Summary of the Grinnell College Sexual Conduct: Culture and Respect Survey for the 2012–13 and 2014–15 Academic Years

Christopher Ralston, Tyler Anderson ’16, Rachel Cusick ’17,
Jen-Ai Notman ’16, Hayley Levin ’16, Nele Löcher ’17, and Erin Weber ’16
Grinnell College

Author’s note: This document represents, in part, the results of Mentored Advanced Projects completed during the summer of 2015 by Anderson, Cusick, Notman, Levin, Löcher, and Weber. Ralston served as their faculty adviser.

Report submitted to the Grinnell College community on Nov. 8, 2015

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

During the spring 2013 semester, the Grinnell College Task Force on Safety, Responsibility, and Prevention (hereafter referred to as the task force) commissioned Christopher A. Ralston, Department of Psychology, to coordinate and conduct a survey of sexual conduct at Grinnell College. The purpose of the survey was to establish base rates for various forms of sexual misconduct and to identify areas in which the campus community could intervene to prevent future incidents of such misconduct. Domain areas sampled included rates of intimate partner abuse, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and attempted or completed sexual assault, including antecedents to and co-occurring behaviors and factors for all forms of misconduct. Further, the survey asked participants about other topics, such as their perception of forms of sexual misconduct as a problem on the Grinnell College campus, definitions of consent, and engagement in active bystander behaviors.

With the assistance of students, faculty, and staff, the survey was revised in the fall 2014 semester and administered again during the spring 2015 semester. This second survey allowed an opportunity to determine how rates of various forms of sexual misconduct, perceptions about sexual misconduct as a problem on campus, student definitions of consent, and engagement in active bystander behavior have changed over time in response to prevention and educational efforts since the 2013 survey. In addition to the areas surveyed previously, additional sections were added to the 2015 survey to address stalking, experiences with reporting sexual misconduct, perceptions of and experiences with the conduct process, observations of active bystander behaviors, and acceptance of rape myth attitudes.

Analyses of the data commenced during the summer of 2015 by Tyler Anderson ’16, Rachel Cusick ’17, Jen-Ai Notman ’16, Hayley Levin ’16, Nele Löcher ’17, and Erin Weber ’16 as part of the completion of a Mentored Advanced Project (MAP), under the direction of Christopher A. Ralston, associate professor of psychology at Grinnell College. A preliminary report of the findings was presented to the College’s Title IX deputies on Aug. 3, 2015. Data analyses were completed Oct. 3, 2015, resulting in this final report.

Though this project was funded by several organizations within Grinnell College, the views and opinions expressed in this report should not be construed to reflect the College’s official opinion on issues related to sexual misconduct. Instead, the views, opinions, and interpretations results reflect those of the authors of this document alone.

KEY FINDINGS

Rates of Sexual Misconduct

Several findings from the survey are noteworthy. First, sexual misconduct does occur at Grinnell College. Across the two survey administrations, 37.3% of participants reported experiencing one or more forms of sexual misconduct (excluding stalking, which was only surveyed in 2015) in the academic year they took the survey. The rate of experience was 42.4% in 2013, but the rate

was significantly lower (33.1%) in 2015. When stalking experiences were included, the rate of any form of sexual misconduct in 2015 rose to 35.6%, which remained significantly lower than the rate observed in 2013. The rates of all types of misconduct are reported in Table ES1.

Table ES1. Rates of sexual misconduct by type of misconduct.

Rate of Experience	Stalking	Intimate Partner Abuse	Unwanted Sexual Communication	Unwanted Sexual Touching	Attempted or Completed Sexual Assault
2012–13 academic year					
unsure	*NA*	*NA*	8.6%	5.5%	1.4%
yes	*NA*	12.5%	19.0%	17.3%	3.3%
combined	*NA*	12.5%	27.5%	22.8%	4.7%
2014–15 academic year					
unsure	2.5%	*NA*	3.2%	2.4%	0.9%
yes	3.9%	12.8%	14.4%	13.1%	3.2%
combined	6.4%	12.8%	17.5%	15.5%	4.0%
Any time during college					
2015 only	14.2%	NA	25.9%	24.3%	7.9%

Note NA = Not Assessed. Unsure responses represent instances where participants reported affirmatively to the item "I'm not sure, but something like this happened" in response to a sexual misconduct definition. Intimate partner abuse was not assessed by asking participants to respond to a misconduct definition, and thus, there were no "unsure" responses. Confidence intervals for these rates are provided later in chapters devoted to each form of sexual misconduct. Rates for any time in college were only assessed in 2015.

The rates of sexual misconduct at any time during college were assessed during the 2015 survey administration. In total, 46.4% of participants reported experiencing at least one instance of sexual misconduct since entering college. This value included rates of intimate partner abuse, even though that type of misconduct was assessed only for the then-current academic year. Thus, the 46.4% rate might underestimate the true rate of sexual misconduct since entering college. The rates for specific sexual misconduct types at any time during college are presented in Table ES1. When limited only to physical forms of sexual misconduct (unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault), 25.9% of survey participants in 2015 reported experiencing sexual misconduct since entering college.

Stalking

Overall, 3.9% of survey participants were certain they were stalked during the 2014–15 academic year, and 6.4% of participants experienced behavior that may have been stalking. These rates were not significantly different from rates reported by the American College Health Association (ACHA) from a sample of more than 66,000 undergraduate students in 2014.

Cisgender women (9.0%) and participants who identified as transgender or of other genders (9.7%) reported experiencing stalking at a higher rate than cisgender men (1.9%). Twelve-month national averages for stalking from the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey

were 4.0% for women and 1.3% for men (Black et al., 2010). The rate for women at Grinnell College was significantly higher than the rate reported in that study, while the rate for men at Grinnell College was statistically equivalent. The National College Women Sexual Victimization study found the 12-month stalking incident rate for female students to be between 13.1% and 10.5% (Fisher et al., 2000), statistically equivalent to the rate observed at Grinnell College. Similarly, the rates for cisgender female participants at Grinnell College were marginally higher than those reported in the ACHA study mentioned above (6.6%), while cisgender male participants reported rates that were not statistically different from those found by the ACHA (3%). When considering rates of stalking since entering college, cisgender female (18.4%) and male (6.9%) participants reported significantly higher rates than those reported by the Association of American Universities' (AAU) study (6.7% and 2.2%, respectively, Cantor et al., 2015), while transgender or other gender Grinnell College participants reported rates (19.4%) that were not significantly different from the rates reported by the AAU (12.1%).

Stalking was most likely to be perpetrated by other students, either friends or acquaintances, and occurred most often in public places and at multiple locations across campus. Stalking using electronic means also was quite common (e.g., via text message and social media). Nearly 60% of stalking victims reported that their experience lasted longer than one month.

Intimate Partner Abuse

Nearly 60% of participants in both survey years reported being in a dating relationship, as it was defined by the survey. Approximately 24% of those participants who were in dating relationships or nearly 13% of all participants regardless of dating history, reported one or more behaviors that could be considered intimate partner abuse (IPA). The rates were not statistically different between survey administrations. An analysis of the rates of experience by a number of demographic subgroups revealed that domestic students of color, cisgender women, and non-heterosexual participants were the most at-risk groups for IPA.

To contextualize these findings, several comparisons were made to rates observed in national benchmarking studies. The rate most directly comparable because of the use of the same research tool to identify IPA was generated in the College Dating Violence and Abuse survey conducted by Knowledge Networks Inc. (Peugh & Glauber, 2011). In that study, 43% of college women and 28% of college men experienced IPA during college. Those rates are significantly higher than the rates of IPA observed at Grinnell College. Similarly, the rates of physically violent IPA at Grinnell College (1.6% for cisgender women and 1.2% for cisgender men) were significantly lower than the rates reported in the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey of more than 16,000 individuals (4.0% for women and 4.7% for men; Black et al., 2011). Alternatively, the rate of physically violent IPA at Grinnell College was not significantly different from the rate (2.0%) reported by the ACHA in its 2014 survey of more than 66,000 undergraduate students, and the nonsignificant differences were consistent for cisgender female and male participants. A similar pattern emerged for comparisons of the rates at Grinnell College to the results of the AAU study (Cantor et al., 2015). Though definitional differences make the comparison somewhat problematic, the rate of sexual coercion in an intimate partner relationship (e.g., "pressured me into having sex") at Grinnell College (6.5%) was significantly higher than the rate of forced sexual acts (e.g., "forced to have sex when you didn't want it") reported by the ACHA (1.8%).

When asked about reasons for not leaving an abusive relationship, a substantial number of participants cited a general lack of awareness about what constitutes IPA. Other relatively common reasons for not leaving included fear of losing friends and threats by the partners to harm themselves if the relationships ended. Given these reasons, educational efforts are warranted to raise awareness of what constitutes abuse, as well as resources for how to leave such a relationship.

Unwanted Sexual Communication

The rate of unwanted sexual communication (USC) dropped significantly from 2013 (27.5%) to 2015 (17.5%). Despite that statistically significant decrease, cisgender women and men at Grinnell College experience unwanted sexual communication at rates significantly higher than the rates reported in the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Black et al., 2011). At the same time, the rates at Grinnell College were less than the rates reported by the AAU across all gender groups (Cantor et al., 2015). Also, over 40% of participants who experienced unwanted sexual communication stated that they received such communication from two or more people within the past year, and over 50% reported they had such experiences on more than one occasion. The most common experience was hearing the communication in person (80.0%), but many also reported experiencing unwanted sexual communication by text message (22.5%) or social media (15.5%).

Students at greatest risk for experiencing USC included first-year students, heterosexual female, non-heterosexual male participants, and both nondomestic and nonwhite participants. Unwanted sexual communication occurred most frequently at parties, especially parties at Harris Center and Gardner Lounge, and the perpetrator was reported to be intoxicated in approximately two-thirds of the incidents. Physical force co-occurred in just over one-fifth of the incidents.

Unwanted Sexual Touching

In 2013, 22.8% of participants reported experiencing unwanted sexual touching (UST). That rate was significantly higher than the rate (15.5%) reported by participants in 2015. Despite this statistically significant decrease, nearly one-quarter (24.3%) of participants reported experiencing such misconduct since entering college. To put these numbers into context, a study of college women's experiences conducted by the U.S. Department of Justice's Office of Justice Programing (DOJ-OJP) found that 18.0% of their participants experienced unwanted sexual contact in the previous 12 months (Fisher et al., 2000), a rate not statistically different from the rate observed at Grinnell College. However, the Grinnell College rate was significantly higher than the 7.6% rate reported in the 2014 ACHA-funded study of college undergraduates. The Grinnell College rates also were significantly higher than the current year and any time since entering college rates reported by the AAU across gender categories.

Just over 40% of participants who reported unwanted sexual touching also reported that they had such experiences perpetrated by more than one person. In addition, a similar number reported experiencing unwanted sexual touching on more than one occasion. In 2015, the most common perpetrators of such incidents were deemed strangers (34.8%), followed by friends (28.3%) and acquaintances (26.1%). Concurrent threat or force was experienced in one in five cases in 2015.

Cisgender female students were more likely to be perpetrated against by a person of a different sex while cisgender male students were equally as likely to be perpetrated against by a person of the same sex or different sex.

The most common location for unwanted sexual touching was in a public location on campus. Parties, more generally, were the primary location (67.9%) of such incidents, whether they are on or off campus. Specifically, students were at most risk to experiencing unwanted touching at a Harris Center or Gardner Lounge party (40.2%). The chances of experiencing UST were further increased when alcohol or other drugs were involved. The perpetrator was judged to be intoxicated in 70.7% of such incidents; and in just over half of the incidents, both the perpetrator and victim were intoxicated.

Furthermore, there were specific groups at Grinnell College that were more at risk of experiencing unwanted sexual touching. Although not the case in 2013, first-year students were at more risk of experiencing UST than any other academic year; and, in general, younger students were more at risk than older students in 2015. Cisgender female students were at the highest risk for experiencing such misconduct. Additionally, heterosexual cisgender females and non-heterosexual males were more at risk to experience unwanted sexual touching than any other sexually oriented group on campus. Lastly, domestic students of color and international students were more at risk of experiencing unwanted sexual touching than domestic Caucasian students.

Attempted or Completed Sexual Assault

The rates of attempted or completed sexual assault did not change in a statistically significant way across survey administrations. In 2013, 4.7% of participants reported experiencing an attempted or completed assault, while 4.0% of participants reported such an experience in 2015. Further, in 2015 7.9% of participants reported having experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault since entering college. Of those, nearly 90% reported that they had experienced at least one completed assault, and nearly 14% experienced more than one sexual assault.

