with local law enforcement clarifying operational responsibilities for investigations of Part 1 violent crimes occurring on campus, including the specific geographical boundaries of each agency's operational responsibilities.
- Adopt and implement policies for procedures and protocols for students and employees who are victims of SA.
- Provide educational and preventive information relating to SV to every student as part of campus orientation, including posting such information online.

Senate Bill (SB) 967 & Assembly Bill (AB) 1433

In 2015, the California attorney general's office issued an information bulletin regarding two recent amendments to the Kristen Smart Act. Senate Bill (SB) 967, known as the Affirmative

Consent law, became effective January 1st. Assembly Bill (AB) 1433 became effective and required compliance by July 2015.

- SB 967: Affirmative Consent.
- SB 967: This added section 67386 to the California Education Code. That section requires (a) the establishment of the affirmative consent standard in determining whether consent has been given by both parties to sexual activity and (b) the adoption and implementation of policies related to SA, domestic violence, DV, and stalking.
- AB 1433: Reporting of sexual and hate violence. AB 1433 amends the California Education Code section 67380 related to reporting requirements and adds section 67383, which imposes a reporting requirement to appropriate law enforcement.

Section 67380 of the Education Code requires California universities to compile records of all occurrences and arrests of crimes on campus involving violence, hate violence, theft, destruction of property, illegal drugs, or alcohol intoxication that are reported to campus police5 as well as all occurrences of noncriminal acts of hate violence found at Education Code § 67380(a)(1)-(2). In addition, appropriate officials at each campus are required to report hate violence-related information to the CSU board of trustees, the University of California Regents, and the CCC, which is in turn compiled and forwarded to the appropriate state agency every January 1st and made available to the public found under Education Code § 67380(a)(5). While AB 1433 leaves the reporting requirements of section 67380 intact, it adds the following requirements.

- This bill requires colleges and universities in California to transmit their January 1st report, which compiles all campus reports, to the legislative analyst's office and

requires campuses to make their respective reports available to the public by posting them on their respective websites.

- It requires any report made by a victim or employee of a Part 1 violent crime. SA or hate crimes received by practice are reported to the local law enforcement agency with which the university has a written agreement.

AB 1433 also adds Section 67383. Section 67383 required California colleges and universities to adopt and implement policies and procedures by July 1, 2015, to ensure that any report of Part 1 violent crime, SA, or hate crime occurring on an on-campus or non-campus location that is received by a campus security authority and made by the victim for purposes of notifying post-secondary institutions or law enforcement be immediately, or soon as practicable, reported to the appropriate law enforcement agency. The disclosure to the appropriate and local law enforcement agencies must be made without disclosing the victim or assailant's identifying information unless the victim consents to such disclosure after being informed of his/her right to have such information withheld.

CSU Executive Orders

In 2013, the CSU, its Office of General Counsel, and other university stakeholders, in response to the passage of significant federal, state, and local statutes, began a process to revise its policies and procedures to address and mitigate sexual misconduct on its 23 college campuses located within the state. Executive Orders (EO) 1095-1098 resulted from this massive effort. The introduction of these executive orders reads as follows:

> The CSU is committed to maintaining an inclusive community that values diversity and fosters tolerance and mutual respect. We embrace and encourage our community differences in Age, Disability (physical and mental), Gender (or sex), Gender Identity

> (including transgender), Gender Expression, Genetic Information, Marital Status, Medical Condition, Nationality, Race or Ethnicity (including color or ancestry), Religion (or Religious Creed), Sexual Orientation, and Veteran or Military Status, and other characteristics that make our community unique. All individuals have the right to participate fully in CSU programs and activities free from Discrimination, Harassment, and Retaliation. The CSU prohibits Harassment of any kind, including SH, as well as Sexual Misconduct, Dating and Domestic Violence, and Stalking. Such misconduct violates University policy and may also violate state or federal law. All sexual activity between members of the CSU community must be based on Affirmative Consent. Engaging in any sexual activity without first obtaining Affirmative Consent to the specific sexual activity is Sexual Misconduct. It constitutes a violation of this policy, whether the sexual activity violates any civil or criminal law. (Evans et al., 2023, para 1-2)

This is the preamble and introduction to Executive Order 1097, one of four policy documents (Evans et al., 2023). These policies enshrine the CSU's response to applicable federal, state, and local laws, including procedures related to sexual discrimination. Sexual discrimination includes GBV, such as SH, sexual misconduct, dating and DV, and stalking (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022b).

Each EO covers specific employee, student, and third-party policies and procedures. For example, Executive Order 1095 addresses discrimination, harassment, retaliation, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking against employees and third parties. Executive Order 1096 prohibits discrimination, harassment, retaliation, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking against employees and third parties, including

procedures for addressing complaints by employees and third parties (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022a).

EO 1097 is a policy for students prohibiting discrimination, harassment and retaliation, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking, and it addresses student complaints (Freedman & Alvarez, 2022). Finally, EO 1098 focuses on student conduct procedures (Evans et al., 2023). This policy includes the process for sanctioning students found responsible for violations of EO 1095 or EO 1096.

According to (Evans et al., 2023), these policies were developed in compliance with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the California Equity in Higher Education Act, and the VAWA of 2013. This statute amended the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security and Campus Crime Statistics, known as the Clery Act of 1990. Both the Clery Act and VAWA are part of the Campus SaVE Act found under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Title II of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990, and the Age Discrimination Act of 1973.

Evidenced-Based Intervention Programs

To respond promptly and effectively to all complaints of discrimination, harassment, retaliation, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking, the CSU asserted it would take the applicable action to thwart, correct, and regulate conduct that would violate their policies (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022a). The policies, as written, are intended to safeguard the rights and the privacy of both people, the one who has complained and the one who has responded to that complaint and any other person involved.

EBP programs are empirically backed strategies for responding promptly and effectively to issues such as SH/SV at colleges and universities. These programs are typically primary

prevention initiatives conventionally supported by evidence acquired through randomized controlled trials to determine best practices (Jaramillo et al., 2023). Implementing EBP programs into any environment is a complex process for organizations.

Operationalizing EBPs involves balancing resources, obligations, and pressures within the implementing organization. For example, organizational culture, leadership support and scope of work are all organizational processes that can affect the efficacy of any evidence-based intervention or program. Each intervention is assessed for effectiveness, value, and outcomes (Anderson et al., 1998; Jaramillo et al., 2023). The goal for IHE is to mitigate SH/SV by increasing harm reduction techniques that address healthy sexuality, communication, mutually respectful partnerships, and safe bystander intervention while fostering positive changes in behaviors and social norms on campus.

Bystander intervention provides safe options for anyone, including students or staff members, to intervene when there is a risk of sexual misconduct, dating, or domestic violence (Jaramillo et al., 2023; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Bystander intervention education may include recognizing potential harm, understanding the cycle of violence, overcoming institutional structures and cultural barriers that facilitate harm, identifying effective intervention techniques, and acting when intervention is deemed safe and necessary (Kettrey et al., 2019). EBP that seeks to increase awareness at a college or university may include audience-specific programming, initiatives, and strategies that increase audience knowledge, identify resources, and share information to prevent violence, reduce perpetration, and promote a culture of accountability, care, and safety.

In a qualitative study assessing the benefits of implementing EBP, Jaramillo et al. (2023) contended organizational leaders believed that proficiency in such programs was desirable to

increase competitiveness in child welfare. Another was the opportunity to harness the efforts of community stakeholders to seek solutions, document successes, and procure additional funding resources and contracts. The researchers found that system and organizational leaders that implemented the EBP as more than just a mandate, but an opportunity were perceived by local administrators as espousing a shift in organizational culture.

Administrators who had leaders who championed the implementation of the EBP reported that "they had benefited from their leaders actively encouraging the intervention and providing support throughout all phases of implementation" (Jaramillo et al., 2023, p. 4). According to the CSU, each campus must implement an EBP program. These programs should promote awareness of CSU policies against SH/SV, dating, and domestic violence (domestic violence and stalking. Resources for students, faculty, and staff impacted by SV, domestic violence, and stalking include comprehensive victim services (CSU, 2015).

The programs must be available and mandatory for new students (freshmen or transfer) and new employees. All students, student-athletes, fraternity and sorority members, and coaches must receive an annual refresher course. Students who serve as resident Advisors must complete the program twice annually, and staff members consistent with their on-campus role must complete it annually. Violations of this policy could result in registration holds for students and other disciplinary measures for faculty and staff (CSU, 2015).

Competency-Based Framework

According to Bakhtin, as cited by Marsh and Castner (2017), competencies are social constructs rooted in history and politics that shift over time. Voorhees (2001) added that competencies are the knowledge, skills, abilities, and personal characteristics that help distinguish superior performance. A competency-based framework is built on the assertion that

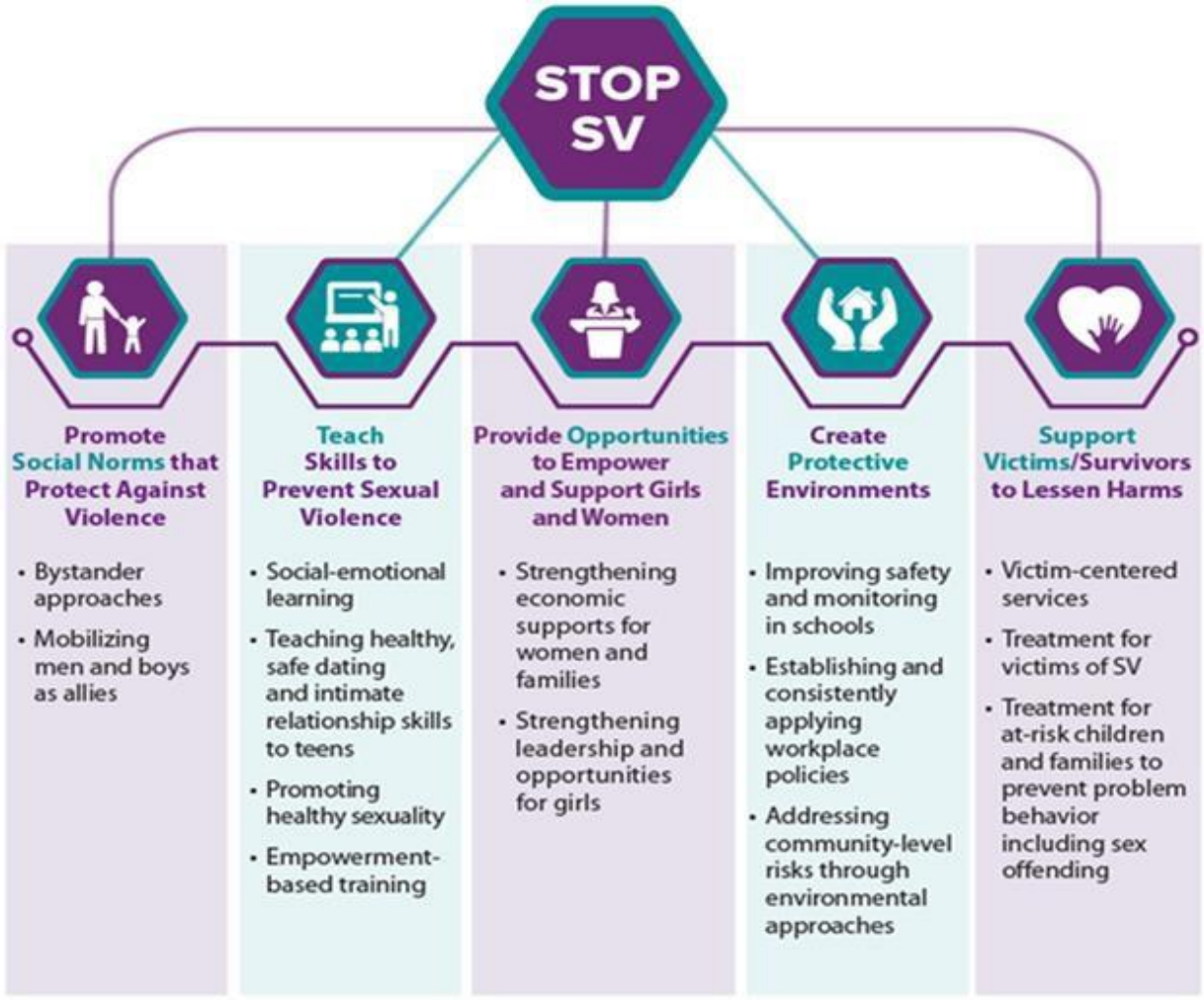
all students can achieve a skill (Franklin & Melville, 2015). The framework consists of three main parts (Jácome, 2016).