To put these numbers in context, Krebs and colleagues' Campus Sexual Assault study of nearly 5,500 undergraduate women (2007) found that 19% of their sample had experienced sexual assault since entering college. That rate was significantly higher than the same rate for cisgender women at Grinnell College (10.6%). The Grinnell College rate also was significantly lower than that found with a more recent nationally representative sample of undergraduate student conducted by *The Washington Post* and Kaiser Family Foundation (2015). In that sample, 20% of women and 5% of men reported experiencing sexual assault sometime during college. As noted later in the report, the difference in rates might be due, in part, to methodological differences.

The Grinnell College rates were similar to some national benchmark studies and higher than others. For example, the 12-month Grinnell College rates were consistent with those identified from the 2014 ACHA study of undergraduate students. The Grinnell College rates also were not significantly different than those reported for the AAU's survey of over 150,000 students. Fisher and colleagues (2000) in their DOJ-OJP funded study found that 2.8% of college women experienced attempted or completed sexual assault in the previous 12 months, a rate significantly lower than that observed for Grinnell College cisgender women (6%). The Grinnell College rate

also was significantly higher than the rate observed from 1995 through 2013 in National Crime Victimization Survey using a representative sample of U.S. women ages 18 to 24. In that study, the rate of rape and sexual assault was reported to be 4.3 out of 1000 (0.43%) for college students (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Further, the rate of attempted or completed sexual assault was significantly higher than the rate observed in the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey. In that study, the reported 12-month prevalence rate for rape was for women was 1.1% and that group's lifetime rate was 18.3%.

Some participant groups appeared to be at greater risk for attempted and completed sexual assault than others. For example, cisgender female and participants who identified as transgender or other genders reported experiencing sexual assault at rates four to five times higher than cisgender males. However, the rate of sexual assault for non-heterosexual males was consistent with the rate of sexual assault for both heterosexual and non-heterosexual female participants.

Some trends emerged regarding perpetrators of sexual assault. In over 80% of cases, the perpetrator was a member of the Grinnell College community, and in approximately 60% of cases, the victim perceived a power differential, whereby the perpetrator held some position of power over the victim. Strangers were the perpetrator of sexual assault in less than 10% of cases in 2015, while friends or acquaintances accounted for just over two-thirds of assaults. For female victims, nearly 90% of their perpetrators were judged to be of a different sex, while that was the case for only a third of male victims. Moderate to severe intoxication on the part of the victim and perpetrator occurred in nearly 70% of cases. The perpetrator was judged to be moderately or severely intoxicated in 56.5% of assaults, and the victim reported severe intoxication or incapacitation in nearly 40% of assaults. In 2015, slightly more than 40% of victims reported experiencing physical force prior to or during the assault.

The most common location for an assault to occur was in a dorm room (60%). The victim reported attending a party prior to the assault in approximately three-quarters of reports, and about half reported that there was a missed opportunity for a bystander intervention that could have prevented the assault.

Experiences of Any Type of Misconduct

Across the two survey administrations, 37.3% of participants reported experiencing one or more forms of sexual misconduct (excluding stalking, which was only surveyed in 2015). The rate of experience was 42.4% in 2013, but the rate was significantly lower (33.1%) in 2015. When stalking experiences were included, the rate of any form of sexual misconduct rose to 35.6%, which was still significantly lower than the rate observed in 2013.

Considering only unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault, 19.7% of all survey participants reported having experienced a physical form of sexual misconduct within the past year. However, the rate in 2015 was significantly lower (16.9%) than the same rate in 2013 (23.2%). Because the rates of attempted or completed sexual assault remained stable across survey administrations, this significant decrease is almost exclusively attributable to the reduction in rates of unwanted sexual touching from 2013 to 2015.

Excluding those who did not experience any sexual misconduct, the mean number of misconduct types experienced by those who experienced at least one form of misconduct was 1.58 (*SD* = .83) in 2012–13 and 1.57 (*SD* = 87) in 2014–15. The difference in those means was not statistically significant. Participant groups that seemed most at risk for any type of sexual misconduct included cisgender females, transgender or other gender students, non-heterosexual students, and domestic students of color.

Whereas 35.6% of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents in 2014–15, 46.4% of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents since starting college. Additionally, 25.9% of participants reported experiencing some form of physical sexual misconduct since starting college. No similar rate could be calculated for participants in 2013, as prior experiences were not surveyed during that administration. These rates were not stable across demographic group and suggest that some groups, particularly female and transgender or other gender students, may be more at risk for experiencing sexual misconduct than others. Nearly 40% of academic first-year participants reported experiencing some form of sexual misconduct in their first year of college, and the rates of experiencing some form of sexual misconduct since entering college increased only marginally for older participants. When considering other demographic variables in conjunction, 63.1% of academic fourth- or fifth-year female participants reported at least one experience of sexual misconduct since entering college, and 42.2% of those same individuals experienced a physical form of sexual misconduct. That latter rate far exceeds the rate observed in other studies. Further, female-identifying heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants reported rates of any form of sexual misconduct above 50%, while male-identifying non-heterosexual participants also appeared to experience an elevated risk, relative to their heterosexual counterparts.

Reporting Misconduct

In general, survey participants expressed some skepticism that College officials would be responsive to the concerns of victims of sexual misconduct when reported. Participants also expressed some skepticism that the College would take appropriate corrective action in such matters. Participants also perceived that it was not particularly likely that other students would make life difficult for victims. These beliefs were stable across participant subgroups.

When considering to whom to report incidents of sexual misconduct, campus advocates were endorsed by nearly 50% of all participants in 2015, representing a major increase in endorsement since 2013. Other confidential resources also were endorsed at a rate higher than nonconfidential sources. At the same time, Student Health and Counseling Services staff received a major decrease in endorsement as a possible reporting source from 2013 to 2015. This observed drop is likely due to the instability in staffing and the perception over the past few years that appointments are difficult to obtain. Observed drops in willingness to report to Campus Safety and Security and residence life coordinators also were observed. Participants in 2015 endorsed a willingness to report to local police, clergy, and the Title IX coordinator at significantly higher rates than in 2013. Seeing the Title IX coordinator as a reporting option nearly doubled from 2013 to 2015. Possibly, this increase is due to publicity around Title IX issues since 2013.

Concerning actual reporting, the proportion of participants who experienced sexual misconduct who reported their experience to an official resource increased by 4% from 2013 to 2015 (9.5%

to 13.6%). The rate of reporting attempted or completed sexual assault to college officials at Grinnell College in 2015 (35.4%) was higher than several rates observed in national benchmarking studies. Adequate comparison studies for other types of sexual misconduct were not available. Despite the relatively higher reporting rate for sexual assault, the rates of reporting across sexual misconduct of all other subtypes is still very low (13.6%), overall. With a rate this low, the vast majority of victims of sexual misconduct are not accessing and receiving services and resources that they are entitled to under federal regulations. Though non-reporters endorsed many reasons for not seeking help from an official resource, the primary reasons centered on not believing that what happened constituted abuse or not thinking that what happened was serious enough to warrant assistance. Wanting to deal with the issue privately also was reported as a strong reason. These patterns were largely stable across sexual misconduct subtype, with the exception of attempted and completed sexual assault. For those individuals, shame, embarrassment, and fear of not being believed or even blamed for their experience were cited at higher rates than victims of other types of misconduct, signaling the unique needs of these individuals when others respond to their reports.

Conduct Process Perceptions

Approximately half of survey participants reported that they perceived the conduct process to be fair or somewhat fair, and that perception seems to have increased slightly from 2013 to 2015. Further, more people in 2015 had an opinion about the fairness of the process than in 2013. However, perceptions of fairness were not stable across participant subgroups. For example, participants who identified as transgender or other genders were much more likely to rate the process as unfair than cisgender females, who were more likely to see the process as unfair than cisgender males.

Additional analyses were conducted on the responses of the 16 individuals who stated they reported a sexual assault to campus officials. Of those participants, four stated that the process was fair, three indicated that it was somewhat fair, seven described the process as unfair, and two provided responses that did not comment on the process fairness.

Multiple reasons were offered to support participants' ratings of fairness. Sizable numbers based their ratings on their perception that punishments provided to those found responsible for sexual misconduct are inadequate. Others based their ratings on perceptions of the inadequacy of procedures meant to separate victims from alleged perpetrators, inadequate support provided to victims throughout and after the conduct process, and biases against people from various subpopulations on campus that some perceived to be inherent to the conduct system. Proportionally fewer contended that there were inadequate supports for those accused of misconduct, that the process was too slow, and that the institution needed greater transparency in several areas. Many of these themes were echoed by victims who had actually experienced the conduct process as a complainant.

Participants offered many suggestions for improving the process. These suggestions included enhanced supports for victims and respondents, ideas for dialogue and education, specific policy and procedure reforms, increased and consistent punishment for perpetrators of misconduct, and increased transparency and leadership by administrators. Several other participants also used that

section of the survey to describe problematic social and cultural forces both globally and locally that affect how sexual misconduct occurs.

In the section describing these findings, every attempt was made to include comments that reflected themes that reoccurred across the responses. These comments and suggestions are a reflection of different participant experiences and may or may not be reflective of what the authors of this report believe. Some comments also included perceptions that might not be entirely accurate. However, each comment is provided because it reflects common themes among participants' personal experiences or the experiences of others they know. Additionally, some suggestions for improvement may or may not be practical or feasible, though each area represents an area for increased dialogue and investigation for possible change.

Perception of Misconduct as a Problem

Perceptions that various forms of sexual misconduct are a major problem at Grinnell College varied considerably, depending upon the type of misconduct. At the low end, relatively few survey participants reported stalking or intimate partner abuse as a major problem. Comparatively, between a third and a half of participants reported that unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and sexual assault are major problems at Grinnell College. These perceptions have remained relatively stable across time for all forms of sexual misconduct, except sexual assault. For that type, the proportion of participants who indicated it as a major problem increased from 37.7% in 2013 to 45.5% in 2015.

Predictors of who is most likely to view each form of sexual misconduct as a major problem were relatively stable across misconduct types. Generally, academic second- and fourth- or fifth-year, female-identifying, and non-heterosexual participants rated all forms of sexual misconduct as more of a problem than their counterparts. Additionally, the biggest predictor of perception of the problem for each type was any previous experience with that type of misconduct. Finally, it appeared that engagement in active bystander behaviors that directly address sexual misconduct was a predictor of problem perception for all types of misconduct. Presumably, stepping in to prevent or stop misconduct heightens personal awareness of such events on campus.

Active Bystander Behavior

The results of the analyses on active bystander behavior engagement are highlighted by several common themes. The most common theme was that female-identified participants engaged in significantly more active bystander behaviors than male-identified participants. Another layer of this theme is that heterosexual male-identified participants report fewer active bystander behaviors than non-heterosexual male-identified participants and both heterosexual and non-heterosexual female participants. This may indicate that programming to male-identified individuals may need to be restructured in order to have more impact. Perhaps surprisingly, having received active bystander training was not significantly related to engagement in any of those behaviors. Further, observation of others engaging in an active bystander behavior was linearly and moderately to strongly related with actual engagement in that same behavior. This result suggests that in order to have more impact, current active bystander programming should include opportunities to observe example behaviors or encouragement to observe others

engaging in these behaviors in other settings. These strategies may produce a more impactful effect on participation in bystander scenarios.

Rape Myth Attitudes

In general, the acceptance of rape myth attitudes was rare. This general disagreement with rape myths persisted across a variety of demographic subgroups, active bystander training experiences, and experiences with sexual misconduct. However, both male-identified participants and international students reported less disagreement with rape myths than did other subgroups. It is important to note, however, that these differences commonly represent a difference between "mostly disagree" and "strongly disagree" types of responses to rape-myth attitude questions.

Consent

After changing the consent definition in 2013, there has been a marked increase in participant definitions that align with Grinnell College's new affirmative consent policy. In particular, participants provided proportionally more definitions related to active consent processes, such as the need for verbal (not part of College's definition), clear and enthusiastic, and/or continuous consent. Generally, participants provided definitions similar to Grinnell College's affirmative consent, and though some significant differences did emerge, these definitions were largely stable across demographic subgroups.

The Grinnell College consent policy states, "An individual who is physically incapacitated from alcohol and/or other drug consumption (voluntarily or involuntarily), or is unconscious, unaware or otherwise physically helpless is considered unable to give consent." The policy does not rule out the possibility that consent for sexual activity can be given when one or both members are mildly or even moderately intoxicated. It disallows, however, sexual conduct when one or more partners are incapacitated. After the implementation of these changes to the consent policy in 2013, it appears that significantly more participants in 2015 recognize that intoxication level can and should be considered when identifying fully informed consent. Fewer students in 2015 reported that it was absolutely okay for people who have been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs to consent to having sex than in 2013. A similar decline was observed for participants reporting that consent while sober extends to consent after intoxication. Additionally, proportionally more students in 2015 reported that the ability to give consent depended on the level of intoxication. These findings taken together indicate that students are becoming aware of the challenges to understanding consent that alcohol and other drugs play in the consent process. More in 2015 than in 2013, they understood that just the presence of alcohol or other drugs does not inhibit one's ability to give or obtain consent, but that intoxication level in an important variable to consider.