First, a basic competency highlights the knowledge or skills students must learn. Typically, the knowledge or skills gained by a student expresses mastery of a competency level. Second, learning outcomes based on the new knowledge or skills gained allow students to demonstrate because of this learning. Third, a competency-based framework provides a series of indicators that signal the adaptation, integration, and adoption of a particular concept or skill (Jácome, 2016).

Learning can be assessed by observing and describing each student's ability to perform tasks (Adelman, 1988; van der Vleuten & Schuwirth, 2019). Associated indicators define every proposed learning outcome. In addition, these indicators are operationalized into action to allow students to demonstrate their competence readily. The process includes observing students performing the task or not. When a student can perform the task, the trainer or facilitator knows the student is ready to move on to the next stage of learning. If the student cannot perform the task, further practice with the concept or skill is needed to obtain proficiency. The competency-based framework is the basis for the mandated EBP programs delivered under the CSU policy to prevent SH/SV. The next section discusses the relationship between training and student competencies. This includes student attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills. Figure 3 outlines an evidence-based SH/SV prevention program that addresses competencies such as awareness (promotion), knowledge (prevention), behavior (social-emotional learning), and skills (bystander intervention) to stop SV (CDC, 2022).

Figure 3

Preventing SV Facts



Note. Adapted from CDC (2022).

The CSU primary prevention program exemplifies the current best practices based on the available data in the literature review. The following summarized the curriculum that improves student competencies (awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills) to address SH/SV.

- Statements that the CSU prohibits sex discrimination, SH, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking.
- What constitutes sex discrimination, SH, sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking?

- The definition of affirmative consent.
- A statement that sexual misconduct, dating, domestic violence, and stalking violate university policy and may also violate criminal law.
- Common facts and myths about the causes of sexual misconduct.
- An individual may take safe and positive options for bystander intervention to prevent harm or intervene in risky situations involving these offenses.
- Methods of encouraging peer support for victims.
- Information regarding campus, criminal, and civil consequences of committing acts of sexual misconduct, dating and domestic violence, and stalking.
- A statement explaining that the university's primary concern is the safety of members of the campus community, that the use of alcohol or drugs never makes the victim at fault for sexual misconduct, that students or employees who experience or witness sexual misconduct should not be deterred from reporting incidents out of a concern that they might be disciplined for related violations of drug, alcohol, or other university policies; and that students or employees who experience or witness sexual misconduct shall not be subject to discipline for related violations of conduct policies at or near the time of the misconduct unless the violation is egregious (including actions that place the health or safety of any other person at risk or involves plagiarism, cheating, or academic dishonesty).
- A statement that CSU policy prohibits retaliation against a person who reports sex discrimination, sexual harassment, sexual misconduct, dating or domestic violence, or stalking; assists someone with a report of such conduct; or participates in any manner in a related investigation or resolution. Retaliation includes threats, intimidation,

reprisals, and/or adverse actions related to employment or education (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022a).

Training Impact on Competencies

The impact of evidence-based primary prevention on student competencies (i.e., attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills) is difficult to answer. Roehling and Huang (2015) suggested the most pressing issue in this area of research is the lack of efficacy standards. Three types of measurable outcomes have emerged in the literature. One is knowledge about SH, which includes identifying behaviors that exemplify SH. Second, attitudes are measured. This competency includes a student's belief in myths about SH and SV. Finally, the measured outcome is the prevalence or incident rate of sexual misconduct in an organization.

Online Training

According to CSU policy, students, faculty, and staff must participate in mandatory SH/SV training annually (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022b). Most of these trainings are available through online training programs. These training programs are the most utilized modules for student and employee compliance (Feldblum & Lipnic, 2016). Online and in-person training addressing sexual misconduct, in recent years, have become the most utilized strategy to reduce liability for colleges and universities (Feldblum & Lipnic, 2016; Shieh, 2009; Roehling & Huang, 2015). At the CSU, the online training program is outsourced to three companies: (a) Law Room, (b) EverFi, and (c) Vector Solutions.

The vendors claim their products comply with federal and state regulations affecting requirements to prevent sexual misconduct at IHE in California. Schweinle and Roseman (2015) suggested primary prevention programs addressing sexual misconduct should include definitions of SH/SV, campus policies, reporting procedures, and how individuals can access supportive

services such as counseling, healthcare, or other assistance programs. All three online programs utilized by the CSU allow each campus to include institution-specific information such as policies, procedures, contact information, and local resources.

Online training programs may be a convenient liability-reduction tactic for organizations; however, some shortcomings have been identified. Feldblum and Lipnic (2016) recommended universities avoid one-size-fits-all online modules and instead choose training specific to their priority populations. For example, compliance training should target specific campus subgroups such as fraternities and sororities, undergraduates and graduates, student-athletes, etc. Another shortcoming of online programs is the consensus among experts that some evidence asserts in-person training increases participants' knowledge more than online training (Feldblum & Lipnic, 2016; NASEM, 2018; Shieh, 2009). Because of these issues, federal regulators such as EEOC recommend online compliance training be the floor and not the ceiling when meeting requirements (Feldblum & Lipnic, 2016). The greatest impact of in-person training happens when participants are engaged in learning, compared to lecture-based interventions. Other researchers have found that role-playing improves engagement (Rich, 2010; Rich et al., 2008).

Ahrens et al. (2011) found that behavioral modeling through performative theater positively impacted students' knowledge about SH/SV. Kalinoski et al. (2012) and Roehling and Huang (2015) suggested that the length of exposure to training and the recency of the training increase the knowledge gained by participants. Training should be facilitated by someone with expertise in the subject to increase engagement and participation in discussions and assignments (Kalinoski et al., 2012; Schweinle & Roseman, 2015).

Roehling and Huang (2015) posited the use of multiple training methods to have the greatest impact on knowledge, attitudes, and SH incidents, such as playing a video and leading

an in-person discussion or leading an in-person discussion and asking participants to review a poster. Feldblum and Lipnic (2016) stated that this method is common among universities and colleges because of federal law requirements, including posting material in commonly used areas such as break rooms, dormitories, or student union halls.

Conclusion

SH is pervasive in the U.S. and hurts students, faculty, and staff across colleges and universities (NASEM, 2018). SH typically consists of activities from one of three categories. Gender harassment is associated with verbal or non-verbal objectification, hostility based on an individual's gender, statements, or remarks that are objectively offensive, usually under the guise of crude jokes. Next, unwanted sexual attention. This includes unwelcome sexual advances and sexual coercion.

SV is a significant public health problem among teens and college students globally and in the U.S. (Kettrey et al., 2019). SA is defined as unwanted sexual contact that includes oral sex, sexual touching, intercourse, anal sex, or penetration with a finger or object. Before college enrollment, 19% of women had experienced attempted or completed SA. Young women who are college age between 18 and 24 years old were found to be at high risk of victimization and perpetration (Voth Schrag, 2017). Muehlenhard et al. (2017), in a systematic review of available data from studies utilizing large representative samples of undergraduate women, concluded the often cited one in five college women SA victimization rate was reasonably accurate. One contributing factor explored in the literature is the role of interpersonal discrimination in perpetuating SV.

Interpersonal discrimination and bias are pervasive norms in SV cases on college campuses. Rape myths and gender misconceptions continue to perpetuate negative and

sometimes groundless societal stereotypes of femininity, virility, sexuality, and aggression toward women. Rape myths, such as rape victims having injuries proving they were forced against their will, often shift blame from perpetrators to victims and are the most common (Doherty & Anderson, 2004).

The culture in IHE culture has been utilized to foster cycles of change processes that prove critical in adapting to a shifting environment (Gaus et al., 2017). Chaffee and Tierney (1988) asserted that organizational culture involves decision-making, actions taken, and communication on both an instrumental and symbolic level. Schein (2004) stated that historically, theorists have suggested that an organization's culture is foundational in understanding the institution.

Smart and St. John (1996) asserted that the strong culture hypothesis has reached consensus in the work of researchers such as Saffold (1988), Peters and Waterman (1982), and Deal and Kennedy (1982), who posited that culture contributes to increased performance levels. Thus, the culture must be strong and include characteristics that embrace certain values, beliefs, and shared behavior patterns. A strong culture demands more than just a system of shared meaning. The values and beliefs associated with an organization's culture must be backed by its policies, procedures, and practices.

In short, aligning the espoused values, belief systems, and actual practices is a catalyst for developing a strong culture, which empirical evidence states is a determinant of organizational performance (Smart & St. John, 1996). Additionally, Smart and St. John (1996) asserted that this alignment between espoused values, beliefs, and practices is the defining characteristic of a strong culture.

In response to federal, state, and local laws enacted since 2011, universities such as CSU have implemented broad policies and procedures to prevent or mitigate incidents of SH/SV. Next, CSU leadership moved to integrate these policies and procedures by enacting internal processes and controls to ensure compliance with institutional policies, values, traditions, and community norms to create a safer and more viable environment for students and staff. This study investigated if mandated federal/state laws, institutional policies, and procedures exemplify CSU organizational culture; these policies have permeated the institution as reflected in the attitudes, behaviors/skills, awareness, and knowledge (competencies) reported by undergraduate and graduate students.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

There is a persistent and ongoing threat of SV in the U.S. on university and college campuses (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Cantor et al., 2020; Kettrey et al., 2019). The CDC (2022) reported alarming statistics and trends for SV. One, SV is common; over half of women and nearly one in three men have experienced SV in their lifetime. Two, SV starts early. Almost eight in 10 male rape survivors reported they were made to penetrate someone before age 25, with four in 10 made to penetrate someone as a minor. More than four in five women rape survivors reported they were first raped before age 25, and nearly half were raped as a minor. Third, SV disproportionately affects women and other marginalized groups. Fourth, SV is costly, contributing to over $ 122,000 annually per survivor, including criminal justice activities and lost productivity (CDC, 2022).

The statistics represent adult self-reported incidents of SV as collected by the CDC in 2021 and published in 2022 and provide insight into the pervasiveness of SV among the general adult population. The CDC Youth Risk Behavior Survey (CDC, 2022), which reported trends among high school students for the past 10 years (2011–2021), states that 11% of high school students were forced by someone to do sexual things (kissing, touching, or physically forced to have sex). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and questioning+ (LGBTQ+) students were more at-risk, reporting higher incidents of SV than their peers.

Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020) conducted a systematic review of SH in higher education and found that it affected one in four female students. There was also very little evidence of the effectiveness of major preventive programs. In addition, research on SH and SV in IHE lacked theoretical, qualitative, and intersectional approaches.

Ilies et al. (2020) found major disparities in SH reporting from 25% to 85%, depending on the diction of the individual survey. In addition, studies revealed surveys that inquired about experiences of SH rather than asking participants about behavioral descriptions of SH and found a significant difference in reporting rates between these participants. Similarly, random sampling surveys also reported lower rates of SH versus convenience sampling. Researchers believe this disparity may be partly due to sampling bias. Victimization reports for SA also vary greatly based on the type of survey and sampling method utilized in research. These findings underscore the significance of behavioral descriptions versus using representative samples in SH and SV studies.

The literature review further revealed that GBV such as SH, DV, SA, rape, and stalking has a pervasive negative impact on the mental health, physical well-being, professional achievements, and financial success of faculty, staff, and students, systematically creating access barriers in higher education (Cantor et., 2015; NASEM, 2018; Salazar et al., 2018). Federal law in the U.S. mandates colleges and universities receiving Title IV funding mitigate sexual misconduct by implementing EBP programs on-campus (Advocates for Youth, 2017).

Kettrey et al. (2019) pointed out bystander SV prevention programs have become a prominent intervention strategy on many college and university campuses. These programs train bystanders (i.e., students, faculty, and staff) to intervene when they see signs of potential SH and SV (Kettrey et al., 2019; Rich et al., 2008). Participants in EBP programs have reported improvements in awareness, knowledge, and skills to intervene when witnessing GBV. Available data illuminates the impact of these programs on participants' attitudes, bystander efficacy, intent to help friends, and intent to help strangers (Feldwisch et al., 2020; Galarneau & O'Neill, 2015; Rich et al., 2008).

Feldblum and Lipnic (2016) reported most organizations understand that compliance training must be implemented to reduce liability to the enterprise. Additional empirical evidence suggests this training can positively impact participants' knowledge about SH (Cheung et al., 2018; Roehling & Huang, 2015). Gaps remain in the literature about the efficacy of SH prevention programs. More research is needed to understand better SH training's impact on attitudes and bystander behaviors that facilitate a person to activate and intervene to stop sexual misconduct (Chueng et al., 2018).

Purpose

Determining awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to intervene or prevent SH and SV among Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students is imperative to mitigating on-campus SV and improving student psychological safety, organizational culture, student outcomes, and institutional effectiveness. This quantitative, non-experimental, descriptive research study aimed to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students' response to on-campus SH and SV at a rural and urban IHE.

Restatement of Research Questions

As stated in Chapter 1, the following research questions guided this study.

- RQ1: Is there a statistically significant difference in Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?
- RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference between Undergraduate_Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?

- H20: Is there no statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between rural and urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH/violence at a rural or urban state university campus?
- H2a: Is there a statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Undergraduate_Graduate students' attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills in responding to SH and SV at an urban state university campus?

Research Design

Quantitative research utilizes numerical data to describe or explore relationships among variables (Williams, 2007). According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), quantitative research is an interrelated construct that proposes or hypothesizes the relationship between variables. This may be reflected in an investigation as an argument, a figure, a discussion, a rationale, or a conceptual framework. These formulations assist a researcher in explaining (or predicting) phenomena occurring in a study.

Quantitative research methodology uses deductive reasoning to describe social patterns using statistical measurements and numerical values (Salehi & Golafshani, 2010). Quantitative research can be divided into non-experimental and experimental quantitative research. This study's research questions are developed from a quantitative, non-experimental, descriptive design perspective. A non-experimental quantitative design was chosen because it allows for examining the differences among variables rather than inferring a relationship between cause and effect (Lappe, 2000). The non-experimental design allows the researcher to investigate factors related to Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students, which might contribute to the

attitudes, behaviors, knowledge, awareness, and skills to respond to incidents of sexual misconduct on campuses included in the study.

Descriptive statistics are useful when attempting to capture or measure a subset of a larger sample while defining or characterizing a phenomenon (Heppner et al., 2015). This non-experimental quantitative descriptive study examines the knowledge, awareness, skills, attitudes, and behaviors of undergraduate and graduate students' capacity to respond to SH and SV misconduct on a university campus in a rural, urban, and suburban setting. This study examines the intersection of institutional courage, psychological safety, and institutional effectiveness on developing an organizational culture that improves campus climate and disrupts the antecedents of sexual misconduct.

Site

According to a recent report, the CSU and its 23 campuses are the country's largest system of public universities. Approximately 482,000 students are enrolled in the CSU, with over 52,000 participating in postbaccalaureate or graduate studies (CSU, 2014). The CSU ethnicity/race is 43% Hispanic/Latinx, followed by 22.4% White, 15.7% Asian/Pacific Islander, 4.4% two or more races, 4% African American, and 0.2% American Indian. Women represent most students in the CSU at 56.9%.

The CSU has 53,763 faculty and staff across the state; approximately one-half are faculty, with 14,188 full-time and 13,494 part-time. Professional and academic staff represent 28.9% of employees. Administrative and office support staff represent 8.4% or roughly 4,516 employees, and 2.9% or 1,545 staff represent management (Evans et al., 2023). Nearly 48% of the faculty are men, and 47% are women. Individuals who identify as White represent 49% of the faculty, while 46% represent minority races or ethnicities. Fifty-five percent of staff and other employees

are women, and 45% are men, with 55% identifying as White and 45% as minority races or ethnicities (Nazario & Alvarez, 2022a).

Descriptive Statistics & Independent Samples t-Test

Descriptive statistics are typically utilized to examine and provide information on tendencies found in a data set (Salkind, 2010). Mean and range scores commonly provide central tendency measures, while frequency distribution provides categorical information based on the number of occurrences. Measures of inconsistency include dispersion of scores, variance, and standard deviation (SD). An independent samples *t*-test to determine if differences exist between observed/actual values and expected values for Undergraduate_Graduate and Rural_Urban students' response to SH and SV. The independent sample *t*-test advises an investigator if there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores between the two groups (Banda et al., 2021).

Predictor Variables

Independent/predictor variables can cause, influence, or affect outcomes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This study's predictor variables were year in school and campus type.

Criterion Variables

Dependent/criterion variables, also called [outcome and effect], depend on the independent variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). They are the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variables.

Population

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that in research, the population is a group of people who fit the criteria specified for the research. This study's population comprised 1,787 undergraduate and graduate students from two university campuses in rural and urban California.

Target Population. Unambiguously identifying a target population is essential for a research study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). A target population indicates an entire set of individuals selected from the population for which the study dataset is used to construct inferences. The findings from the target population are believed to describe and generalize the larger population. For this survey, the target population was undergraduate and graduate participants in the 2016 American College Health Association (ACHA) National College Health Assessment (NCHA) who responded to CSU-specific Title IX-related questions, which totaled 3000 students.

Sample. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), a sample is the group of participants from whom the data is collected. In 2014, a CSU mental health and wellness advisory recommended to the Chancellor's Office that the ACHA (NCHA) be utilized to assess student wellness, health, and safety. The NCHA is recognized nationally as a study that gives insight into university students' health, habits, behaviors, and perceptions. The CSU advisory believed the NCHA could provide a national standard to measure their system (Nazmi, 2016).

The CSU advisory also recommended an addendum to the NCHA related to Title IX, SV, SA, and misconduct to understand the campus climate better. These questions, the advisory believed, were would-be drivers to assist in developing programs, policies, and dialogue supportive of safe and healthier campuses. Ultimately, these efforts would help campus administrators/other stakeholders assess and respond to the needs of students to retain them and aid in their timely matriculation.

Twenty-two CSU campuses were given the NCHA questionnaire through an online confidential survey. All campuses were surveyed in the Spring 2016. Those campuses with enrollment below 8,000 fully participated in census sampling, while those with enrollment over

8,000 participated in a sampling survey of 7,000 randomly selected students. Larger campuses such as Fullerton, Northridge, San Francisco, and San Jose sampled more than 7,000 (Nazmi, 2016). A total of 22,650 undergraduate and graduate students participated in the survey.

Response rates were between 5% to 21% (Nazmi, 2016). The sample for this study was drawn from the population of undergraduate and graduate NCHA/Title IX questionnaire participants at two campuses within the CSU system (N = 1,787), which were referred to as Campus A and Campus B. Nine questions were asked of 1,787 survey participants on two CSU campuses. To validate the sample size, a G* power analysis was run using the 3.1.9.4 version of the software. Campus A is a rural CSU campus located in Central California. Campus B is an urban CSU campus located in Southern California. Both campuses have Greek life and athletics departments.

The researcher omitted multivariable or adjusted analysis due to the study's primarily descriptive character. The statistical test used was a correlation bivariate model, and the type of power analysis was a priori. The input parameters were two tails: correlation *pH1* = .3, *desired power* = .95, and correlation *pH0* = 0. The G*power analysis output for the total sample size was 334, a requirement far lower than the participant sample of 1,787 Undergraduate_Graduate and Rural_Urban students. This study met the power analysis criterion.

Instrument Methods

The researcher analyzed secondary disaggregated data from the 2016 ACHA-NCHA addendum Title IX questions specific to CSU, gathered from two campuses. Descriptive statistics were utilized to report findings by investigating Rural_Urban and undergraduate_ graduate student responses. The datasets were used to create a spreadsheet with the following information extracted from an urban and rural campus: [female, male], undergraduate, graduate, SV

prevention-related responses, Asian American, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latinx, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, two or more races and White/Anglo American]. Descriptive statistics and an independent samples t-test was used to conduct the analysis. The NCHA survey collects information on numerous variables in the following areas.

- Health, health education, and safety.
- Alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs.
- Sex behavior and contraception.
- Weight, nutrition, and exercise.
- Mental health.
- Physical health.
- Impediments to academic performance.
- Demographic characteristics (Nazmi, 2016, p.1).

The area of focus for this study was Title IX-related questions that address core competencies (i.e., attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills) that are associated in the literature review with evidenced-based SH and SV prevention (Feldwisch et al., 2020; Galarneau & O'Neill, 2015; Rich et al., 2008).

The Title IX survey consisted of nine questions that described the following:

- Do individuals or office students feel comfortable contacting to report incidents or seek assistance by gender?
- Would you report this incident to this individual or unit by gender?
- Would you seek assistance from this individual or unit by gender?

- How campus community members would respond in cases of sexual misconduct by gender?
- How much of a problem do students believe sexual misconduct is on campus by gender?
- Students' knowledge related to sexual misconduct processes on campus by gender.
- Students' opinions of how administrators would respond to reported sexual misconduct by gender
- Students' perceptions related to SA are based on gender.
- What students believe is expected of them when witnessing sexual misconduct/
- Students' perceptions of campus administration's efforts to address sexual misconduct issues (Nazmi, 2016).

Study Procedures

The data included in this study has been previously published in 2016 and 2018. This study's researcher analyzed the secondary aggregate and disaggregated data; however, consent was not relevant because this study did not involve human subjects. The researcher sought to evaluate any potentially existing differences between the independent and dependent variables from the emerging statistics. Approval was obtained before the analysis of the secondary data.

Data Collection

The data collected for this study were acquired from the principal investigator. Twenty-two CSU campuses were administered the NCHA questionnaire through an online confidential survey. All campuses were surveyed in the Spring 2016. Those campuses with enrollment below 8,000 participated in census sampling, while those with enrollment over 8,000 participated in a

sampling survey of 7000 randomly selected students. Larger campuses such as Fullerton, Northridge, San Francisco, and San Jose sampled more than 7,000 (Nazmi, 2016).

Data collection and analysis took place by using and examining the raw data provided by the dataset consisted of the following factors: (a) gender (i.e., female, male, and nonbinary); (b) classification (i.e., undergraduate or graduate); (c) SV prevention related responses; and (d) ethnicity (i.e., Asian American, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latinx, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, two or more races and White/Anglo American). Data re-classification was unnecessary as the data contained no identifying information. However, a unique identifier (UI) was established to distinguish participants and campuses.

The datasets were gathered for each university and were not dismantled to represent respondents noticeably. Once the datasets were collected, organized in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, and imported into Intellectus©, an independent samples t-test was conducted to find if there were differences between the independent and dependent variables. A total of 22,650 undergraduate and graduate students participated in the survey.

Response rates ranged from 5% to 21% (Nazmi, 2016). The sample for this study was drawn from the population of undergraduate and graduate NCHA/Title IX questionnaire participants at two campuses within the CSU system (N = 1,787), which were referred to as Campus A and Campus B. An aggregate of 1,787 survey participants on two CSU campuses were asked nine questions. To validate the sample size, a G* power analysis was run using the 3.1.9.4 version of the software.