Participants' Recommendations for Prevention

The survey concluded the open-ended question, "What advice do you have for reducing sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse on campus?" A total of 700 participants provided responses (n = 340 in 2013; n = 360 in 2015). Qualitative analyses of these questions were performed and participant responses were coded into a four broad domains: suggestions for

different types of education, changes to cultural elements around parties and sex, suggestions for changes to administrative structure and policy, and other reactions.

The majority of participants requested additional education. Areas of requested education included definitions of consent and how to obtain consent, active bystander training, and programming to clarify definitions related to sexual misconduct and both the reporting and conduct process. Others specifically requested education for specific groups, such as first-year students and potential perpetrators. Still others wanted more general campus dialogue about topics, such as the role of self-governance and the "hook-up culture" in shaping sexual misconduct on campus. Specific suggestions are quoted in that section.

About one-fifth of participants stated that prevention efforts require campus culture change. Specific areas of campus culture that participants identified, included the use and misuse of alcohol and other drugs, "hook-up culture," racism, homophobia, transphobia, hypermasculinism, heteronormativity, patriarchy, and entitlement, among others. Some of these participants also made specific suggestions to increase attractive party alternatives where alcohol and other drugs are not central to those experiences. Specific suggestions are quoted in that section.

About 25% of participants responded to these questions with suggested changes to administrative structure and policy. Most of these suggestions overlapped with comments made in other sections (e.g., Conduct Process Perceptions, Reporting Misconduct) and did not seem directly relevant to prevention. Those responses were, however, reported in this section to capture participants' final opportunity to express their experiences and concerns. For example, several used this section to express their anger or dissatisfaction with how past sexual misconduct cases were handled. Several also called for campus policy to change to allow for greater transparency in misconduct cases, including the publication of outcomes; and another sizable group used this opportunity to call for harsher punishments. Others provided suggestions for improvement to the sexual misconduct conduct and reporting processes, while some participants used this section to advocate for improvements to health and counseling resources. Finally, a few used this section to specifically call for a new Title IX coordinator. Like the previous section, example quotations are provided to illustrate each theme.

Finally, a fourth domain was coded to capture less frequent reactions. For example, about 5% of participants commented that they had no knowledge or understanding of issues related to sexual misconduct to provide suggestions. This percentage fell from 2013 to 2015, particularly for cisgender male participants. About 2% of participants provided responses that explicitly blamed victims for sexual misconduct. Another 10% of responses were coded as expressing strong anger about the state of sexual misconduct and the processes for dealing with sexual misconduct on campus. Finally, about 3% of participants expressed a sense of hopelessness about the College's or society's ability to effectively combat sexual misconduct.

CONCLUSIONS

In any given year, more than one-third of all Grinnell College students experienced at least one form of sexual misconduct. Across a college career, that proportion rises to nearly half, with just

over one-quarter experiencing a physical form of sexual misconduct. Though the overall rate of sexual misconduct fell from 2013 to 2015, the rates remain unacceptably high.

There were a few positive findings. For example, the rates of unwanted sexual touching and unwanted sexual communication fell significantly from 2013 to 2015. In addition, the rates of reporting increased for victim-survivors of attempted or completed sexual assault, and that rate of reporting surpassed some national benchmarks.

Parties in general, and specifically parties at the Harris Center and Gardner Lounge, continue to be locations that are associated with increased rates for unwanted sexual communication and touching. Party attendance also preceded many attempted or completed sexual assaults. This, in conjunction with the observation that either the perpetrator or victim of sexual assault was moderately or severely intoxicated in a majority of cases, signals both the need for increased dialogue about how to change physical and cultural elements surrounding parties that might facilitate sexual misconduct.

Perhaps one important finding from the survey was that half of participants who reported being the victim of attempted or completed sexual assault also reported there was a missed opportunity for a bystander intervention that could have averted their assault. Findings from other parts of the survey suggest that engagement in active bystander behavior at Grinnell College, in general, is infrequent and not predicted by previous training experience. When people did engage in such bystander interventions, the largest predictor of that engagement was previously observing others engage in the same behaviors. In order to be more effective in empowering members of the community to intervene when necessary, trainings might provide multiple opportunities over time to observe others engaging in such behaviors. The consequence might be to avert a substantial number of sexual assaults.

Some student subgroups are at greater risk of experiencing sexual misconduct than others. Specifically, cisgender women and transgender or other-gender students, along with non-heterosexual males and younger students, more generally constitute groups at highest risk of experiencing sexual misconduct.

Students reported some skepticism that College officials would be responsive to concerns of victim-survivors of sexual misconduct. Concerning the conduct process, approximately half of survey participants reported that they perceived the conduct process to be fair or somewhat fair, a proportion that mimicked the judgments of fairness reported by victim-survivors who reported going through that process. Multiple reasons were offered to support participants' ratings of fairness. Many based their ratings on their perception that punishments provided to those found responsible of sexual misconduct are inadequate. Others based their ratings on perceptions of the inadequacy of procedures meant to separate victims from respondents, inadequate support provided to victims throughout and after the conduct process, and biases against people from various subpopulations. Fewer contended that there were inadequate supports for those accused of misconduct, that the process was too slow, and that the institution needed greater transparency in several areas. Victims who had actually experienced the conduct process as complainants echoed many of these themes.

Finally, recommendations that draw on the results of this study will be presented to the campus community in a forthcoming manuscript. The campus community is encouraged to engage with the findings of this survey to collaboratively identify strategies to prevent future sexual misconduct on our campus.

BACKGROUND AND METHODS

During the spring 2012 semester, Grinnell College President Raynard S. Kington affirmed the College's commitment to reduce the incidence of sexual misconduct and substance abuse within the Grinnell College community. To start that process, he commissioned an external agency to review the College's existing policies, procedures, and practices related to sexual misconduct and Title IX compliance. On recommendation of those reviewers, President Kington appointed Angela Voos as the College's then-interim Title IX coordinator, in charge of centralizing the review, investigation, and resolution of all allegations of sexual misconduct and compliance with state and federal laws. In addition, in November 2012 President Kington created and appointed members to the new Task Force on Safety, Responsibility, and Prevention (chaired by Voos) to create and implement campus programing to prevent sexual misconduct, alcohol abuse, and violence.

In 2013, the lead author was charged with conducting a survey of the climate surrounding sexual misconduct. Consistent with the task force's charge, the authors of this report have spent much time reviewing the empirical literature on best practices for reducing sexual misconduct, stalking, and intimate partner abuse. We recognized that in order to efficiently target interventions and to track the effectiveness of future interventions, the College would need to develop a comprehensive assessment plan that could be repeated biyearly. The White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault's (2014) recommendations in its *Not Alone* report further supported the need for continual sexual climate assessment.

Survey Methodology

During the spring semesters in 2013 and 2015, the lead author of this report, in collaboration with a large number of students, faculty, and staff, surveyed all students on campus regarding their experiences with intimate partner abuse, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and attempted or completed sexual assault. In that survey, students responded to antecedents of sexual misconduct (e.g., alcohol use), the location of the misconduct (e.g., dorm room), and relationship between the survey participant and the alleged perpetrator[1] of that misconduct (e.g., romantic partner). Students also responded to questions about the perception of sexual misconduct as a problem at Grinnell College, definitions of consent, and their engagement in active bystander behaviors. In 2015, additional sections were added to the survey to address stalking and factors associated with stalking incidents, experiences with reporting sexual misconduct, perceptions of and experiences with the conduct process, and acceptance of rape myth attitudes.

[1] The term "perpetrator" is used throughout the document to signify the person who was reported to have initiated the sexual misconduct. The term does not signify the guilt of that individual or those individuals in a criminal act or that the individual or individuals have gone through a formal conduct or criminal process.

Instruments

Survey items were derived from several sources. Guided by the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Crime Statistics Act (Clery Act), the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), and the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination (SaVE) Act, sections of the survey for experiences of intimate partner abuse, stalking, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and attempted or completed sexual assault were included. Definitions of each type of misconduct were derived from these sources and other sources in the research literature and then reviewed by a focus group of approximately 30 students, faculty, and staff. Revisions were implemented to clarify terms and to ensure applicability to the Grinnell College community.

Participants responded to whether or not they had experienced these types of misconduct during the then-current academic year. Additional options were added in 2015 to allow participants to indicate they had experienced such misconduct in a previous academic year. Options also were provided for participants to indicate if they had experienced something similar to the misconduct described in the definitions but were unsure if their experience met all components of the definition. Questions about stalking experiences were included only in the 2015 survey administration.

Participants who indicated they had experienced one or more types of sexual misconduct were provided with an option to answer additional questions related to situational factors associated with that experience. Candidate descriptors of misconduct experiences also were derived from a review of the literature on sexual assault perpetration and prevention. Items were created to capture the range of possible antecedents and co-occurring factors (e.g., intoxication, force), locations, and perpetrator characteristics. These items also were presented to the previously mentioned focus group to address the clarity of the items and relevance to the Grinnell College student experience and to identify any missing information that might be useful for future prevention efforts. See the appendix for a full list of questions.

Experiences of intimate partner abuse were assessed using Knowledge Networks Inc.'s *College Dating Violence and Abuse Poll* (2011). The survey consists of 21 behaviorally descriptive items (e.g., partner "bought me things to control me"). Behavioral anchors were modified for this survey from "no" and "yes" to "never happened," "happened rarely," and "happened often" to gauge the frequency of potentially abusive behaviors. Responses were constrained to the then-current academic year.

To understand factors affecting the reporting of sexual misconduct to College authorities, several additional questions were developed. These included questions about to whom they may have reported, why they decided to report to those individuals, how they identified those individuals, and to what degree they felt the individual was helpful. For participants who indicated they did not report their misconduct experience, additional items were taken from the White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault's (2014) climate survey *Useful Tools* document (e.g., I did not report because "I thought I would be blamed for what happened"). With these items, students could indicate what factors affected their decision not to report their experience(s) to authority figures who could take corrective action. Questions about why participants did not report their experience were only included in the 2015 survey.

Additional items were created to gauge participants' perception of each type of sexual misconduct as a problem on the Grinnell College campus. These items were implemented to determine if perceptions of the problem change over time and what groups perceive which types of misconduct as more or less of a problem. Response options for each type of misconduct included "not a problem," "a minor problem," and "a major problem."

Items reflecting perceptions of campus leadership, policies, and reporting were adapted from the White House task force's *Useful Tools* document. The original 12 items from that document were sexual assault-specific (e.g., "If someone were to report a sexual assault to a campus authority, how likely is it that the university would take the report seriously?"). To better determine if there were different perceptions of leadership, policies, and reporting depending upon the type of misconduct reported, these same 12 items were repeated for intimate partner abuse, stalking, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and sexual assault. Response options included "very likely," "moderately likely, "slightly likely," and "not at all likely." These items were included only in the 2015 survey.

Two open-ended items were added to determine participants' perceptions of the college conduct process, as it relates to sexual misconduct. The first asked, "To what extent does the college conduct process related to sexual misconduct reflect the principles of fairness?" The second asked, "What suggestions do you have for improving the conduct process, as it pertains to sexual misconduct?"

Three additional open-ended questions were provided to gauge participants' definitions of consent. These included: How do you know when you have obtained consent in a sexual encounter? Where or from what sources did you learn about consent for sexual encounters? Do you believe two people who have been drinking alcohol or using other recreational drugs can have consensual sex? These questions were followed by questions about participants' use of and preference for alcohol or other drugs during sexual encounters (2015 only). In addition, participants were asked to indicate their belief about typical Grinnell College students' use of and preference for alcohol or other drugs during sexual encounters.

Active bystander behaviors were assessed using a modified version of Banyard, Moynihan, and Plante's (2007) *Bystander Behaviors Scale*. One item was modified to remove gender-specific language. The original version of the scale assesses the likelihood of engaging in behaviors in the future, while the modified version asks participants for behaviors they engaged in during the past two months. Added to these questions were items about the likelihood of active bystander intervention, agreement with the statement that "as a member of a self-governing community it is my responsibility to be an active bystander," and whether or not the participant had received training in active bystander behaviors. Finally, the *Bystander Behavior Scale* was additionally revised to determine whether or not participants had observed others engaging in bystander behaviors in the past two months. Questions about observed bystander behaviors were included only in the 2015 survey administration.

Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald's (1999) *Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale — Short Form* was employed to determine endorsement of a variety of common myths about sexual assault. The

items were modified to remove gender-specific and heteronormative language (e.g., "Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away" to "People don't usually intend to force sex on another person, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away"). The response options were "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" on a five-point Likert scale.