Assumptions

Adequate cell size assumption was assessed. McHugh (2013) stated that all cells must have expected values greater than zero, and 80% of them will have at least an expected value of five. The first condition was met in the study, indicating that all cells' expected values were greater than zero. All cells had expected values greater than zero, indicating the first condition was met. Expected frequencies were met, with 85.71% of the cells reaching at least a frequency of five. This indicates the second condition was met.

Limitations

The researcher's assumptions were a limitation of this study. As a staff member from the institutions, the data in this study were derived from the investigator needed to ensure a non-biased and objective posture when reviewing institutional data. This was achieved by refraining from applying all preconceived ideas to the data collected. This process also included continuously, iteratively, and reflectively analyzing the data set. Findings were reported objectively. Another possible limitation may be the generalizability of this study's results because the data is specific to a public IHE and does not include participants from private institutions or two-year colleges.

Delimitation

This study's delimitation emphasizes one institution with multiple campuses within the largest higher education system in the U.S. This institution was selected because it encompasses colleges and universities in rural and urban areas in California. The campuses included in the study have an estimated combined enrollment of 35,700 undergraduates and graduate students.

The study focused on a survey addendum regarding Title IX that was included during the 2016 ACHA-NCHA and was requested by the participating institution. The survey included

1,787 student participants. The institution was also selected because of its access to the researcher. This non-experimental quantitative design allowed undergraduate and graduate students to examine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between these groups' attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills to respond to on-campus SH and SV an urban and rural university.

Ethical Consideration

Ethical behavior was demonstrated throughout the study. There was no interaction with human subjects; thus, ethical assurance was not a factor. The researcher was meticulous in the data collection and analysis by double-checking the collected dataset and the t-test results of independent samples. In addition, the researcher acknowledged intellectual property through systematic and precise citations and conveyed results truthfully and honestly. The researcher obtained approval from appropriate university administrators. The data have also been published in previously released public reports. No identifying information, such as names or personal addresses, was collected during this study.

Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology used for this study, the chosen quantitative, non-experimental descriptive research design, and the inferential statistical t-test of independent samples. Chapter 4 presented the study's findings, including an overview, data validity, data reliability, and findings. Chapter 5 presented the conclusion and implications of the overall study.

Chapter 4: Presentation of Findings

This non-experimental quantitative descriptive design aimed to explore whether there was a difference between CSU Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) to address SH/SV when they or someone they know experienced it. This chapter presented the findings of data collected using the methodology highlighted in the previous chapter based on the research questions. The chapter provided the results from data collection during a 2016 study of CSU students.

The researcher analyzed the dataset using descriptive statistics and a t-test of independent samples. This statistical technique was selected based on the research question(s) and the level of measurement of the nominal and scale variables under investigation. This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section presents demographical information gathered from the dataset published by the CSU in a 2016 report, along with the validity and reliability of the data. The second section presents the findings from the descriptive statistics analysis and t-test of independent samples.

Section I Overview

Participation American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment II

According to the American College Health Association-National College Health Association (ACHA-NCHA) II report (ACHA, 2016), 22,650 students at 22 campuses within CSU students participated in the Title IX addendum survey. This study investigated survey responses from two CSU campuses, one rural and one urban. Campus A is in a rural community with approximately 20,000 students. Campus B is an urban community with 10,000–19,999 students (ACHA, 2016). The number of student survey participants from Campus A and B included in the analyses (N = 1,787). See Table 1.

Table 1

Participants in NCHA-ACHA CSU Title IX Survey

Campus	Number of Participants
A	1,485
B	302
Total	1,787

Note. Adapted from NCHA (2016).

The number of graduate participants (n = 214) while undergraduates represented (n = 1,573). The gender of respondents were males (24.8%, n = 442) and females (75.2%, n = 1,345). The race/ethnicity of participants was White (31.6%, n = 566), Black/African American (4.2%, n = 75), Latino/Hispanic (44.8%, n = 802), Asian/Pacific Islander (11.5%, n = 260), and Other (6.2%, n = 111). See Table 2.

Table 2

Race/Ethnicity of Campus A and B Participants

Race/Ethnicity	Number of Participants by Campus A or B	Percentage Rate
White	566	31.6%
Black/African American	75	4.2%
Latino/Hispanic	802	44.8%
Asian/Pacific Islander	260	11.5%
Other	111	6.2%
Total	1,787	

Note. Adapted from NCHA (2016).

The study explored competencies utilized to respond to SH/SV by analyzing student classifications (undergraduate versus graduate students) and (rural versus urban) by self-reported awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors. Although the dataset includes race/ethnicity and gender, this nonexperimental quantitative descriptive design primarily explored the differences between each student classification. Gender and race/ethnicity may be utilized in future studies. The dataset published by the CSU and retrieved for this study provided

the following information. A UI was created for each respondent in place of name and school signifier. Gender, race/ethnicity, undergraduate, graduate, rural, and urban were provided.

Validity and Reliability

The CSU published the survey participant dataset in 2016 and 2018. This study analyzed the secondary aggregate and disaggregated data. The data were evaluated for outliers and inaccuracies and then uploaded into Intellectus©. The dataset was analyzed through descriptive statistics and a *t*-test of independent samples to determine to what extent a significant difference exists.

The dataset and results were considered reliable due to the duplication of results after multiple tests utilizing the software where the data produced the same or similar results. The NCHA-ACHA and CSU have collected these datasets for years, and higher education scholars and policymakers across the U.S. utilize the pertinent information. The data and subsequent findings may not be generalizable due to the specific nature of the study of rural and urban campuses within a system of 23 universities in California.

The size of the CSU as the largest system of universities in the U.S. and the sample size do potentially increase the generalizability of the study. The *t*-test of independent samples examined whether a significant difference existed between the dependent and independent variables. The mean of each dependent variable was assessed across the independent variable. Descriptive statistics were used to examine the above variables before conducting inferential statistics with the independent samples *t*-test.

Section 2 Findings

In assessing the research questions, descriptive statistics and an independent samples *t*-test were conducted between Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students filtered by

awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors (competencies). Typically utilized to describe or summarize data, descriptive statistics are a method to examine variables before conducting inferential statistical tests. The independent samples *t*-test is appropriate when the research aims to investigate statistically significant differences between two variables (Rochon et al., 2012). The independent samples *t*-test advises an investigator if there is a statistically significant difference in the means scores between two groups; therefore, a researcher can ascertain the probability that two data sets were derived from the same population (Banda et al., 2021).

The results of the data analyses are described for the following research questions:

- RQ1: Is there a statistically significant difference in Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?
- RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference between undergraduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?
    - H20: Is there a statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH/violence at a rural or urban state university campus?
    - H2a: Is there a statistically significant difference ($p > .05$) in Undergraduate_Graduate students' attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?

Figure 1 and Figure 2 show the statistical significance of the independent and dependent variables. As the figures highlight, an independent samples *t*-test of the predictor variable

Rural_Urban revealed that 17 of 29 independent variables had a statistically significant difference. An independent samples *t*-test of the predictor variable Undergraduate_Graduate revealed that 21 of 29 independent variables had no statistically significant difference. The independent variables Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate are significantly different, while the inverse is true of the dependent variables.

Figure 4

R_U Significant Variables versus No Significant Difference

Rural	*M*	SD		*M*	SD	Urban	*M*	SD		*M*	*SD*
Awareness	1.88	0.89	Knowl_A1	*4.82*	*1.16*	Awareness	1.61	0.99	Knowl_A1	*4.92*	*1.23*
Knowledge	4.56	*1.14*	Knowl_B2	*4.48*	*1.37*	Knowledge	4.72	*1.16*	Knowl_B2	*4.68*	*1.37*
Attitudes	2.09	*0.87*	Knowl_C3	*4.45*	*1.39*	Attitudes	1.95	*0.88*	Knowl_C3	*4.68*	*1.36*
Skills Behaviors	1.98	*0.92*	Knowl_D4	*4.62*	*1.33*	Skills Behaviors	1.92	*0.97*	Knowl_D4	*4.71*	*1.35*
SD_Across	1.54	*0.51*	Knowl_E5	*4.44*	*1.41*	SD_Across	1.69	*0.54*	Knowl_E5	*4.62*	*1.43*
SDAwareness	0.22	*0.35*	Attitu_A	1.97	1.27	SDAwareness	0.16	*0.32*	Attitu_A	1.81	1.22
SDKnowledge	0.51	*0.61*	Attitu_B	2.01	1.23	SDKnowledge	0.45	*0.62*	Attitu_B	1.9	1.21
SDAttitudes	0.75	*0.53*	Attitu_C	2.03	1.29	SDAttitudes	0.68	*0.56*	Attitu_C	1.86	1.24
SDBehaviorSkills	1.71	0.55	Attitu_D	2.16	1.04	SDBehaviorSkills	1.64	*0.61*	Attitu_D	2.04	1.08
Aware_SV	1.87	*0.95*	Attitu_E	2.29	1.09	Aware_SV	1.57	*1.04*	Attitu_E	2.17	1.12
Aware_SA	1.91	*0.94*	Sk_Beh_A1	0.09	0.29	Aware_SA	1.59	*1.03*	Sk_Beh_A1	0.07	0.26
Aware_Rape	1.78	*0.97*	Sk_Beh_B1	1.63	0.78	Aware_Rape	1.53	*1.04*	Sk_Beh_B1	1.63	0.78
Aware_DV	1.96	*0.96*	Sk_Beh_C1	2.15	1.35	Aware_DV	1.75	*1.02*	Sk_Beh_C1	2.21	1.32
Aware_Stalk	1.9	*0.96*	Sk_Beh_D1	3.13	1.65	Aware_Stalk	1.72	*1.01*	Sk_Beh_D1	3.06	1.7
			T Sk_Beh_E	2.88	2.47				T Sk_Beh_E1	2.62	2.5

Figure 5

U_G Significant Variables Versus No Significant Difference

Undergrnd	*M*	SD		*M*	*SD*	Grndunte	*M*	SD		*M*	*SD*
Awareness	1.84	0.9	Knowl_A1	*4.85*	*1.15*	Awareness	1.83	0.96	Knowl_A1	*4.79*	*1.3*
Knowledge	4.61	1.13	Knowl_B2	*4.54*	*1.36*	Knowledge	4.43	*1.21*	Knowl_B2	*4.35*	*1.46*
Attitudes	2.08	0.86	Knowl_C3	*4.53*	*1.37*	Attitudes	1.96	0.91	Knowl_C3	*4.2*	*1.54*
Skills/Behaviors	1.99	0.93	Knowl_D4	*4.66*	*1.3*	Skills/Behaviors	1.82	0.97	Knowl_D4	*4.47*	*1.51*
SD_Across	1.57	0.51	Knowl_E5	*4.49*	*1.4*	SD_Across	1.54	0.53	Knowl_E5	*4.34*	*1.56*
SDAwareness	0.22	0.34	Attitu_A	*1.96*	*1.26*	SDAwareness	0.17	0.34	Attitu_A	*1.85*	*1.24*
SDKnowledge	0.48	0.59	Attitu_B	*2*	*1.22*	SDKnowledge	0.64	0.72	Attitu_B	*1.91*	*1.21*
SDAttitudes	0.75	0.52	Attitu_C	*2.02*	*1.28*	SDAttitudes	0.65	0.58	Attitu_C	*1.86*	*1.24*
SDBehaviorSkills	1.71	0.56	Attitu_D	*2.16*	*1.04*	SDBehaviorSkills	1.68	0.6	Attitu_D	*2.05*	*1.13*
Aware_SV	1.82	0.96	Attitu_E	*2.29*	*1.09*	Aware_SV	1.79	1.01	Attitu_E	*2.14*	*1.15*
Aware_SA	1.87	0.96	Sk_Beh_A1	*0.09*	*0.38*	Aware_SA	1.81	1	Sk_Beh_A1	*0.09*	*0.29*
Aware_Rape	1.74	0.98	Sk_Beh_B1	*1.64*	*0.77*	Aware_Rape	1.76	1.04	Sk_Beh_B1	*1.53*	*0.85*
Aware_DV	1.92	0.97	Sk_Beh_C1	*2.17*	*1.34*	Aware_DV	1.95	0.98	Sk_Beh_C1	*2.14*	*1.36*
Aware_Stalk	1.87	0.97	Sk_Beh_D1	*3.14*	*1.64*	Aware_Stalk	1.85	0.98	Sk_Beh_D1	*2.97*	*1.75*
			T_Sk_Beh_E	*2.9*	*2.47*				T_Sk_Beh_E1	*2.38*	*2.5*

Descriptive Statistics Analysis

As previously stated, descriptive statistics refers to the attributes of data collected. The purpose of this approach was two-fold: (a) the researcher intends to conduct descriptive statistics before utilizing and (b) inferential statistics to substantiate or evaluate the hypotheses. The researcher began the data analysis with descriptive statistics to better understand the attributes of the sample population and identify differences and/or unexpected inconsistencies. Descriptive statistics filtered by race and gender were entered into the statistics software. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for each nominal variable. The most frequently observed race category was Hispanic (n = 794, 44.43%). The most frequently observed gender category was female (n = 1,345, 75.27%). Frequencies and percentages are presented (see Tables 3 and 4). The results also revealed 14 missing from the variable gender.

Table 3

Frequency Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	*n*	%
White	566	31.6%
Black/African American	75	4.2%
Latino/Hispanic	802	44.8%
Asian/Pacific Islander	260	11.5%
Other	111	6.2%
Total	1,787	

Table 4

Frequency Gender

Gender	*n*	*%*
Male	428	23.95%
Female	1345	75.27%
Missing	14	0.78%

Note. Due to rounding errors, percentages may not equal 100%.

Differences: Rural Versus Urban Students

Multiple *t*-tests were conducted to compare mean scores for the scales measuring awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors between rural and urban student participants. Intellectus© has provided the language that interprets the statistics. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of awareness was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 5). Shapiro-Wilk tests were conducted to determine whether Awareness could have been produced by a normal distribution for each category of Rural_Urban (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for Awareness in the Urban category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.90$, $p < .001$. This result suggests that awareness in the urban category was unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for awareness in the rural category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.91$, $p < .001$. This result

suggests that awareness in the rural category was unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution.

The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for both the categories of rural_urban, indicating the normality assumption was violated. A Welch's *t*-test was used to address the normality violation, which utilizes a higher statistical power *t*-test when the two samples have unequal variances and sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (awareness) was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (403.72) = -4.42, $p < .001$, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests that the mean of awareness significantly differed between Rural_Urban's urban and rural categories of Rural_Urban.

Table 5

Independent Samples t-*test for Awareness by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Awareness	1.61	0.99	301	1.88	0.89	1486	-4.42	<.001	0.29

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of knowledge was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 6). Shapiro-Wilk tests were conducted to determine whether a normal distribution could have produced Knowledge for each category of Rural_Urban (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for Knowledge in the urban category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.89$, $p < .001$. This result suggests that knowledge in the urban category was unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for knowledge in the rural category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, $W = 0.91$, $p < .001$. This result suggests that knowledge in the rural category was unlikely to have been

produced by a normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for both the categories of Rural_Urban, indicating the normality assumption was violated.

Levene's test was conducted to assess whether the variance of knowledge was equal between the categories of rural_urban. The result of Levene's test for knowledge was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, F (1, 1785) = 0.00, p = .975. This result suggests the variance of knowledge might have been equal for each category of rural_urban, indicating the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (knowledge) was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.18, p = .029, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of knowledge significantly differed between the categories of Rural_Urban.

Table 6

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowledge by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*T*	*p*	*d*
Knowledge	4.72	1.16	301	4.56	1.14	1486	2.18	.029	0.14

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of attitudes were significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 7). Shapiro-Wilk tests were conducted to determine whether a normal distribution could have produced attitudes for each category of Rural_Urban (Razali & Wah, 2011). The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for attitudes in the urban category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, W = 0.89, p < .001. This result suggests that attitudes in the urban category were unlikely to have been produced by a normal distribution. The result of the Shapiro-Wilk test for attitudes in the rural category was significant based on an alpha value of .05, W = 0.93, p < .001. This result suggests that attitudes in the rural category were unlikely to have been produced by a normal

distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for both the categories of Rural_Urban, indicating the normality assumption was violated. Levene's test was conducted to assess whether the variance of Attitudes was equal between the categories of rural_urban.

The result of Levene's test for attitudes was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, F (1, 1785) = 0.01, p = .935. This result suggests the variance of attitudes may be equal for each category of Rural_urban, indicating the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (attitudes) result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -2.54, p = .011, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests that the mean of attitudes significantly differed between Rural_Urban's urban and rural categories of Rural_Urban.

Table 7

Independent Samples t-*test for Attitudes Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*T*	*p*	*d*
Attitudes	1.95	0.88	301	2.09	0.87	1486	-2.54	.011	0.16

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of behavior_skills was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 8). The two-tailed independent samples t-test result was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -0.99, p = .320, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of Behavior_Skills was not significantly different between the urban and rural categories of Rural_Urban. Table 8 shows the sample *t*-test for Behavior_Skills under Rural_Urban.

Table 8

Independent Samples t-*test for Behavioral_Skills Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*T*	*p*	*d*
Behavior_Skills	1.92	0.97	301	1.98	0.92	1486	-0.99	.320	0.06

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SD_Across was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 9). The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 4.51, $p < .001$, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SD_Across significantly differed between the Urban and Rural categories of Rural_Urban.

Table 9

Independent Samples t-*test for SD_Across Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SD_Across	1.69	0.54	301	1.54	0.51	1486	4.51	<.001	0.28

Rural_Urban SD

According to Salkind (2010), inconsistency measures include the dispersion of scores and distribution, which are reported as variance and SD. The SD was filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to understand inconsistencies within the dataset better. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDAwareness was significantly different between categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 10). Welch's *t*-test was used, which has higher statistical power than the Student's *t*-test when the two samples have unequal variances and unequal sample sizes. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (458.82) = -2.81, $p = .005$, indicating

the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SDAwareness was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban.

Table 10

Independent Samples t-*test for SDAwareness by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDAwareness	0.16	0.32	301	0.22	0.35	1484	-2.81	.005	0.17

Table 11

Independent Samples t-*test for SDKnowledge by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDKnowledge	0.45	0.62	301	0.51	0.61	1485	-1.35	.178	0.08

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDAttitudes was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. Welch's *t*-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and sample sizes. The two-tailed independent samples t-test result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (414.32) = -2.05, p = .041, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SDAttitudes was significantly different between Rural_Urban (See Table 12).

Table 12

Independent Samples t-*test for SDAttitudes by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDAttitudes	0.68	0.56	301	0.75	0.53	1484	-2.05	.041	0.13

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDBehaviorSkills was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban (see Table 13). The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -2.16, p = .031, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SDBehaviorSkills was significantly different between the Rural_Urban.

Table 13

Independent Samples t-*test for SDBehaviorSkills by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDBehaviorSkills	1.64	0.61	301	1.71	0.55	1486	-2.16	.031	0.13

Rural_Urban SH/SV Competencies

As previously stated, SH/SV is prevalent in the U.S., including colleges and universities. Nine Title IX-related addendum questions were added to the NCHA-ACHA survey on behalf of the CSU. Four questions and 20 sub-questions were selected for analysis for this study. These selections include one question and five sub-questions for each competency. Questions were also reversed scored. To understand the dataset, Rural_Urban was filtered by Aware_SV, Aware_SA, Aware_Rape, Aware_DV, and Aware_Stalk. The results for Rural_Urban are shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Independent Samples t-*test for Aware_SV, SA, Rape, DV, and Stalk by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aware_SV	1.57	1.04	301	1.87	0.95	1485	-4.63	<.001	0.30
Aware_SA	1.59	1.03	300	1.91	0.94	1477	-5.11	<.001	0.33
Aware_Rape	1.53	1.04	301	1.78	0.97	1477	-3.85	<.001	0.25
Aware_DV	1.75	1.02	301	1.96	0.96	1477	-3.29	.001	0.21
Aware_Stalk	1.72	1.01	301	1.90	0.96	1479	-2.84	.005	0.18

Rural_Urban was filtered by Knowledge as signified by Knowl_A1, Knowl_B2, Knowl_C3, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 to understand the dataset better. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 (Knowledge) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Knowl_A1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1782) = 1.36, p = .174, indicating the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Knowl_D4, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1775) = 1.12, p = .262, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Knowl_E5, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = 1.93, p = .053, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 was not significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowl_A1, D4, and E5 by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*T*	*p*	*d*
Knowl_A1	4.92	1.23	300	4.82	1.16	1484	1.36	.174	0.08
Knowl_D4	4.71	1.35	299	4.62	1.33	1478	1.12	.262	0.07
Knowl_E5	4.62	1.43	298	4.44	1.41	1483	1.93	.053	0.12

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Knowl_B2 and Knowl_C3 (Knowledge) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Knowl_B2, was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1783) = 2.28, p = .023, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Knowl_C3, was significant

based on an alpha value of .05, t (1778) = 2.61, p = .009, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Knowl_B2 and Knowl_B3 was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowl_B2 and C3 by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Knowl_B2	4.68	1.37	301	4.48	1.37	1484	2.28	.023	0.14
Knowl_C3	4.68	1.36	301	4.45	1.39	1479	2.61	.009	0.17

Rural_Urban was filtered by Attitudes as signified by Attitu_A, Attitu_B, Attitu_C, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E to better understand the dataset. A two-tailed independent samples t-test number 12 was conducted to examine whether the mean of Attitu_B, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E (attitude) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Attitu_B, was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = -1.39, p = .164, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Attitu_D was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1777) = -1.92, p = .054, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Attitu_E was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1773) = -1.78, p = .075, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Attitu_B, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E was not significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Independent Samples t-*test for Attitu_B, D, and E by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Attitu_B	1.90	1.21	299	2.01	1.23	1482	-1.39	.164	0.09
Attitu_D	2.04	1.08	300	2.16	1.04	1479	-1.92	.054	0.12
Attitu_E	2.17	1.12	299	2.29	1.09	1476	-1.78	.075	0.11

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Attitu_A and Attitu_C (attitude) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. Welch's *t*-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and unequal sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Attitu_A was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (440.74) = -2.07, p = .039, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Attitu_C, was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (441.23) = -2.14, p = .033, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Attitu_A and Attitu_C was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Independent Samples t-*test for Attitu_A and C by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Attitu_A	1.81	1.22	301	1.97	1.27	1486	-2.07	.039	0.13
Attitu_C	1.86	1.24	301	2.03	1.29	1483	-2.14	.033	0.13

To better understand the dataset, Rural_Urban was filtered by skills/behaviors as signified by Sk_Beh_A1, Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, Sk_Beh_D1, and Sk_Beh_E1. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Sk_Beh_A1,

Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, Sk_Beh_D1, and Sk_E1 (skills/behaviors) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Sk_Beh_A1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -0.92, p = .357, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Sk_Beh_B1, was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.01, p = .988, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Sk_Beh_C1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.69, p = .492, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Sk_Beh_D1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -0.73, p = .464, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, Sk_Beh_E1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -1.65, p = .098, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Sk_Beh_A1 – Sk_Beh_E1 was not significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The results are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Independent Samples t-*test for Sk_Beh_A1, B1, C1, D1, and E by Rural_Urban*

	Urban			Rural					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Sk_Beh_A1	0.07	0.26	301	0.09	0.29	1486	-0.92	.357	0.06
Sk_Beh_B1	1.63	0.78	301	1.63	0.78	1486	0.01	.988	0.00
Sk_Beh_C1	2.21	1.32	301	1.35	1.35	1486	0.69	.492	0.04
Sk_Beh_D1	3.06	1.70	301	3.13	1.65	1486	-0.73	.464	0.05
Sk_Beh_E1	2.62	2.50	301	2.88	2.47	1486	-1.65	.098	0.10

To better understand awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors, Undergraduate_Graduate (U_G) filtered the dataset. A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of awareness significantly differed between the

categories of U_G. The two-tailed independent samples t-test result was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.06, p = .950, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of awareness was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Independent Samples t-*test for Awareness by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Awareness	1.84	0.90	1573	1.83	0.96	214	0.06	.950	0.00

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, knowledge, was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.23, p = .026, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, attitudes, was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.97, p = .049, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test result, skills/behavior, was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.40, p = .016, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Tables 21–23.