Two open-ended questions were asked at the end of the survey give participants the opportunity to provide any additional information they wanted to share about how sexual misconduct happens on the Grinnell College campus and to provide advice for reducing such misconduct in the future.

Finally, eight quality-control items were embedded throughout the survey to determine the degree to which participants were reading questions and responding truthfully. These items instructed participants to select a particular option (e.g., "For quality control, select the option for happened rarely"). One question was added to the final page before the debriefing page. It asked, "Did you answer the questions on this survey truthfully?" with response options for "no," "some," "most," and "yes, all."

The full survey is presented in the appendix.

Process

The survey was structured so that participants were routed only to questions that were relevant to them. For example, only those individuals responding that they were in a dating relationship at one point during the then-current academic year saw and responded to the intimate partner abuse items. In addition, "trigger warnings" and the ability to opt out of providing further information about misconduct experiences were given to minimize the possibility of adverse student emotional responses during the recall of such experiences. As a consequence, not all students provided information or responses to all items on the survey.

The survey was administered online using Vovici software between April 1 and May 3, 2013, and between March 27 and April 19, 2015. Students were solicited to respond to the survey using several methods. Mailbox flyers were sent out to all students with a brief description of the purpose of and a link to the survey. Members of the Student Government Association (SGA) encouraged participation through all-campus email. Members of the Grinnell College Advocates provided handouts, with the survey description and Web link, to students at a tabling station outside the dining hall and put up posters around campus that advertised the survey and provided the Web link. Several organizations publicized the survey during organization meetings (e.g., SGA, Student Athlete Advisory Committee, student-athlete mentors, resident life coordinators, student advisers, Grinnell Advocates, student educational policy committees). A member of Advocates, the Title IX coordinator, and *Scarlet and Black* (*S&B*) staff wrote articles for the *S&B*. The vice president for academic affairs and dean of the College sent an email to faculty members encouraging them to publicize the survey in their classes. Finally, incentives were offered for survey participation (in 2015 only). The incentives included a random drawing for one of 250 Chipotle burritos and one of 20 Amazon.com gift cards worth $25 each. Participants needed to opt into the random drawing for these incentives at the completion of the survey. The

opt-in procedure allowed for participants to provide a valid Grinnell College email address in a manner that maintained the anonymity of their survey responses.

The survey also included several quality-control items. These items were included to gauge the authenticity of responding by participants. Participants were removed from the sample for one of several reasons: if they responded incorrectly to three or more of these items; responded incorrectly to 50% or more of the quality-control items to which they were exposed, completed the entire survey in less than four minutes in 2013 or five minutes in 2015; reported they were not a current Grinnell College student (or were a current student on medical leave); or if the participant reported that they responded truthfully to "none" or "some" (versus "most" or "all") of the survey questions. In 2013, the survey was accessed 1,064 times. After exclusion criteria were applied, a total of 776 participants were retained (72.9%). In 2015, the survey was accessed 1,239 times, and the 924 (74.5%) were retained after applying the exclusion criteria.

In 2013, the 5% trimmed mean for time needed to complete the survey was 15.3 minutes (median = 12.4, interquartile range = 12.37). The 2015 version of the survey added several sections (e.g., stalking, rape myth attitudes), and the 5% trimmed mean was larger for that administration (5% *M* = 32.7, median = 24.5, interquartile range = 19.0).

Sample Characteristics

A total of 1,700 students provided useable responses across the two survey administrations, with 776 students responding in 2013 and 924 responding in 2015. These numbers represent 48.2% of all enrolled students in 2013 and 56.8% of enrolled students in 2015. Student demographic data are presented in Table M1.

Table M1. Demographic breakdown of sample by survey year

	2013	2015
Academic Year		
First	26.2%	24.8%
Second	29.6%	26.2%
Third	24.3%	23.6%
Fourth and Fifth	19.9%	25.4%
Gender		
Cisgender Female	64.4%	58.2%
Cisgender Male	33.8%	38.1%
Transgender or Other	1.8%	3.7%

(Continued next page)

Table M1 (cont.)

	2013	2015
Sexual Orientation		
Non-Heterosexual[1]	22.8%	26.6%
-Bisexual	10.2%	12.4%
-Pansexual	3.5%	3.3%
-Lesbian	2.1%	2.1%
-Gay	3.3%	3.3%
-Other	3.7%	5.6%
Heterosexual	77.2%	73.4%
Ethnicity		
Domestic Students of Color[2]	18.7%	20.8%
-Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	0.1%	0.0%
-Hispanic or Latino/Latina	6.0%	3.2%
-Black or African American	2.9%	4.0%
-Multiethnic or Other	3.8%	7.1%
International	5.6%	5.4%
White or Caucasian	75.7%	73.8%

[1] Includes participants who identified as bisexual, pansexual, lesbian, gay, or other.
[2] Includes participants who identified as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic or Latino/Latina, Black or African American, Asian American, Multiethnic, or Other.

Analytic Strategy

Basic rates of sexual misconduct were calculated based upon the number of students who responded to survey items asking about such experiences. Those opting not to respond to those questions were removed from the denominator for the calculation of those rates.

The rates of overall sexual misconduct and specific types of misconduct were examined by cross-tabulating those rates with several other variables. These included participant variables, such as gender identity, sexual orientation, ethnic or racial identity, and class year. Alleged perpetrator variables included biological sex and relationship to the survey participant. Misconduct incident variables included location of the misconduct, level of intoxication by either the survey participant or the alleged perpetrator, and the use of threat and force in the commission of the misconduct. When levels of a specific variable were comprised of a small number of participants, that level was collapsed with conceptually similar variable levels; and when no conceptually similar level existed, that level was removed from the analysis. Single bivariate relations and interactions among several variables were tested using chi-square test of independence. Comparison of rates observed in the present sample with rates observed in other, nationally representative samples were tested using both one-sample and independent-sample *z*-tests for proportions.

Exploratory factor analyses, using maximum-likelihood estimation and promax rotation, were used to identify the factor structure underlying intimate partner abuse and rape myth attitude items. Using this structure, subscales were generated. Factorial analysis of variance statistics

were used to determine main effects and interactions among demographic variables for active bystander total and subscale scores, rape myth attitude total and subscale scores, and perceptions of campus leadership, policies, and reporting.

Ordinary least-squares and logistic regression analyses were used to identify predictors of perceptions of different types of sexual misconduct as a major problem and predictors of active bystander behaviors. Pearson's and biserial correlation coefficients were calculated at times to illustrate these relations. As well, a series of factorial analysis of variance statistics were calculated to determine the effects of and interactions among various demographic variables and previous training in active bystander interventions on reported engagement in active bystander behaviors. Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference statistic were calculated to investigate significant main effects and interactions.

Because of the exploratory nature of many of these analyses, the alpha level used to judge the statistical significance of all inferential statistical tests across this study was set to .05. This alpha level was not adjusted, despite the large number of inferential statistics calculated across this study, so as to privilege against making Type II errors. [See, for example, Matsunaga, 2007; O'Keefe, 2003; O'Keefe, 2007; and Rothman, 1990 for arguments against the overuse of alpha adjustments to correct for familywise error in multiple comparisons.] As a consequence, it is likely that some statistically significant findings represent Type I errors, (i.e., rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis was correct).

Qualitative analyses of open-ended questions related to definitions of consent, perceptions about the reporting and conduct process, and ideas for prevention were guided by Hill and colleagues (1997, 2005) Consensual Qualitative Research approach. Kappa statistics were calculated to gauge intra-rater reliability.

STALKING

DEFINITION

For the purposes of this survey, stalking was defined as "a course of unwelcome conduct directed toward another person that could be reasonably regarded as likely to alarm, harass, and/or cause reasonable fear of harm or injury. Stalking may include unwelcome and repeated visual or physical proximity to a person. It may also include unwelcome or unsolicited emails, instant messages, and messages on online bulletin boards."

BASE RATES

During the academic year 2014–15, 6.4% (95% CI: 4.8% to 8.0%) of participants reported experiencing stalking or some behavior that might have been stalking; of those, 60.9% (3.9% of total) were certain they were stalked. Data concerning stalking was not collected on the 2013 survey, so incidence rate comparisons to previous academic years were not available.

Survey participants reported the duration of their stalking experiences. The most common duration experienced was less than one month (42.4%). However, 11.9% had experiences lasting six months or more. Of the remainder, 10.2% had experiences lasting for four or five months, and 8.5% had experiences lasting two or three months.

Much of the literature surrounding stalking provides rates based on gender and/or lifetime experience. Thus, because many studies are divided based on gender it is possible to compare the rates of stalking for each gender to national averages. See the Gender section below for these comparisons. Alternatively, the American College Health Association (ACHA) published data from its spring 2014 National College Health Assessment (NCHA) that surveyed 66,887 undergraduate college students. The ACHA reported that 5.4% of college students reported experiencing stalking in the previous 12 months. Though slightly lower than the rate observed at Grinnell College, the rates were not significantly different.

Participants also were asked if they had experienced stalking since entering college. In total, 14.2% reported they had such experiences. For comparison, the Association of American Universities (AAU) commissioned Westat (Cantor et al., 2015) to survey students at 27 major universities about their experiences with a variety of forms of sexual misconduct. Just over 150,000 undergraduate and graduate student participants completed the survey (19.3% response rate). Cantor and colleagues reported that 4.2% of participants experienced stalking since entering college. That rate was significantly lower than the rate observed at Grinnell College ($z = 8.20$, $p < .05$). Caution should be advanced when interpreting this finding, however, as the definition of stalking used on the AAU survey was potentially narrower than the definitions used in the Grinnell College surveys. Specifically, the AAU definition highlighted that the unwanted communication must have made the participant "afraid for your personal safety," a condition not imposed on the Grinnell College definition.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Academic Year

The rates of stalking for the different class years over the previous academic year and throughout college are reported in Table STK1.

Table STK1. Rates of stalking victimization by academic year of participants

	Yes: Current Year	Yes and Unsure Combined: Current Year	Total: Throughout College
First Year	2.9%	7.2%	7.2%
Second Year	3.2%	5.0%	14.1%
Third Year	5.1%	6.1%	15.2%
Fourth/Fifth Year	2.8%	6.1%	19.2%

There was no significant difference in rates of reported stalking during the previous academic year among class years. There was, however, a significant difference between class years for stalking experiences during the entire college career (χ^2 (3, N = 839) = 13.10, $p < .05$). First-year participants had significantly lower incidence rates than all other academic years; however, their time on campus also was more limited than older students. The difference in rates between first-year student and other class years was largest for those in their fourth or fifth year (19.2% vs. 7.2%); but, in general, the difference follows a relatively linear trend, with incident rates increasing with academic year.

Gender

Cisgender female participants and transgender/other gender participants were more likely to experience stalking than cisgender male participants, (9.0% and 9.7% vs. 1.9%). These rate differences were statistically significant, $\chi^2(2, N = 842) = 17.25$, $p < .05$.

Twelve-month national averages for stalking from the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NIPSVS, Black et al., 2010) were 4.0% for women and 1.3% for men. Grinnell College's rate for women, in particular, was significantly higher than that national benchmark ($z = 6.41$, $p < .05$), while the rate for men was statistically equivalent. The National College Women Sexual Victimization study (NCWSV) found the 12-month stalking incident rate for female students to be between 13.1% and 10.5% (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Under this comparison, Grinnell's stalking rate, for women, is statistically equivalent to that national benchmark. Comparing Grinnell College's rates to those found from the ACHA-NCHA survey, cisgender female participants reported rates marginally higher than those responding to the NCHA (6.6%, $z = 1.86$, $p = .06$), while cisgender male participants reported rates that were not statistically different from those in the NCHA (3.0%).

The AAU reported rates of stalking by gender, as well. In its report, undergraduate transgender participants experienced the highest rate of stalking since entering college (12.1%) followed by undergraduate female (6.7%) and undergraduate male (2.2%) participants. The comparable rate of stalking since entering Grinnell College for transgender or other gender participants was not

significantly different from that reported in the AAU study (12.1% vs. 19.4%), possibly owing to the small sample of transgender or other gender participants in the Grinnell College sample. However, the rates for Grinnell College female (18.4%, $z = 6.68$, $p < .05$) and male participants (6.9%, $z = 3.32$, $p < .05$) were significantly higher than the rates reported by the AAU.

For subsequent analyses of gender, binary-identified transgender participants will be grouped with the gender they identified on the survey.

Sexual Orientation

For sexual orientation, there was no significant difference between bisexual, pansexual, lesbian, gay, or other identifying participants and heterosexual participants with rates of 6.8% and 6.3%, respectively. Data from bisexual, pansexual, lesbian, gay and other identifying sexual orientations were combined into one category (hereafter referred to as non-heterosexual) in order to increase the sample size and to allow for additional analyses.