Table 21

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowledge by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Knowledge	4.61	1.13	1573	4.43	1.21	214	2.23	.026	0.16

Table 22

Independent Samples t-*test for Attitudes by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Attitudes	2.08	0.86	1573	1.96	0.91	214	1.97	.049	0.14

Table 23

Independent Samples t-*test for Behavior_Skills by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Behavior_Skills	1.99	0.93	1573	1.82	0.97	214	2.40	.016	0.17

U_G was filtered by SD for awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to understand the dataset better. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SD_Across significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The two-tailed independent samples t-test result was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.83, p = .408, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SD_Across was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented.

Table 24

Independent Samples t-*test for SD_Across by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SD_Across	1.57	0.51	1573	1.54	0.53	214	0.83	.408	0.06

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDAwareness and SDBehaviorSkills significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, SDAwareness, was insignificant based on an

alpha value of .05, t (1783) = 1.82, p = .069, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test, SDBehaviorsSkills, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.83, p = .068, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of SDAwareness and SDBehaviorsSkills was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in both Table 25 and Table 26.

Table 25

Independent Samples t-*test for SDAwareness by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDAwareness	0.22	0.34	1572	0.17	0.34	213	1.82	.069	0.13

Table 26

Independent Samples t-*test for SDBehaviorSkills by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDBehaviorSkills			1573	1.63	0.60	214	1.83	.068	0.13

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDKnowledge and SDAttitudes significantly differed between the categories of U_G. Welch's t-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and unequal sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (SDKnowledge). was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (254.14) = -3.08, p = .002, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The two-tailed independent samples t-test (SDAttitudes) result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (263.23) = 2.39, p = .017, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. These findings suggest that SDKnowledge's

mean significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Tables 27 and 28.

Table 27

Independent Samples t-*test for SDKnowledge by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDKnowledge	0.48	0.59	1572	0.64	0.72	214	-3.08	.002	0.24

Table 28

Independent Samples t-*test for SDAttitudes by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
SDAttitudes	0.75	0.52	1571	0.65	0.58	214	2.39	.017	0.18

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Aware_SV, Aware_SA, Aware_Rape, Aware_DV, and Aware_Stalk significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Aware_SV), was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1784) = 0.37, p = .711, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Aware_SA), was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1775) = 0.84, p = .400, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Aware_Rape), was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1776) = -0.26, p = .798, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Aware_DV), was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = -0.48, p = .628, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Aware_Stalk) was insignificant based on an alpha value of

.05, *t* (1778) = 0.35, *p* = .726, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Aware_SV, Aware_SA, Aware_Rape, Aware_DV, and Aware_Stalk was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 29.

Table 29

Independent Samples t-*test for Aware_SV, SA, Rape, DV, and Stalk by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Aware_SV	1.82	0.96	1572	1.79	1.01	214	0.37	.711	0.03
Aware_SA			1565	1.81	1.00	212	0.84	.400	0.06
Aware_Rape	1.74	0.98	1565	1.76	1.04	213	-0.26	.798	0.02
Aware_DV	1.92	0.97	1569	1.95	0.98	212	-0.48	.628	0.04
Aware_Stalk	1.87	0.97	1567	1.85	0.98	213	0.35	.726	0.03

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Knowl_C3 significantly differed between the categories of U_G. Welch's *t*-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and unequal sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Knowl_C3) was significant based on an alpha value of .05, *t* (259.61) = 2.98, *p* = .003, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of Knowl_C3 was significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 30.

Table 30

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowl_C3 by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Knowl_C3	4.53	1.37	1567	4.20	1.54	213	2.98	.003	0.23

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_B2, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 significantly differed between the categories

of U_G. Welch's t-test (Knowl_A1) has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Knowl_A1) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (260.77) = 0.61, p = .543, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Knowl_B2) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (265.58) = 1.77, p = .078, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Knowl_D4) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (258.33) = 1.75, p = .082, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Knowl_E5) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (261.93) = 1.33, p = .183, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_B2, Knowl_C3, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 was not significantly different between the categories of U_G (see Table 31).

Table 31

Independent Samples t-*test for Knowl_A1, B2, D4, and E5 by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Knowl_A1	4.85	1.15	1570	4.79	1.30	214	0.61	.543	0.05
Knowl_B2	4.54	1.36	1571	4.35	1.46	214	1.77	.078	0.13
Knowl_D4	4.66	1.30	1563	4.47	1.51	214	1.75	.082	0.13
Knowl_E5	4.49	1.40	1567	4.34	1.56	214	1.33	.183	0.10

A two-tailed independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Attitu_A, Attitu_B, Attitu_C, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E significantly differed between the categories of U_G. Welch's *t*-test (Attitu_D) has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and sample sizes. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Attitu_A) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.20, p = .231, indicating

the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Attitu_B) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = 1.06, p = .291, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Attitu_C) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1782) = 1.68, p = .093, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Attitu_D) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (263.08) = 1.33, p = .183, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples t-test (Attitu_E) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1773) = 1.85, p = .064, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Attitu_A, Attitu_B, Attitu_C, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 32.

Table 32

Independent Samples t-*test for Attitu_A, B, C, D, and E by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Attitu_A	1.96	1.26	1573	1.85	1.24	214	1.20	.231	0.09
Attitu_B	2.00	1.22	1567	1.91	1.21	214	1.06	.291	0.08
Attitu_C	2.02	1.28	1570	1.86	1.24	214	1.68	.093	0.12
Attitu_D	2.16	1.04	1566	2.05	1.13	213	1.33	.183	0.10
Attitu_E	2.29	1.09	1561	2.14	1.15	214	1.85	.064	0.13

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Sk_Beh_E1 significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Sk_Beh_E1) was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.88, p = .004, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of Sk_Beh_E1 was significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 33.

Table 33

Independent Samples t-*test for Sk_Beh_E1 by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Sk_Beh_E1	2.90	2.47	1573	2.38	2.50	214	2.88	.004	0.21

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of Sk_Beh_A1, Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, and Sk_Beh_D1 significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Sk_Beh_A1) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -0.11, p = .910, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Sk_Beh_B1) was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.89, p = .058, indicating the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Sk_Beh_C1) was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.22, p = .825, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (Sk_Beh_D1) was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.40, p = .163, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Sk_Beh_A1, Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, and Sk_Beh_D1 was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The results are presented in Table 34.

Table 34

Two-Tailed Independent Samples t-*test for Sk_Beh_A1, B1, C1, and D1 by U_G*

	Undergrad			Graduate					
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Sk_Beh_A1	0.09	0.28	1573	0.09	0.29	214	-0.11	.910	0.01
Sk_Beh_B1	1.64	0.77	1573	1.53	0.85	214	1.89	.058	0.13
Sk_Beh_C1	2.17	1.34	1573	2.14	1.36	214	0.22	.825	0.02
Sk_Beh_D1	3.14	1.64	1573	2.97	1.75	214	1.40	.163	0.10

Summary

The purpose of this non-experimental quantitative research study was to explore if a statistically significant difference exists between rural and urban undergraduate and graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural and urban state university campus. The data collected revealed that the null hypothesis was rejected for most filtered variables for categories of Rural_urban. In contrast, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected for most filtered variables for categories Undergraduate_Graduate. There was a statistically significant difference between Rural_Urban categories students' competencies. There was not a statistically significant difference between Undergrad_Graduate student's competencies to respond to SH and SV.

The secondary data were utilized to perform descriptive statistical analysis and independent samples t-test using Intellectus©. Chapter 4 presented the statistical analysis for secondary data that were analyzed in this non-experimental quantitative study on student competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors) and categorical data (i.e., urban, rural, undergraduate, graduate). The data generated through Intellectus© examined the research questions and its hypotheses to determine if a difference existed between categorical students' competencies to respond to SH and SV in rural and urban campus settings. Chapter 5 provided an evaluation/discussion of the research findings including interpretations, practical implications, the limitations of the research study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Evaluation, Discussion and Recommendations

Evaluation of the Findings

SV is a major public health problem with long-term mental, physical, and social effects for victims (Basile et al., 2007; Black et al., 2011). SV is complex, can victimize anyone, and can affect individuals across their lifespan. Any type of perpetrator can commit it and encompasses a breadth of personal violations ranging from nonconsensual noncontact acts (i.e., exhibitionism or verbal SH) to sexual coercion, attempted or completed nonconsensual oral, genital, or anal penetration (Basile & Smith, 2011; Basile et al., 2006).

The 2016–17 National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NIPSVS) found that one in four women (26.8% or 33.5 million), one in 26 men (3.8% or 4.5 million) in the U.S. reported completed or attempted rape at some point (Basile et al., 2022). The NIPSVS states 80% of women who experienced SV reported that their first rape occurred before the age of 25 years. At colleges and universities, the results from the National College Women Sexual Victimization study reported about 3% of college women reported completed or attempted rape. Most of the sexual victimization occurs by perpetrators the victim knows (Blumberg, 2008).

Colleges and universities in the U.S. are federally mandated to prevent and mitigate all forms of sexual discrimination, including SH and SV (Van Vliet, 2020). These mandates include the Title IX Act of 1972, the Clery Act of 1990, and the Campus SaVE Act codified under the reauthorization of VAWA (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). To combat the problem of SH and SV, most colleges and universities mandated prevention and intervention programs have shifted toward solutions that address the environment versus targeting individuals or characteristics of perpetrators.

The bystander model represents this approach. It targets community-level change and increases students' capacity to intervene and take action to mitigate SH and SV (Bennett et al., 2014). The bystander model has demonstrated effectiveness in promoting behaviors and social norms to combat sexual misconduct.

The CSU is the country's largest public 4-year university system with 23 colleges and universities, over 55,000 faculty and staff, and 485,000 students. Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students' categories were filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) for this study. When examining the data, consideration should be given to the demographical makeup of the student population. The rural students represented 1,485 (n = 1,485), and the urban students represented 302 (n = 302). The number of graduate participants (n = 214) while undergraduates represented (n = 1,573). Four categories or independent variables were ascribed to students, and 29 dependent variables were attributed to this study.

The four categories of Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate race/ethnicity of participants were White (31.6%, n = 566), Black/African American (4.2%, n = 75), Latino/Hispanic (44.8%, n = 802), Asian/Pacific Islander (11.5%, n = 260), and Other (6.2%, n = 111). The gender of participants were males (24.8%, n = 442) and females (75.2%, n = 1,345). The results from the descriptive statistics and independent samples t-test of the predictor variables Rural_Urban revealed that 17 of 29 independent variables were statistically significant difference. The null hypothesis was rejected. An independent samples t-test of the predictor variable Undergraduate_Graduate revealed that 21 of 29 independent variables was not a statistically significant difference. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The independent

variables Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate are significantly different while the inverse is true of the dependent variables.

The results of the study were mixed, but important lessons can be gleaned from the reported data. The Rural_Urban divide on addressing SH and SV is real; this divide represents an opportunity for policy makers to close this gap by reimagining their EBP training programs. The predictor variable Undergraduate_Graduate contradicted empirical evidence which suggested variables such as older students (Diamond-Welch et al., 2016) and experience (Forke et al., 2008) would impact attitudes, behaviors, and willingness to intervene to halt SH and SV.

Once again, this unfortunate result provides an opportunity for CSU administrators to investigate this phenomenon further to discover what possible drivers are at play supporting adverse attitudes and behaviors that become barriers to responding to SH and SV. Another interesting aspect of the data was the parity between categories Rural_Urban when filtered by the dependent variable skills/behavior signified as Sk_Beh_A1- Sk_Beh_E5. Although there was a significant difference between Rural_Urban when filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behavior, these competencies do not necessarily translate to taking action when confronted by sexual misconduct on their campus.

These results were like Diamond-Welch et al.'s (2016) study, which considered the students' community of origin (rural or urban) and found that these categories alone made no difference in students' willingness to intervene as a bystander. The researchers pointed out that when community of origin was paired with other categories such as gender and race, interesting patterns emerged. Rural younger-aged minority women had the lowest rate of rape myth acceptance. At the same time, younger-aged urban White males had the highest rate of rape myth acceptance. In addition, community background impacted bystander behaviors among students,

with younger-aged minorities from rural areas reporting more than their White and older-aged minorities from rural backgrounds.

The strengths and weaknesses of the dataset and independent samples *t*-test-test were also considered when reporting the result of the data analysis. In some tests of the dependent variables, the normality assumption was violated, or outliers may have been present. Therefore, the independent samples *t*-test may not have been the most powerful test. This could mean the difference between detecting a true difference or not. In these cases, a Welch's *t*-test was utilized.

A Welch *t*-test has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and size. If group sizes are vastly unequal and homogeneity of variance is violated, then the *F* statistic will be biased when large sample variances are associated with small group sizes. When this occurs, the significance level will be underestimated, which can cause the null hypothesis to be falsely rejected.

When SD was filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors/skills, the results revealed no significant SD between Rural_Urban populations across awareness and knowledge. However, the data found a significant SD between Rural_Urban populations across attitudes and behaviors/skills. The results suggest a significant difference between Rural_Urban students' attitudes and behavior/skills, although there is no significant difference between these populations' awareness and knowledge of SH and SV. Differences identified across Aware_SV may explain the SD disparity between Rural_Urban students. Some students may not be as aware or knowledgeable of the signs of SH/violence, and attitudes and behaviors/skills may be impacted.

Four categories or independent variables (Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate) were ascribed to students, and 29 dependent variables were attributed to this study. The

dependent variables were awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors, SD across, SDAwareness, SDKnowledge, SDAttitudes, SDBehaviorSkills, Aware_SV (sexual violence), Aware_SA (SA), Aware_Rape, Aware_DV (dating violence), Aware_Stalk (stalking), Knowl_A1(knowledge), Knowl_B2, Knowl_C3, Knowl_D4, Knowl_E5, Attitu_ A (attitude), Attitu_B, Attitu_C, Attitu_D, Attitu_E , Sk_Beh_A1(skills/behaviors), Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, Sk_Beh_D1, and T Sk_Beh_E1. Each dependent variable filtered each category/independent variable.

Diamond-Welch et al. (2016) examined how university students' characteristics (i.e., gender, age, and race) affect their bystander intervention attitudes in SA situations. How would these variables affect violence myth acceptance, intention to intervene, empathy, bystander efficacy, and bystander behaviors? This study's contribution to the literature was to examine how community of origin (Rural_Urban) status differentials (Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999) {Undergraduate_Graduate} contribute to awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) that support responding to SH and SV on their campus. The following research question(s) were examined in this study:

- RQ1: Is there a statistically significant difference between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?
- RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference between Undergraduate_Graduate students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus?

- H20: There is not a statistically significant difference (p>0.05) between Rural_Urban students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors to respond to SH/violence at a rural or urban state university campus?
- H2a: There is a statistically significant difference (p>0.05) between Undergraduate_Graduate students' attitudes, behaviors, awareness, knowledge, and skills to respond to SH and SV at a rural or urban state university campus.

The study aimed to explore if a significant difference existed between Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students' competencies to respond to SH and SV. Descriptive statistics and independent samples *t*-test were conducted to investigate the categorical variables to test the null hypothesis. The test results were mixed. There was a statistically significant difference between communities of origin, Rural_Urban, and the null hypothesis was rejected. However, there was no statistically significant difference between status differentials Undergraduate_Graduate, and the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. The descriptive statistics analysis showed that Latino/Hispanic (44.8%, $n = 802$) and females (75.2%, $n = 1{,}345$) were the most frequently observed variables.

Independent samples *t*-tests one through four were conducted to examine Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors. A two-tailed samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test (awareness) based on an alpha value of .05, $t\ (403.72) = -4.42$, $p < .001$, was significant, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The *t*-test (knowledge) result based on an alpha value of .05, $t\ (1785) = 2.18$, $p = .029$, was

significant, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the samples *t*-test (attitudes) based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -2.54, p = .011, was significant, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The *t*-test result (skills/behavior) based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -0.99, p = .320, was insignificant, indicating the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Independent samples *t*-test number five was conducted to examine whether the mean of SD_Across was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The result of the t-test (SD Across) based on an alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 4.51, p <.001, was significant, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of SD_Across was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban.

The test measured the SD across awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors, and found a significant difference between the categories Rural_Urban. Despite the individual test of skills/behaviors failing to reject the null hypothesis, the competencies as a group were significantly different between categories Rural_Urban. More investigation should unearth more information about the relationship between these variables.

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test number six through nine was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDAwareness, SDKnowledge, SDAttitudes, and SDBehaviorsSkills was significantly different between categories of Rural_Urban. A Welch's *t*-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and sample sizes. The *t*-test (SDAwareness) result was significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (458.82) = -2.81, p = .005, indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the *t*-test (SDKnowledge) alpha value of .05, t (1784) = -1.35, p = .178 was not significantly different; therefore, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

The result of the T-test SDAttitudes (alpha value of .05, t (414.32) = -2.05, p = .04) and SDBehaviorsSkills (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = -2.16, p = .031) was significantly different, therefore and the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result reveals no significant difference for the dependent variable SDKnowledge between the categories Rural_urban, which may mean that knowledge is not a predictor of attitudes or behaviors/skills. Similar findings were discovered in the Diamond-Welch et al.'s (2016) study.

A two-tailed independent samples t-test number 10 was conducted to examine whether the mean of Aware_SV, Aware_SA, Aware_Rape, and Aware_DV was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. Welch's t-test was used, which has higher statistical power when the two samples have unequal variances and unequal sample sizes. The result of the t-test (Aware_SV) alpha value of .05, t (407.48) = -4.63, p < .001, was significant, meaning the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the t-test (Aware_SA) (alpha value of .05, t (407.06) = -5.11, p < .001) was significant; therefore, the null hypothesis could be rejected.

The result of the t-test (Aware_Rape) was significant (alpha value of .05, t (413.42) = -3.85, p < .001), indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. The result of the t-test Aware_DV (alpha value of .05, t (412.86) = -3.29, p = .001) was significant. Therefore, the null The t-test (Aware_Stalk) result was significant (alpha value of .05, t (416.76) = -2.84, p = .005), indicating that the null hypothesis could be rejected.

These findings suggest the mean of Aware_SV, Aware_SA, Aware_Rape, and Aware_DV was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban. This result may reflect the impact of large social justice movements such as Times Up and #MeToo and high-profile court cases such as music writer/producer Robert Kelly and movie producer Harvey Weinstein. This

result may also reflect that increased awareness may not translate to knowledge or improved attitudes.

A two-tailed independent sample *t*-test number 11 was conducted to examine whether the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 (knowledge) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Knowl_A1, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1782) = 1.36, p = .174, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Knowl_D4, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1775) = 1.12, p = .262, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Knowl_E5, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = 1.93, p = .053, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of Knowl_A1, Knowl_D4, and Knowl_E5 was not significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban.

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test number 12 was conducted to examine whether the mean of Attitu_B, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E (attitude) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Attitu_B, was insignificant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1779) = -1.39, p = .164, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Attitu_D was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1777) = -1.92, p = .054, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, Attitu_E was not significant based on an alpha value of .05, t (1773) = -1.78, p = .075, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These finding suggest the mean of Attitu_B, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E was not significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban.

Failure to reject the null hypothesis for the dependent variables may signal a shift in the community of origin (Rural_urban) discourse. More needs to be discovered about the relationship between Rural_Urban and attitudes. The mean of Attitu_A and Attitu_C (attitude) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_Urban, suggesting there could be some protective factors that could be leveraged to improve attitudes among Rural_Urban students.

The independent samples *t*-test number 13thirteen was conducted to examine whether the mean of Sk_Beh_A1, Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, Sk_Beh_D1, and Sk_E1 (Skills/Behaviors) was significantly different between the categories of Rural_urban. The *t*-test result, Sk_Beh_A1-E1, was insignificant, indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. The results were mixed, so it was difficult to infer meaning from this data point without additional research.

It could be that no significant difference exists in how these populations respond to SH and SV. There was a significant difference when observing the results of awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors, again highlighting the issue of culture, value, and social norms and what Schein (1992) referred to as strong versus weak culture. In this case, a campus culture is potentially too weak to act when necessary to intervene in response to SH and SV.

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test number 14 was conducted to examine whether the mean of awareness (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.06, p = .950) significantly differed between the categories of U_G. This finding suggests the mean of awareness was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test was conducted to examine whether the mean of knowledge (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.23, p = .026), attitudes (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.97, p = .049), and skills/behaviors (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.40, p = .016) was significantly different between the categories of U_G.

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test number 15 was conducted to examine whether the mean of SD_Across significantly differed between the categories of U_G. This finding suggests the mean of SD_Across (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 0.83, p = .408) was not significantly different between the categories of U_G.

A two-tailed independent samples *t*-test number 16 was conducted to examine whether the mean of SDAwareness and SDBehaviorSkills significantly differed between the categories of U_G. The result of the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test, SDBehaviorsSkills, (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 1.83, p = .068), indicating the null hypothesis could not be rejected. These findings suggest the mean of SDAwareness and SDBehaviorsSkills was not significantly different between the categories of U_G.

Independent samples *t*-test number 17 Knowl_C3 (alpha value of .05, t (259.61) = 2.98, p = .003), indicating the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of Knowl_C3 was significantly different between the categories of U_G. The independent *t*-test number 18 revealed the mean of Attitu_A, Attitu_B, Attitu_C, Attitu_D, and Attitu_E was not significantly different between the categories of U_G. The independent samples *t*-test number 19 Sk_Beh_E1 (alpha value of .05, t (1785) = 2.88, p = .004). Therefore, the null hypothesis could be rejected. This finding suggests the mean of Sk_Beh_E1 was significantly different between the categories of U_G, while the mean of Sk_Beh_A1, Sk_Beh_B1, Sk_Beh_C1, and Sk_Beh_D1 was not significantly different between the categories of U_G.

Discussion of Results

This non-experimental quantitative research study explored whether a significant difference existed between Rural_Urban and Undergraduate_Graduate students' competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors) to respond to SH and SV at their

CSU campus. The design of this study is to determine if mandated prevention programs, federal, state laws, policies and procedures are reflected in the shared meaning, values, norms, and organizational culture of the university and its students.

This research was rooted in organizational culture (Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1992; Smart & St. John, 1996). As previously stated, Smart and St. John (1996) stated that this alignment between espoused values, beliefs, and practices is the defining characteristic of a strong culture. This is due to the strong culture's arbitrating factor as a facilitating mechanism that assists in developing consensus, information dissemination, and coordination of activities.

Organizational culture in every institution significantly influences individual and group attitudes and behaviors (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Utilizing an organizational cultural framework provides an opportunity to review and assess the institution's "shared meaning" in response to SH and SV. Analyzing students' awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) can determine if the CSU's culture, as self-reported by students, is suitable for reducing the prevalence of on-campus sexual misconduct.