Sexual Orientation by Gender

There was a significant interaction between gender and sexual orientation (See Table STK2). Whereas female participants reported higher rates of stalking, in general, this effect was only statistically significant for heterosexual participants, χ^2 (1, $N = 606$) = 15.71, $p < .05$. Though a similar difference in rates was observed for non-heterosexual participants, that difference was not statistically significant. Further, there was no significant effect for sexual orientation for either female or male participants.

Table STK2. Rates of stalking victimization by gender and sexual orientation

	Female	**Male**
Non-Heterosexual	8.1%	1.9%
Heterosexual	9.7%	1.9%

Heterosexual women had the highest rates of stalking at 9.7%, followed closely by non-heterosexual women at 8.1%, indicating that women were at a higher risk of stalking than men.

Ethnicity and Race

Domestic white or Caucasian (DWC) participants had a higher incidence of stalking (6.6%) than domestic students of color (DSOC; 5.4%) and international student participants (4.5%). However, these differences were not statistically significant.

Ethnicity and Race by Gender

A significant interaction was observed for rates of stalking by gender and ethnicity/race, as outlined in Table STK3. Across all participants, female participants experienced a significantly higher rate of stalking than male participants. However, this significant difference only held among DWC participants, χ^2 (2, $N = 587$) = 16.70, $p < .05$. The difference failed to remain significant for DSOC and international student participants. Alternatively, differences in rates of

stalking for members of different ethnic/racial groups were not statistically significant for both females and males.

Table STK3. Rates of stalking victimization by gender and ethnic/racial background

	Female	Male
DSOC	6.6%	3.6%
International Students	6.9%	0.0%
DWC	10.2%	1.6%

Note. DSOC = Domestic students of color, DWC = Domestic white or Caucasian.

DWC women had the highest incidence rates at 10.2% relative to all other ethnicities and genders. In general, women were at a higher risk than men, but this is particularly true for DWC women. Additionally, male international students reported no stalking experiences.

Ethnicity and Race by Sexual Orientation

No significant interactions emerged for rates of stalking by sexual orientation and ethnicity/race (See Table STK4). There were no significant differences between ethnic/racial groups for non-heterosexuals and heterosexuals. Further, no significant differences emerged for sexual orientation for any of the three ethnic/racial groups.

Table STK4. Rates of stalking victimization by ethnic/racial background and sexual orientation

	Domestic Students of Color	International	Domestic White or Caucasian
Non-Heterosexual	4.7%	8.3%	7.1%
Heterosexual	5.8%	3.4%	6.7%

PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

Campus Member

For many of the stalking incidents, the stalker was part of the Grinnell College community. For 75.0%, the perpetrator was identified as another student, and 2.3% were faculty or staff (n = 1). In total, 18.2% were not part of the College community, and 4.5% were unknown. No differential patterns of community member status emerged for any demographic subgroup.

Perpetrator/Victim Relationship

Along with involvement within the college community, the relationship between the participant and the stalker was also important. Table STK5 details the relationship of the perpetrator of the stalking to the participant.

Table STK5. Rates for each type of relationship of the perpetrator to the participant

Relationship of Perpetrator	Proportion Who Experienced
Current or Former Romantic Partner	20.9%
Friend	30.2%
Acquaintance	30.2%
Stranger	18.6%

The most common type of perpetrator/participant relationship was between friends (30.2%) or acquaintances (30.2%). Compared to other studies, Grinnell participants experienced lower amounts of intimate partner stalking than is typical. Logan (2010) and Cho, Hong, Logan (2012) found that intimate partner stalking is the most common form of stalking and accounted for approximately 50% of stalking instances, which did not align with the experience of Grinnell participants. The type of perpetrator/victim relationship did not systematically vary across demographic subgroups.

Sex of the Perpetrator

Of the different stalking relationships, 86.4% were different-sex stalking instances, and 13.6% were same-sex stalking. No significant interaction between perpetrator sex and either the gender or ethnicity of the survey participant emerged. However, there was a significant interaction between the sex of the perpetrator and the sexual orientation of the participant, χ^2 (1, N = 40) = 7.90 $p < .05$. Heterosexual participants experienced more stalking from different-sex perpetrators (96.6%) than same-sex perpetrators (3.4%). See Table STK6. On the other hand, non-heterosexual participants also were more likely to be stalked by someone of a different sex (63.6%), but the difference was not as pronounced as it was for heterosexuals.

Table STK6. Rates of stalking victimization by sexual orientation of participant and sex of perpetrator

Sex of Perpetrator	Non-Heterosexual	Heterosexual
Same Sex	36.4%	3.4%
Different Sex	63.6%	96.6%

Note. The percentages represent the percent of participants within each sexual orientation category. For example, of non-heterosexuals who were stalked, 36.4% were stalked by individuals of their same sex.

Power Imbalance

Many of the stalked participants were unsure or did not perceive a power imbalance between themselves and their stalkers. Just over one-third (36.4%) reported that they perceived a power imbalance. Perceptions of a power imbalance did not interact with any demographic characteristics of the participant either, which suggests the importance of other situational factors.

Fear of Threat and Force

Stalking also coincided with fear of threat and violence for some participants. In particular, for participants who were stalked, 30.2% experienced some form of threat, 27.9% experienced force,

41.9% experienced either threat or force, and 16.3% experienced both threat and force. There was no interaction between experience of a threat or force and gender, ethnicity, or sexual orientation, which once again suggests that the dynamics of the situation are likely more important than individual characteristics of the participants.

ANTECEDENTS AND CO-OCCURRING FACTORS OF STALKING

Mode of Stalking

Participants responded to a variety of questions to describe their stalking experience. They reported becoming aware of the stalking in a variety of ways. Table STK7 details many of the ways in which participants became aware that they were experiencing stalking.

Table STK7. Ways in which participants became aware they were being stalked

Stalking Types	Proportion Who Experienced
In-Person Contact	44.1%
Social Media	37.3%
Text Message	35.6%
On the Phone	20.3%
Written Letter	10.2%
Other	6.8%
Dorm Room Whiteboard	5.1%
Email	3.4%

The most common form of stalking was in person (44.1%) followed by social media (37.3%) and text messaging (35.6%). Over half of participants who were stalked reported stalking incidents that occurred through the use of electronic media (54.2%); and for 28.8% of stalking victims, the only stalking they experienced occurred through electronic means. For 18.6% of participants, the stalking incidents occurred in person only, and for 25.4% of participants, the stalking occurred both in person and electronically. From the participants' experiences, it seems most instances of stalking occur with some form of electronic contact, which is important for finding ways to target and discourage stalking behavior.

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES

Participants were asked to respond to two open-ended questions: Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience, and is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future? A total of 25 participants responded to one or both of these questions.

A few themes emerged. While a few reported that their experience was unavoidable (e.g., "There is literally nothing that could've been done in this situation, unfortunately"), three participants indicated that the perpetrator of the stalking had a known reputation for such behavior. For example, "He had a reputation for bothering a lot of girls, especially first-year students." These participants reported that they had wished more had been done to monitor those individuals. For

example, “The person was seriously mentally ill and the school was aware of this fact yet it seems very little was done to monitor/ prevent risky behavior.”

Others reported that they wish they had been aware of how to report stalking and what resources might be available to them. For example, “Let freshmen know, more explicitly, of the resources they have to avoid or prevent such occurrences.” Others added that education about relationships and boundaries might be useful to prevention. For example, “Talking in Orientation about boundaries for the new space of dorm life.”

Many participants also suggested clear punishments for individuals that engaged in stalking behavior might serve as a deterrent. For example, one participant wrote, “Punish people who are reported for doing these behaviors, and punish retaliators (against those that report abuse).” Another participant had this to say: “I would like to see the school take more action toward incidents like this. I spent weeks being bullied, harassed, and feeling unsafe and the school didn't do anything about it.”

Some participants also wrote that the process of obtaining academic accommodations for their experience was traumatizing for them. In particular, one participant had to report their traumatic experience to multiple school officials which one participant described as “intimidating and humiliating after being harassed by a man.” A different participant also remarked on trauma caused by communication from the school: “For me, it was traumatizing to receive repeated emails from school officials, because my stalker was able to manipulate the school into repeatedly contacting me on her behalf.”

One suggestion included allowing students to join a list that would alert school officials that they do not want to be contacted about certain individuals on campus. The list could help students who did not want a no-contact order with the stalker, but instead wanted to avoid or otherwise remove themselves from the stalking situation. By giving the list to various resources on campus, it would also provide greater support for students and discourage communication that may harm either party or trigger feelings of fear or stress, potentially re-traumatizing the victim.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Overall, 3.9% of survey participants were certain they were stalked during the 2014–15 academic year, and 6.4% of participants experienced behavior that may have been stalking. These rates were not significantly different from rates reported from a sample of over 66,000 undergraduate students in 2014 by the ACHA.

Cisgender women (9.0%) and transgender or other gender participants (9.7%) reported experiencing stalking at a higher rate than cisgender men (1.9%). Twelve-month national benchmarks for stalking for women from the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey were 4.0% and for men were 1.3% (Black et al., 2010). The rate for women at Grinnell College was significantly higher than the rate reported in that study, while the rate for men at Grinnell College was statistically equivalent. The National College Women Sexual Victimization study found the 12-month stalking incident rate for female students to be between 13.1% and 10.5% (Fisher et al., 2000), statistically equivalent to the rate observed at Grinnell College. Similarly, the rates for cisgender female participants at Grinnell College were marginally higher

than those reported in the ACHA study mentioned above (6.6%), while cisgender male participants reported rates that were not statistically different from those found by the ACHA (3.0%). When considering rates of stalking since entering college, cisgender female (18.4%) and male participants (6.9%) reported significantly higher rates than those reported by the Association of American Universities' study (6.7% and 2.2%, respectively, Cantor et al., 2015), while transgender or other gender Grinnell College participants reported rates (19.4%) that were not significantly different from the rates reported by the AAU (12.1%).

Stalking was most likely to be perpetrated by other students, either friends or acquaintances, and most often occurred in public places and at multiple locations across campus. Stalking using electronic means also was quite common (e.g., via text message and social media). Nearly 60% of stalking victims reported that their experience lasted longer than one month.

INTIMATE PARTNER ABUSE

DEFINITION

For the purpose of this survey, an intimate partner relationship (or dating) was defined as "ongoing intimacy (emotional, sexual, or both) with a partner." A relationship was determined to be abusive if survey participants reported ongoing controlling behaviors, any incident of pressure from their partners to do something against their will, or any incident of threat or violence in the relationship.

BASE RATES

A total of 59.1% of Grinnell College students self-reported being in a dating relationship across both survey administrations. The rates were consistent from 2013 (58.5%) to 2015 (59.6%). Of those in a dating relationship, 35.2% experienced one or more of the potentially abusive behaviors listed on the survey on at least one occasion (see Table IPA1). Of all students, in dating relationships or otherwise, 20.8% experienced at least one occasion of potentially abusive behavior by an intimate partner. To avoid the possibility that one-time instances of some behaviors defined as controlling counted as intimate partner abuse (e.g., told me how to dress on one occasion), controlling types of behaviors were only counted as abuse when they were reported to have occurred frequently or were ongoing patterns. Any incidents of pressuring partners to engage in behaviors against their will or threats of violence were counted as abuse. Using these constraints, 12.7% (95% CI: 11.1% to 14.3%) of all survey participants and 21.4% (95% CI: 19.4% to 23.4%) of those in dating relationships qualified as experiencing intimate partner abuse (IPA). The rate of intimate partner abuse was not significantly different across the two survey administrations (12.5% in 2013 and 12.8% in 2015).

Factor Structure Underlying IPA Items

An exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation with a pro-max rotation was employed to determine the factor structure underlying IPA behaviors. A three-factor structure emerged; the first factor represented control, and included 13 behaviors (see Table IPA1). The *Control* factor covered partner behaviors that infringed on privacy, regulated lifestyle choices, or prevented the participant from academic or social roles. The second factor was *Threat/Violence* and included six behaviors that represented physical abuse, the threat of physical abuse, or social threats. Lastly, the third factor was *Pressure*, and it included three behaviors where the participants were pressured to do something against their wishes. A list of the factors and the corresponding items is displayed in Table IPA1. Subscales were created using the behaviors identified from the factor analysis.

Table IPA1. Rates of abusive behavior types for those in an intimate partner relationship

	2013	2015	Total
Control			
Tried to prevent me from spending time with family or friends	11.8%	14.3%	13.2%
Checked my cell phone or computer to see who I had been communicating with	9.7%	12.5%	11.3%
Called and texted my cell phone to check up on me more than I was comfortable with	11.5%	10.0%	10.7%
Told me how to dress	10.0%	10.5%	10.3%
Prevented me from participating in sports or extracurricular activities	4.6%	3.6%	4.1%
Used my passwords without permission	3.8%	4.0%	3.9%
Prevented me from going to study groups	4.0%	3.6%	3.8%
Bought me things as a way to control me	4.4%	3.1%	3.7%
Told me where to live either on or off campus	3.3%	3.1%	3.2%
Told me what classes to take	3.8%	2.2%	2.9%
Deleted friends on my social networks	1.6%	2.2%	1.9%
Shared or threatened to share private or embarrassing pictures of videos of me	1.8%	1.6%	1.7%
Altered my online profiles without consent	1.5%	1.8%	1.7%
Threat/Violence			
Threatened to kill herself/hirself/himself if I stopped seeing her/hir/him	3.8%	4.5%	4.2%
Made me fear for my physical safety*	3.1%	3.4%	3.3%
Hurt (hit, slapped, choked, punched, kicked) me when angry*	2.4%	2.9%	2.7%
Threatened to hurt (hit, slap, punch, kick) me when angry*	2.2%	2.0%	2.1%
Threatened to spread rumors if I didn't do what he/she/zhe wanted	1.5%	1.3%	1.4%
Threatened to hurt me if we were to break up*	0.4%	1.1%	0.8%
Pressure			
Pressured me into having sex (oral, anal, or vaginal) when I didn't want to*	13.9%	10.9%	12.2%
Pressured me into drinking alcohol when I didn't want to	6.4%	5.8%	6.1%
Pressured me to do drugs when I didn't want to	3.3%	2.7%	3.0%

Note. The factor loadings are available upon request.
* Items on the *Physical* subscale.

Survey Comparisons

The base rates for each IPA subtype across survey year varied minimally, as shown in Table IPA2. However, the rates across subtypes did vary, with the highest being control (29.8%), then physical (16.1%) and pressure (15.1%), and lastly threat/violence (8.0%). The background research for IPA usually focused on one of these behavioral groupings. After the overall

comparisons of IPA rates, additional analyses were completed on the subtypes of intimate partner abuse. This was done for the goal of creating relevant cross-checks with past research and national benchmarks.

Table IPA2. Comparison of the rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by factor

	2013		2015	
	Of Total	Of Dating	Of Total	Of Dating
Controlling Behavior	17.7%	30.2%	17.5%	29.3%
Pressure	9.4%	16.1%	8.5%	14.3%
Threats or Violence	4.7%	7.9%	4.8%	8.0%
Sexual Coercion	8.2%	13.9%	6.5%	10.9%
Physical	10.0%	17.0%	9.2%	15.4%

Carney and Barner (2012) reviewed studies focusing on IPA, and they concluded that there was a large amount of variance in rates of IPA among studies due to the different definitions and groupings of abuse-related behaviors. Incidence rates especially vary when pertaining to controlling behaviors and sexual coercion, even across studies with similar methodologies. Typically, however, studies often analyze the rates on the physical violence and sexual coercion. Therefore, a *Physical* subscale was created (see Table IPA1), which included all physical-type behaviors in the threat/violence factor, as well as the pressure to have sex item. The rates for all subtypes of IPA are presented in Table IPA2.

Knowledge Networks Inc. surveyed 508 college students during its 2011 College Dating Violence and Abuse poll and found an incidence rate of 36% experienced IPA since entering college (Peugh & Glauber, 2011). That rate is most directly comparable to the rate observed in this study, as it used the same survey instrument. The 2015 incidence rate for this current study was significantly lower at 20.6%, $z = -11.58$, $p < .05$. The rate observed in 2013 (21.1%) also was significantly lower than the rate reported by Knowledge Networks. Their survey also found that 43% of dating college women and 28% of dating college men experienced any IPA while in college. These rates are significantly higher than the rates observed for female (20.3%; $z = -12.59$, $p < .05$) and male participants (19.0%; $z = -4.15$, $p < .05$) at Grinnell College in 2015.

In spring 2014, the American College Health Association (ACHA) surveyed more than 66,000 undergraduate students about a variety of health-related topics in its National College Health Assessment (NCHA). Overall, it reported that 2.0% of students reported experiencing a physically abusive intimate partner relationship in the previous 12 months. That rate is significantly lower than the most analogous rate for threats or violence at Grinnell College during the 2014–15 academic year (4.8%; $z = 2.86$, $p < .05$). The rate for female participants at Grinnell College also was significantly higher than the rate observed by ACHA (10.3% vs. 2.1%; $z = 4.59$, $p < .05$), but the rates were not significantly different for males (3.6% for Grinnell College vs. 1.8% for ACHA). The difference in rates for all participants and female-identified participants might be due, in part, to how these rates were generated. The ACHA rate was limited to enacted physical violence ("Within the last 12 months, have you been in an intimate (coupled / partnered) relationship that was: Physically abusive? (e.g., kicked, slapped, punched)", while the definition used in the present study included both enacted physical violence and threats of violence. Limiting the Grinnell College rate only to that observed for the item

"Hurt (hit, slapped, choked, punched, kicked) me when angry," the difference in rates disappears. The rates for enacted physical violence in an intimate partner relationship were 1.5% for all participants, 1.6% for female-identified students, and 1.2% for male-identified students. None of these rates were significantly different than the rates reported for physical abuse by the ACHA.

The ACHA also asked about sexually abusive experiences in an intimate partner relationship. Of those taking that survey 1.8% reported experiencing "forced" sexual acts. That rate was significantly higher than the rate of sexual coercion observed at Grinnell College in 2015, $z = 5.42$, $p < .05$. Also, while the difference in rates of sex coercion at Grinnell College and in the ACHA samples for male-identified students were statistically nonsignificant, the rates of sexual coercion for female-identified students at Grinnell College (9.0%) were significantly higher than the rates observed by the ACHA (2.2%; $z = 5.29$, $p < .05$). These differences might partly be explained by how the questions were worded. The ACHA asked a single question that focused on violent sexual abuse: "Within the last 12 months, have you been in an intimate (coupled / partnered) relationship that was: Sexually abusive? (e.g., forced to have sex when you didn't want it, forced to perform or have an unwanted sexual act performed on you)" Alternatively, the question asked of Grinnell College students only implied pressure and no violence: "Pressured me into having sex (oral, anal, or vaginal) when I didn't want to." Conceivably, the latter question inquires about a broader set of potentially abusive behaviors, which resulted in higher observed rates at Grinnell College.

The *National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey* (NIPSVS) was issued to 16,507 participants ages 18 years and older and was administered via telephone interviews, 16,507 interviews were completed (Black et al, 2011). Physical violence in the NIPSVS study was defined as behaviors ranging from slapping to more severe violations, such as choking and burning. The 12-month incidence rates for physical violence were 4.0% for women and 4.7% for men. Women at Grinnell College during the 2014-2015 academic year had significantly higher reports of physical abuse (20.6%; $z = 9.07$, $p < .05$) than those in the NISVS survey (4%). However, the incidence rate for men at Grinnell College (5.6%) was not significantly different. The differences across incidence rates could be explained by the differences in definition between studies; the current study included threats of violence and sexual pressure into the definition, whereas Black and colleagues limited their definition to only physical acts that occurred. For example, the more direct comparison would be responses to item "Hurt (hit, slapped, choked, punched, kicked) me when angry". For that item, 1.5% of participants endorsed experiencing physical violence. Limited to 2015 and by gender identity, 1.6% of female-identified participants and 1.2% of male-identified participants reported experiencing physical violence in an intimate partner relationship. Using these rates, the rate of physical violence in an intimate partner relationship was significantly lower for female ($z = -4.27$, $p < .05$) and male ($z = -5.81$, $p < .05$) Grinnell College students.

Edwards and colleagues (2015) surveyed 6,030 college students to determine 6-month incidence rates of physical dating violence in college. They also looked at rates of physical dating violence within heterosexual and sexual minority subgroups. In their study, female sexual minority students had significantly higher incidence rates for physical dating violence (30.3%) than female heterosexual participants (12.9%). In this current study, during the 2014-2015 academic

year, non-heterosexual cisgender women experienced physical IPA (24.1%) at a greater rate than heterosexual cisgender women (19.1%). Although, they both follow the same trend, the Edwards et al. rate for sexual minority women was significantly higher ($z = 3.20$, p = < .05) than the 2015 rates for Grinnell College. On the other hand, their rates for heterosexual female participants was significantly lower ($z = 3.48$, $p < .05$).

The rates for men in the Edwards et al. (2015) study were higher than the rates observed for male-identifying Grinnell College participants, with 28.0% for male heterosexual participants (versus the 5.4% rate at Grinnell College; $z = -22.09$, $p <$,05) and 30.2% for the male sexual minority students (versus 7.4% at Grinnell College; $z = -19.24$, $p <$,05). These differences do not necessarily mean that the rates of physical dating violence are lower at Grinnell College since the Edwards study used a more comprehensive and direct measurement tool (*16-item Safe Dates Physical Violence Victimization Scale*; Edwards et al., 2015) that was perhaps more sensitive to male populations.

The Association of American Universities contracted Westat (Cantor et al., 2015) to survey students at 27 universities in 2015 about a variety of sexual misconduct experiences. They included three questions meant to assess controlling, threatening, or physically violent forms of IPA since entering college. Though the AAU rates are less directly comparable to the Grinnell College rates due to different methodologies and time frame sampled, they reported that 12.8% of female, 22.8% of transgender or other gender, and 9.3% of male participants experienced IPA since entering college. None of these rates were significantly different from the rates reported for female (13.5%), transgender or other gender (15.9%), and male (9.0%) participants at Grinnell College. However, the Grinnell College rates were limited to the experiences of IPA within the past year.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Rates of IPA were calculated for several demographic groupings, including academic year, gender identity, sexual orientation, and ethnic background, as well as survey administration years. Furthermore, demographic variables were cross-tabulated to detect at-risk groups on Grinnell College Campus.

Academic year

First-year students reported the highest general IPA incidence rate, and fourth- or fifth-year students reported the lowest (see Table IPA3). However, the differences in rates across academic years were not significant. Furthermore, there were no significant changes across time for each survey year, showing that rates have been consistent for each academic year, as well as across the survey years. This finding means that age did not necessarily play a role in avoiding abusive relationships. The lack of academic-year discrepancy was expected because there have been no direct interventions or prevention efforts toward creating IPA awareness for incoming first-years since the 2013 survey was administered.

Table IPA3. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by academic year and survey year

	2013	2015
First Year	21.6%	23.1%
Second Year	21.0%	20.6%
Third Year	21.4%	19.5%
Fourth/Fifth Year	17.2%	18.9%

Gender

Rates of IPA by gender are presented in Table IPA4. As observed there, rates did vary across gender identify category within each year. However, that variability was only significant during the 2014–15 academic year (χ^2 (1, N = 500) = 10.17, p < .05). In 2014–15, transgender or other gender participants had the highest rate of IPA (30.0%), which was 5.4% higher than the rate observed for cisgender women and 16.7% higher than cisgender men. Though variability in rates existed for gender identity groups during the 2012–13 academic year, that variability was not statistically significant. Further, no change in rates from 2013 to 2015 was significant for any of the three gender identify groups. Of note, the transgender or other gender participants appeared to have shown a drastic increase in IPA in 2015 (14.3% to 30.0%); however, there were only 27 participants within this group across the two survey years. As a consequence, subsequent analyses that utilize gender identity as a variable will collapse those participants in with the gender identity (i.e., female or male) they requested on the survey.

Table IPA4. Rates of intimate partner victimization abuse by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Transgender/Other Gender	14.3%	30.0%
Cisgender Female	21.3%	24.6%
Cisgender Male	18.9%	13.3%

Using the collapsed gender identity variable, a significant difference in the rates of intimate partner abuse for female- and male-identifying participants remained significant for the 2015 survey administration only (χ^2 (1, N = 488) = 9.25, p < .05). In 2015, female-identifying participants reported IPA at a rate significantly higher than male-identifying participants (see Table IPA5). The difference in IPA rates between female and male participants in 2013 was not statistically significant. Also, the change in rates for women and men across survey administrations was not statistically significant.

Table IPA5. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by binary gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Female	21.3%	24.4%
Male	18.9%	13.2%

Sexual Orientation

The rates of IPA by sexual orientation and survey administration are presented in Table IPA6. In 2013, heterosexual participants had a significantly lower overall rate of IPA than non-heterosexual participants (χ^2 (1, N = 406) = 8.21, p < .05). However, the difference in rates was not significant in 2015. Further, the change in rates across survey administrations was not significant for either non-heterosexual or heterosexual participants.

Table IPA6. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by sexual orientation and survey year

	2013	2015
Non-Heterosexual	30.5%	23.6%
Heterosexual	17.0%	19.3%

Gender by Sexual Orientation

The rates of IPA for combinations of gender identity and sexual orientation subgroups are presented in Table IPA7. Several patterns of rates among these subgroups and across time are noteworthy. First, the only significant differences between female and male participants within a survey administration year occurred in 2015 for non-heterosexual (χ^2 (1, N = 114) = 4.36, p < .05) and heterosexual (χ^2 (1, N = 365) = 5.57, p < .05) participants. During that year, female non-heterosexual participants had an IPA rate approximately 3.5 times larger than male non-heterosexual participants. Similarly, female heterosexual participants had an IPA rate approximately 1.7 times greater than male heterosexual participants. No statistically significant gender differences were observed in 2013 for either sexual orientation category.