Most members typically express the more dominant culture in an organization as its core value. Less dominant subcultures may develop in larger institutions, reflecting the common experiences of a subset of members. Improving the knowledge, awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors (competencies) of students to respond to SH and SV and prevent it from taking root on-campus becomes imperative for student outcomes and institutional cohesion. Robbins and Judge (2017) and Schein (1992) both argued that organizational culture is a system of shared meaning held by its members that distinguish one organization from another. In a time

of renewed effort to offer students a safe, supportive learning environment, where do CSU and its students stand?

The data offer opportunities to build on the commonality of the categorical variables. Undergraduate_Graduate students are not saddled by what Diamond-Welch et al. (2016) identified as status differentials. When taking a closer look at the data results, these two populations statistically share the same awareness regarding SV, SA, rape, DV, and stalking, similar knowledge, attitudes, and capacity to respond to SH and SV, if necessary (SK_Beh_A1-D1). This shared meaning can be built upon to strengthen organizational culture at their respective campus and within the CSU.

Table 35

Independent Sample t-*test of Predictor Variables*

Competencies At A Glance	Rural Students		Urban Students	
	M	SD	*M*	SD
Awareness	1.88	*0.89*	1.61	*0.99*
Knowledge	4.56	*1.14*	4.72	*1.16*
Attitudes	2.09	*0.87*	1.95	*0.88*
Skills/Behaviors	1.98	*0.92*	1.92	*0.97*
	Significant Difference		**No Significant Difference**	

Table 35 highlights the results of an Independent Samples T-test of the predictor variables rural students versus urban students in the following competencies (awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors). The results revealed rural students' awareness as $M = 1.88$; $SD = 0.89$, knowledge as $M = 4.56$; $SD = 1.14$, attitudes as $M = 2.09$; $SD = 0.87$, and skills/behaviors as $M = 1.98$; $SD = 0.92$. Conversely, urban students' awareness was $M = 1.66$; $SD = 0.99$,

knowledge as $M = 4.72$; $SD = 1.16$, attitudes $M = 1.95$; $SD = 0.88$, and skills/behaviors $M = 1.92$; $SD = 0.97$.

A comprehensive literature review of the predictor variables and competencies (awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors) found that these differences between rural and urban students because they are significant, may contribute to a lack of an appropriate response to sexual harassment and violence in a college or university setting. Furthermore, these students may be less likely to report instances of sexual harassment and violence they witness or experience themselves. Diamond-Welch et al. (2016) considered the students' community of origin (e.g., rural or urban) and found that these characteristics alone made no difference in students' willingness to intervene. However, interesting patterns emerged when "community of origin" was paired with specific traits. For example, rural younger-aged minority women had the lowest rates of rape myth acceptance, while younger-aged urban white males had the highest rate of rape myth acceptance.

The significant differences highlighted in the data (knowledge, attitude competencies) are important because rape myth acceptance (misconceptions or misinformation about sexual assault) has been identified as a determinant increasing the prevalence or likelihood for sexual harassment and violence occurrence (Diamond-Welch et al., 2016). These significant differences in knowledge and attitudes for rural students when compared to urban students are attributed in the literature to exposure to information, discussions, and access to comprehensive sexuality education. Coverage of these topics can vary significantly between rural and urban primary, middle, and high schools. Lastly, the urban students' environment may offer more opportunities for education and exposure to these topics (Rich et al., 2008).

Conversely, social and cultural norms about gender roles and expression may differ among urban and rural students, impacting perceptions about acceptable behavior. These attitudes may act as a catalyst to creating an environment where sexual misconduct can flourish. In addition, urban students, compared to their rural peers, may also have more opportunities to develop skills that support appropriate responses to sexual harassment and violence, such as assertiveness and bystander intervention, because they may be exposed to diverse social situations.

Table 36

Independent Samples t-*test Predictor Variables*

Competencies At A Glance	Undergraduate Students		Graduate Students	
	M	SD	*M*	SD
Awareness	**1.84**	***0.9***	**1.83**	***0.96***
Knowledge	4.61	*1.13*	4.43	*1.21*
Attitudes	2.08	*0.86*	1.96	*0.91*
Skills/Behaviors	1.99	*0.93*	1.82	*0.97*
	Significant Difference		**No Significant Difference**	

Table 36 highlights the results of an Independent Samples T-test of the predictor variables undergraduate students versus graduate students in the following competencies (awareness, knowledge, attitudes, skills/behaviors). The results revealed undergraduate students' awareness $M = 1.84$; $SD = 0.9$, knowledge $M = 4.61$; $SD = 1.13$, attitudes $M = 2.08$; $SD = 0.86$, and skills/behaviors $M = 1.99$; $SD = 0.93$. Conversely, graduate students' awareness $M = 1.83$; $SD = 0.96$, knowledge $M = 4.43$; $SD = 1.21$, attitudes $M = 1.96$; $SD = 0.91$, and skills/behaviors $M = 1.82$; $SD = 0.97$.

The dataset revealed no significant difference in awareness competency between undergraduate and graduate students. A comprehensive literature review of the predictor variables undergraduate and graduate students and competencies (awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors) found that differences between each competency, if significant, can contribute to the development of attitudes and behaviors that act as a barrier to addressing sexual harassment and violence.

It is suggested that younger undergraduate status (18-24 years old) may be a determinant for victimization, including sexual harassment and violence, compared to older graduate students. Sigal and Jacobsen (1999) asserted that attitudes toward women, status differentials (e.g., undergraduates and graduates' status), and local climate (e.g., attitudes supporting or opposing sexual harassment) are typical characteristics or traits of a population that can support or hinder progress mitigating sexual harassment and violence.

Furthermore, these deleterious beliefs and attitudes about sexual harassment and violence function to normalize a culture that informs how students within higher education interpret and respond to incidents of sexual misconduct. Therefore, policy prescriptions to address sexual harassment and violence can only go so far. Assumptions, attitudes, and belief systems that promote and normalize a culture of violence must be challenged through a competency agenda that promotes a cultural shift in beliefs, attitudes, values, and norms that influence how sexual harassment and violence are both perceived and confronted by all students.

The predictor variables rural versus urban and undergraduate versus graduate in the literature review represent demographic factors that can influence institutional and individual responses to address sexual harassment and violence college students witness or experience. These factors include awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors toward bystander

intervention, acceptance of rape myths, reporting behavior, and assertiveness in resisting coercion (Diamond-Welch et al., 2016; Rich et al., 2008). Finally, the literature review contributes to our understanding of the complex factors that shape attitudes, behaviors, and experiences related to sexual assault on college campuses. The literature illuminates the need for targeted interventions that include cultural competency and bystander intervention strategies and debunks harmful myths while empowering students to take proactive steps in preventing sexual harassment and violence while supporting survivors (Jaramillo et al., 2023; McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

The data analysis did identify a significant difference between the categories Rural_Urban when filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behavior (competencies). The null hypothesis was rejected. The data analysis did not find a significant difference between the categories Undergraduate_Graduate. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

Although the data results were mixed, there are some key takeaways from the study. First, the Rural_Urban divide is real. It appears awareness and knowledge had little effect on attitudes and behaviors in willingness to respond to SH and SV. This result is important because Smart and St. John (1996) posited that for culture to contribute to increased performance, it must be strong and include certain traits that embrace certain values, beliefs, and shared behavior patterns. It is not enough for values and beliefs to be backed up by policies, procedures, and practices. These beliefs, values, and norms must be adopted and promulgated by the people, in this case, the CSU and its students.

Limitations of the Study

Certain limitations relative to the design of the research study or sampling strategy are intrinsic to any survey. The use of secondary data may add some limitations to the study. The survey instrument and data coding may also limit the reliability of some of the data due to transference error, participant error, and reverse scoring.

Other limitations to this study are generalizability, the unpredictability of measures, and the inability to control for superfluous variance, and normal distribution. This study investigated categorical independent variables filtered by dependents to explore if a statistical difference exists. The secondary data was collected 5 years ago before the social upheaval of student and campuses by the COVID-19 pandemic, the #MeToo, TimesUp, and #BlackLivesMatter movements. The CSU is one of the most diverse 4-year IHE in the nation but might not reflect the demographics of other 4-year institutions (Evans et al., 2023).

In addition, the study is descriptive and does not support causal inferences about why some students choose or do not respond to SH and SV. The researcher did not evaluate other dependent variables that may influence these decision points for students, such as socioeconomic status, race, and participant origin (out-of-state/in-state student).

Recommendations for Further Research

The recommendations for future research from this study include utilizing a different research design, such as mixed methods. A mixed methods design would potentially answer some questions regarding influencing factors or barriers to students responding to SH and SV. In addition, exploring the role of gender, age, predisposition to perpetration, organizational structure, organizational climate, competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors), cultural competency, cultural competency agenda, and unfunded mandate

reforms. This study also revealed very few programs tailored for college men who experience SH and SV. The CDC (2022) reported that men represent one in nine victims of attempted or completed rape. The literature review outlines the barriers to reporting SH and SV so the CDC number of reported SAs on young men are more than likely understated.

Implication of the Results for Practice

The results of this study can be utilized by higher education administrators responsible for policy, compliance, and training. Practitioners interested in promoting a safer campus learning environment through the adoption of best practices that offer more than just compliance can also benefit from this study. Responding and mitigating to sexual discrimination including SH and SV is federal law.

Institutions found not in compliance with applicable law risk severe financial penalty, reputational risk, but more important, they risk the lives of students depending on university staff to provide a safe learning environment where they can thrive. This research concluded that the data analysis identified a significant difference between categories Rural_Urban when filtered by awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behavior (competencies). The data analysis did not find a significant difference between the categories Undergraduate_Graduate .

Conclusion

The results of this research study were mixed. The H10 was rejected; there was a statistically significant difference for categories Rural_Urban when filtered by competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors). The H20 could not be rejected; there was no statistically significant difference for categories Undergraduate_Graduate when filtered by competencies (i.e., awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills/behaviors).

Although the results were mixed, the study findings did provide some new inferences to draw upon when exploring attitudes and skills/behaviors of Urban_Rural college students responding to SH and SV at colleges and universities. Rich and Seffrin (2012) posited that SV crimes are underreported because survivors are reluctant to engage with authority figures. These victims fear retaliation and revictimization at the hands of these authorities.

Developing an organizational culture responsive to SH and SV on campus will require a commitment to the CSU's espoused values, beliefs, and artifacts (i.e., policies and procedures). In addressing on-campus sexual misconduct of any kind, students are the institution's front-line defense; their competencies level, bystander efficacy, bystander empathy, and the reduction of reported cases will be the future metrics by which the CSU should measure its successful response to SH and SV.

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APPENDIX

Non-Exempt IRB Approval Form

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

June 1, 2022

Protocol #: 6122

Project Title: MANDATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE: PREVENTION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF STUDENT RESPONSE TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT/VIOLENCE & MISCONDUCT THROUGH A FRAMEWORK OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Dear Andrew:

Thank you for submitting a "GPS IRB Non-Human Subjects Notification Form" for *MANDATED SEXUAL VIOLENCE: PREVENTION IN HIGHER EDUCATION: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF STUDENT RESPONSE TO SEXUAL HARASSMENT/VIOLENCE & MISCONDUCT THROUGH A FRAMEWORK OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE* project to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for review. The IRB has reviewed your submitted form and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above titled project meets the requirements for *non-human subject research* under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protection of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the form that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved project occur, you will be required to submit *either* a new "GPS IRB Non-Human Subjects Notification Form" or an IRB application via the eProtocol system (https://irb.pepperdine.edu) to the Institutional Review Board.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at https://community.pepperdine.edu/irb/policies/.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval.

On behalf of the IRB, we wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Institutional Review Board (IRB)
Pepperdine University

cc: Mrs. Katy Carr, Assistant Provost for Research
Dr. Judy Ho, Graduate School of Education and Psychology IRB Chair