Second, in 2015, no significant differences in rates of IPA were observed between non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants for either female- or male-identifying participants. However, statistically significant differences in IPA rates between sexual orientation categories emerged for both female- (χ^2 (1, N = 267) = 4.33, p < .05) and male-identifying participants in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 130) = 6.54, p < .05) in 2013. In both cases, non-heterosexual participants experienced IPA at rates significantly greater than their heterosexual gender identity counterparts.

Third, non-heterosexual participants' rates of IPA decreased from 2013 to 2015, while heterosexual participants rates increased over that time period. However, the rate change was statistically significant only male-identifying non-heterosexual participants (χ^2 (1, N = 47) = 7.29, p < .05). For that group, their rate dropped 32.6% from 2013 to 2015. Some caution should be used when interpreting these rates, as the number of male non-heterosexual participants who were dating was small relative to the other groups (20 in 2013 and 27 in 2015).

Table IPA7. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by binary gender and sexual orientation

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Non-Heterosexual	29.4%	40.0%	26.4%	7.4%
Heterosexual	17.6%	15.5%	23.6%	13.9%

Ethnicity/Race

Despite some apparent variability, rates of IPA were not significantly different across ethnic/racial groups in both 2013 and 2015 (see Table IPA8). Additionally, though rates of IPA were smaller in 2015 for DSOC and international student participants, none of the changes in rates over survey administrations were statistically significant.

Table IPA8. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	2015
DSOC	31.3%	19.1%
International	26.7%	10.0%
DWC	18.8%	21.8%

Note. DSOC = Domestic Students of Color, DWC = Domestic White or Caucasian.

Ethnicity/Race by Gender

The rates of IPA for combinations of gender identity and ethnic/racial subgroups are presented in Table IPA9. Several patterns of rates among these subgroups and across time are noteworthy. First, the rate of IPA for DSOC and DWC male-identifying participants was significantly lower than DSOC and DWA female-identifying students in 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 92) = 4.24, $p < .05$ for DSOC and χ^2 (1, N = 358) = 4.64, $p < .05$ for DWC). No other gender-identity differences were statistically significant for international participants in 2015 or for any ethnic/racial group in 2013. The nonsignificant finding for international students should be interpreted with some caution, as the number of participants in that analysis were relatively small (15 in 2013 and 20 in 2015). Similarly, caution should be advanced when interpreting rate differences involving male DSOC, as there were relatively few participants for the computation of their rates, as well (32 in 2013 and 32 in 2015).

Second, ethnic/racial differences in IPA rates were not significant for female-identifying participants in 2013 or for female- or male-identifying participants in 2015. However, there was a statistically significant effect for ethnic/racial group for male-identifying participants in 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 117) = 8.16, $p < .05$). Again, caution is needed in interpreting these rate differences, as there were relatively fewer male-identifying DSOC and international students in the calculation of these rates.

Third, from 2013 to 2015, only one ethnic/racial and gender identity subgroup experienced a statistically significant drop in the rate of IPA. For male-identifying DSOC, the rate of IPA fell significantly from 43.8% to 6.3% (χ^2 (1, N = 48) = 9.85, $p < .05$). However, caution should be used when interpreting that rate drop, as it was based on only 48 cases.

Table IPA9. Rates of intimate partner abuse victimization by binary gender and ethnic/racial background

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
DSOC	25.0%	43.8%	23.3%	6.3%
International	36.4%	0.0%	13.3%	0.0%
DWC	19.9%	15.5%	25.9%	16.0%

Note. DSOC = Domestic Students of Color, DWC = Domestic White or Caucasian.

Reasons for Continuing Relationship

At the end of the section on abusive behaviors, the participants were asked to select any reasons they may have had for staying in that abusive relationship. The top responses are presented in Table IPA10. These responses are compared across survey years to show any change across time.

Table IPA10. Top reasons why participants did not leave abusive relationships by survey year

	2013	**2015**	**Total**
I did not believe the relationship was abusive	58.1%	61.3%	59.8%
I was not aware at the time that I was in an abusive relationship	29.1%	26.5%	27.7%
I had the same friends and was afraid of losing those friends	19.8%	17.6%	18.6%
I did not tell anyone about it	17.4%	13.7%	15.4%
The person I was dating threatened to hurt and/or kill themselves if I left them	11.0%	14.2%	12.8%
No one stepped in to try and help	12.8%	9.8%	11.2%
Some other reason	9.9%	5.9%	7.7%
The person I was dating threatened to disclose personal information about me to others	*	5.9%	5.9%
I was dependent on this person financially	3.5%	2.9%	3.2%

* This item was not available on the 2013 survey.

The top two reasons why participants did not leave their relationship were a lack of current (64.3%) and past awareness (25.4%) of what constituted an abusive relationship. There is an important difference between these two items, the first suggests that the participant still does not believe the relationship they are/were in is/was abusive. This could be for reasons within this survey (e.g. too many false positives) or a lack of personal awareness of IPA. The past awareness item showed that while they were engaged in the abusive relationship, they were unaware, but now they are aware of its' abusive nature. These results could be used to provide justification for a campuswide awareness programs that depict the signs of intimate partner abuse.

DWC participants were significantly more likely to report "I did not tell anyone about it" than DSOC participants, with 17.0% and 6.0% respectively (χ^2 (1, N = 320) = 5.14, p < .05). Cisgender women were significantly more likely to not tell anyone about it (19.1% versus 7.5%; χ^2 (1, N = 324) = 8.08, p < .05) than cisgender men. Additionally, cisgender women were also

more likely to not leave because of losing mutual friendships (15.7% versus 8.3% for cisgender men; χ^2 (1, N = 324) = 3.76, p < .05).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Nearly 60% of participants in both survey years reported being in a dating relationship, as it was defined by the survey. Approximately 24% of those participants who were in dating relationships, or nearly 13% of all participants regardless of dating history, reported one or more behaviors that could be considered intimate partner abuse. The rates were not statistically different between survey administrations. An analysis of the rates of experience by a number of demographic subgroups revealed that domestic students of color, cisgender women, and non-heterosexual participants were the most at-risk groups for IPA.

To contextualize these findings, several comparisons were made to rates observed in national benchmarking studies. The rate of IPA was significantly lower than the rates observed in the College Dating Violence and Abuse survey (Peugh & Glauber, 2011) and the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Black et al., 2011). Alternatively, the rate of physically violent IPA at Grinnell College was not significantly different from the rates reported by the ACHA (2014) and the Association of American Universities (Cantor et al., 2015).

When asked about reasons for not leaving an abusive relationship, a substantial number of participants cited a general lack of awareness about what constitutes IPA. Other relatively common reasons for not leaving reason included fear of losing friends and threats by the partner to harm themselves if the relationship ended. Given these reasons, educational efforts are warranted to raise awareness of what constitutes abuse, as well as resources for how to leave such a relationship.

Considering only those individuals in dating relationships, approximately one in five experienced IPA. Physical and pressuring types of abuse were most common forms experienced. Domestic students of color, cisgender women and non-heterosexual participants are the most at-risk groups for IPA. Therefore, these subgroups should be targeted through future IPA prevention programs.

UNWANTED SEXUAL COMMUNICATION

DEFINITION

For the purposes of this survey, unwanted sexual communication (USC) was defined as "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other comments of a sexual nature. The unwanted sexual communication may occur in person, through phone conversation, text message, instant message, email, written message, or other media to which a person is subjected without invitation or consent."

BASE RATES

The present survey allowed for participants to report the details of USC they had experienced in years prior to the survey as well as the current year, while the survey administered in 2013 limited participants to discussing experiences they had had within the last year. The rates of USC as reported during the 2015 administration of the survey are presented in Table USC1. A total of 29.7% of participants reported they had experienced USC (or something like it) at some point during their life, and 25.9% reported experiencing USC since entering college. A majority of these participants had had an experience of USC within the last year.

Table USC1. Timing of reported unwanted sexual communication

	No	Yes, This Year	Yes, Not This Year	Unsure, This year	Unsure, Not This Year
Percentages	70.8%	14.4%	8.7%	3.2%	2.9%

Rates of USC for the previous academic year by survey administration are presented in Table USC2. The rates of participants endorsing each of the three options changed significantly from 2013 to 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 1688) = 32.50, p < .05). In 2013, 72.5% of participants reported that they had not experienced USC within the last year, but in 2015, that percentage increased to 82.5%. This 10% drop in instances of USC can be accounted for by a 4.6% drop in participants responding, "Yes" and a 5.4% drop in participants responding "I'm not sure."

Table USC2. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by survey administration

	2013	2015
No	72.5%	82.5%
Yes	19.0%	14.4%
Unsure	8.6%	3.2%

When "yes" and "unsure" responses were combined, the rate of USC experiences reported during the 2014–15 academic year was significantly lower than that reported during the 2012–13 academic year (95% CI for difference: -12.0% to -8.0%). In 2013, 27.5% (95% CI: 24.3% to 30.7%) of participants reported that they had experienced USC (or something like it) within the past year; in 2015, this percentage dropped to 17.5% of students (95% CI: 10.0% to 20.0%).

Additionally, the decrease in participants' uncertainty is particularly notable — in 2013, 8.6% of participants were uncertain, but in 2015, only 3.2%. This decrease may indicate that Grinnell students have become more certain as to whether what they experienced was (or was not) a case of USC. This decrease could potentially be a result of increased awareness as to what constitutes various types of sexual misconduct.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Academic Year

Rates of USC by participants' academic year are reported in Table USC3. Though some variability was observed in reported rates across the academic year, the difference in rates was not significant. This means that in any given survey year, no single academic year experienced more USC than any other year. Incidence rates for USC dropped significantly from 2013 to 2015 for second-, χ^2 (1, N = 431) = 5.770, $p < .05$; third-, χ^2 (1, N = 372) =11.70, $p < .05$; and fourth- or fifth-year participants, χ^2 (1, N = 355) = 4.38, $p < .05$. While there was a slight decrease in incidence of USC for first-year participants, this decrease was not significant. This means that interventions instituted after the 2013 survey may not have had as much of an effect on first-year students' incidence rates as they had on incidence rates for participants of other academic years.

Table USC3. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by academic year and survey year

	2013	**2015**
First Year	26.6%	20.7%
Second Year	26.4%	16.9%
Third Year	29.9%	15.2%
Fourth/Fifth Year	24.5%	15.6%

Gender

Analyses of gender were separated into three categories — cisgender female, cisgender male, and transgender/other gender. Because the sample size of transgender participants was small, (13 participants in 2013, 31 participants in 2015), it is very difficult to accurately gauge whether certain individuals in the transgender community are more at risk for USC (e.g., male-to-female, female-to-male, or non-binary individuals). As such, the decision was made to combine all participants identified as transgender/other gender into one demographic category. For 2013, the transgender/other gender section contained all participants who marked themselves as "transgender" or "other" on the gender identity question, and for 2015 this section contained all participants who selected "other" for sex (as assigned at birth) or gender identity, as well as all those who specified that their gender identity was different from their assigned sex.

Table USC4 displays the rates of USC by gender and survey year. There were significant differences in USC rates by gender in 2013 (χ^2 (2, N = 722) = 30.45, $p < .05$) and 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 840) = 24.63, $p < .05$). However, only cisgender women experienced significantly less USC in 2015 than in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 953) = 13.34, $p < .05$). There was a directional and marginal

decrease for cisgender male participants (χ^2 (1, N = 565) = 3.36, p = 0.07) and an insignificant decrease for transgender/other gender participants.

Table USC4. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Transgender or Other Gender	38.5%	22.6%
Cisgender Female	32.9%	22.3%
Cisgender Male	13.9%	9.0%

When transgender/other gender participants were removed from the analyses, the difference between cisgender women and men remained significant across 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 709) = 29.65, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 809) = 24.22, p < .05) and the cumulative total of both survey years (χ^2 (1, N = 1518) = 56.30, p < .05). In all survey years, cisgender women experienced higher rates of USC than cisgender men.

When cisgender men were removed from the analyses, transgender/other gender participants and cisgender women were found to have no significant difference in USC rates. In fact, in 2015, transgender/other gender participants and cisgender female participants had nearly the exact same incidence rate.

To contextualize the rates of unwanted sexual communication by gender at Grinnell College, using a nationally representative sample of 9,970 female and 7,421 male participants ages 18 and older, Black and colleagues (2010) found that 33.7% of women experienced non-contact unwanted sexual experiences during their lifetime. In the present study, however, 27.5% (z = -2.93, p < .05) of female participants reported they had experienced USC at some point during their lives (36.3% including "unsure" responses, z = 1.23, p > .05). If only counting those who said they had definitely experienced USC, Grinnell is below the national average. However, counting those who said they were "unsure," Grinnell does not significantly differ from the national average.

Black and colleagues also found that 3.0% of women experienced an instance within the past year. However, in 2015, 17.5% (z = 18.97, p < .05) of female participants had experienced USC in the past year, or 22.1% including "unsure" responses (z = 24.99, p < .05). Grinnell's rate is significantly higher than national average in this regard, but this could potentially be attributed to the fact that Black's was a national sample, compared to Grinnell's sample of exclusively college students.

Black and colleagues reported that that 12.8% of men experienced non-contact unwanted sexual experiences at any point during their lifetimes, but in 2015, 13.1% of male participants (z = 0.16, p > .05) from the present survey reported they had experienced USC; that rate rose to 16.1% when "unsure" responses were included (z = 1.79, p > .05). These rates did not significantly differ from the national average. Black et al. found that 2.7% of men experienced an instance within the last year. In comparison, 7.3% of Grinnell College male participants (z = 5.96, p < .05) from the present survey reported experiencing USC, and when "unsure" responses are

included, the proportion rose to 9.1% (z = 8.30, $p < .05$). Both rates were significantly higher than that found by Black and colleagues.

Black et al. defined non-contact unwanted sexual experiences as "those unwanted experiences that do not involve any touching or penetration, including someone exposing their sexual body parts, flashing, or masturbating in front of the victim, someone making a victim show his or her body parts, someone making a victim look at or participate in sexual photos or movies, or someone harassing the victim in a public place in a way that made the victim feel unsafe." This definition differs greatly from the one used in the present study. It is broader and includes behaviors (e.g., exposing sexual body parts) that were not included in the definition used for this study. These differences could, in part account for the disparity in rates across studies.

The Association of American Universities (AAU) commissioned Westat (Cantor et al., 2015) to survey college undergraduate and graduate students at 27 major universities in 2015. Just over 150,000 (19.3% response rate) students participated. In addition to examining experiences with a variety of types of sexual misconduct, they asked five questions related to harassment by others since entering college. Those questions focused on others making sexual remarks or jokes that the participant found offensive, making inappropriate or offensive remarks about the participant or someone else's body or appearance, trying to get the participant to engage in unwanted sexual conversations, sending unsolicited and unwanted electronic communication to the participant, and other sexual advances that occurred after being rebuffed. They reported rates for participants by gender and found that 61.9% of female, 75.2% of transgender or other gender, and 42.9% of male participants experienced harassment since entering college. These rates were significantly higher than the comparable rates at for female (32.2%; $z = -14.04$, $p < .05$), transgender or other gender (35.5%; $z = --2.75$, $p < .05$), and male (14.0%; $z = -14.92$, $p < .05$) participants at Grinnell College. Caution is warranted in interpreting these differences, however, as the AAU survey's definition of harassment was broader than the one used in the Grinnell College survey.

For subsequent analyses of gender, binary-identified transgender respondents will be grouped with the gender they identified on the survey.

Sexual Orientation

Sexual orientation was divided into two levels — those participants who identified themselves as heterosexual, and those participants identified themselves as lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, or other (henceforth, non-heterosexual). This grouping was created to allow for a sufficient sample size to complete various analyses.

There were no significant differences in unwanted sexual communication between heterosexual and non-heterosexual identified participants in 2013 or 2015. However, both heterosexual, χ^2 (1, $N = 1153$) = 12.49, $p < .05$, and non-heterosexual, χ^2 (1, $N = 380$) = 8.40, $p < .05$, participants did experience significantly less USC in 2015 than in 2013.

Table USC5. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by sexual orientation and survey year

	2013	**2015**

Non-Heterosexual	31.1%	18.3%
Heterosexual	25.5%	17.0%

Gender by Sexual Orientation

In 2015, both non-heterosexual male-identified and non-heterosexual female-identified participants experienced similar amounts of USC (see Table USC6). However, heterosexual female participants experienced significantly more USC than heterosexual male participants, χ^2 (1, N = 605) = 32.37, $p < .05$. Additionally, heterosexual women experienced significantly more USC than non-heterosexual women, χ^2 (1, N = 485) = 4.04, $p < .05$, and heterosexual men experienced significantly less USC than non-heterosexual men, χ^2 (1, N = 321) = 9.31, $p < .05$.

From 2013 to 2015, both heterosexual women, χ^2 (1, N = 681) = 6.00, $p < .05$, and non-heterosexual women, χ^2 (1, N = 245) = 7.66, $p < .05$, experienced significantly less USC. However, heterosexual and non-heterosexual men did not significantly decrease.

Table USC6. Rates of unwanted sexual communication by sexual orientation and gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Heterosexual	33.1%	11.7%	24.6%	7.1%
Non-Heterosexual	31.4%	25.6%	16.3%	20.4%

Ethnicity

To ensure adequate sample size for statistical analyses, participants were separated into three separate ethnic/racial groups — domestic white/Caucasian students (DWC), domestic students of color (DSOC), and international students. In comparing base rates of USC (see Table USC7), there were no significant differences between any ethnic/racial group in 2013 or in 2015. However, the rate of USC only dropped significantly for DWC participants from 2013 to 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 1114) = 22.02, $p < .05$). Incidence rates for DSOC participants did drop, but not significantly so, and incidence rates for international participants stayed the same for both survey years.

Table USC7. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by ethnic/racial background

	2013	**2015**
International	23.7%	23.3%
Domestic Students of Color	29.7%	21.2%
Domestic White/Caucasian	26.7%	15.3%

When comparing DWC participants to participants of all other ethnic/racial identities, however, a significant difference in rates of USC was noted between the two groups in the year 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 810) = 4.27, $p < .05$). In 2015, DWC participants experienced significantly less USC than participants of all other ethnic/racial identities (see Table USC8). However, this difference was not observed in 2013. Additionally, even with the combination of the two ethnic/racial categories above, DSOC and international participants still did not experience significantly less USC in

2015 than in 2013. DWC participants did significantly decrease in instances of USC, to the point that these students were experiencing significantly less USC than participants in all other ethnic/racial groups. The USC rate for DSOC and international students has not dropped as rapidly as it has for domestic white/Caucasian students.

Table USC8. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by ethnic/racial background

	2013	2015
Domestic Students of Color and International	28.1%	21.5%
Domestic White/Caucasian	26.7%	15.3%

Ethnicity/Race by Gender

In 2015, both DWC, χ^2 (1, N = 586) = 17.5, p < .05, and international, χ^2 (1, N = 43) = 6.98, p < .05, female-identified participants experienced significantly higher USC than male-identified participants of the same ethnic/racial group. However, female and male DSOC did not experience a significantly different amount of USC. Additionally, DWC, DSOC, and international women did not experience significantly different amounts of USC, nor did men of the same ethnic/racial categories (see Table 9).

From 2013 to 2015, female DSOC experienced a marginally significant decrease in instances of USC, χ^2 (1, N = 172) = 3.48, p = .06; however, male DSOC experienced almost exactly the same rates of USC. Rates for female international participants also did not significantly decrease from 2015 to 2013. The only groups that significantly decreased in rates of USC were DWC women, χ^2 (1, N = 682) = 12.15, p < .05, and DWC men, χ^2 (1, N = 406) = 4.16, p < .05.

Table USC9. Rates of unwanted sexual communication victimization by ethnic/racial background and gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
DWC	32.2%	14.1%	20.4%	7.8%
DSOC	37.9%	14.7%	24.9%	14.5%
International	30.8%	9.1%	35.7%	0.0%

Note. DWC = Domestic White/Caucasian, DSOC = Domestic Students of Color

Ethnicity by Sexual Orientation

In 2015, non-heterosexual DWC participants and participants of all other ethnic/racial identities experienced similar rates of USC (see Table USC10). However, heterosexual DSOC and international participants experienced significantly more USC than heterosexual DWC participants, χ^2 (1, N = 583) = 8.45, p < .05. This was not the case in 2013 — both heterosexual DWC and heterosexual DSOC and international students experienced similar rates of USC. Heterosexual and non-heterosexual DWC did not experience significantly different amounts of USC, nor did heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants of all other ethnic/racial identities.

Both heterosexual DWC participants, χ^2 (1, N = 818) = 18.10, p < .05, and non-heterosexual DWC participants, χ^2 (1, N = 273) = 4.77, p < .05, experienced significantly less USC in from 2015 than in 2013. However, heterosexual DSOC and international students did not experience less USC in 2015 than 2013, and, while non-heterosexual DSOC and international students did experience a decrease, this decrease was not statistically significant.

Table USC10. Experiences of unwanted sexual communication victimization by ethnic/racial background and sexual orientation

	2013		2015	
	Heterosexual	**Non-Heterosexual**	**Heterosexual**	**Non-Heterosexual**
DWC	25.8%	29.4%	14.0%	18.2%
DSOC & International	25.5%	34.6%	24.3%	16.4%

Note. DWC = Domestic White/Caucasian, DSOC = Domestic Students of Color

PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

Member of Campus Community

In 2013, 83.1% of instances of USC were perpetrated by other members of the Grinnell College community, while 12.8% were perpetrated by individuals unaffiliated with the college. In 2015, 76.9% of instances of USC were perpetrated by members of the Grinnell College community, and 20.4% of perpetrators were unaffiliated with the college. This difference between survey years was not statistically significant.

Perpetrator's Relationship to the Victim

There was no significant relation between survey year and the distribution of the relationships of the perpetrator to the victim (see Table USC11). The rates of USC experiences from friends, acquaintances, and strangers were all approximately equal, and USC was significantly less frequently experienced from romantic partners.

Table USC11. Most common relationship types for perpetrators of unwanted sexual communication

	2013	2015
Romantic Partner	10.2%	8.3%
Friend	32.7%	27.8%
Acquaintance	30.6%	32.4%
Stranger	26.4%	31.5%

These experiences did not differ significantly by gender identity (male or female) or sexual orientation (heterosexual or non-heterosexual). Additionally, none of the aforementioned groups significantly changed from 2013 to 2015. These rates have stayed generally stable across both demographic categories and from survey year to survey year.

Differences in relationship patterns were present, however, when comparing participants' ethnicities/races. In 2015, the pattern of relationships with the perpetrator of the USC were significantly different between DWC participants and participants of all other ethnic/racial identities, χ^2 (1, N = 92) = 8.38, p < .05. DWC participants experienced more USC from strangers (39.7%) than DSOC and international participants (10.3%). DSOC and international participants experienced more USC from friends (34.5%) and acquaintances (44.8%) than DWC (20.6% and 30.2%, respectively). There was no significant difference between these ethnic/racial categories in 2013, indicating a shift such that, from 2013 to 2015, DWC students experienced more USC from strangers and less from friends, and DSOC and international students experienced less USC from strangers and more from acquaintances.

Biological Sex

Victims most often experienced USC from a perpetrator of a different sex than their own (85.6% of individuals who experienced USC in 2015), but USC from a perpetrator of the same sex was not uncommon (17.6% of individuals who experienced USC in 2015). These percentages did not significantly change from 2013 to 2015.

Male-identified participants experienced significantly more USC from perpetrators of the same assigned sex than female-identified participants in 2013, χ^2 (1, N = 134) = 17.83, p < .05; 2015, χ^2 (1, N = 132) = 56.29, p < .05; and the cumulative total of both survey years, χ^2 (1, N = 266) = 68.34, p < .05. In 2015, only 2.8% of women who had experienced USC within the last year experienced it from a perpetrator of the same sex, but 40.0% of men who experienced USC experienced it from a perpetrator of the same sex. These percentages did not significantly differ from 2013 to 2015, as demonstrated in Table USC12.

Table USC12. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual communication by participant's gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Same-Sex Perpetrator	9.0%	56.5%	2.8%	40.0%
Different-Sex Perpetrator	91.0%	43.5%	97.2%	60.0%

Additionally, those who identified as non-heterosexual experienced significantly more USC from members of the same assigned sex than those participants who identified as heterosexual in 2013, χ^2 (1, N = 136) = 18.04, p < .05; 2015, χ^2 (1, N = 135) = 27.35, p < .05; and the cumulative total of both survey years, χ^2 (1, N = 271) = 44.74, p < .05. In 2015, only 4.3% of heterosexual participants who had experienced USC experienced it from a perpetrator of the same sex, but 39.0% of non-heterosexual participants did. These percentages did not significantly differ from 2013 to 2015, as demonstrated in Table USC13.

Table USC13. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual communication by participant's sexual orientation

	2013	2015

	Hetero	Non-Hetero	Hetero	Non-Hetero
Same-Sex Perpetrator	7.8%	38.2%	4.3%	39.0%
Different-Sex Perpetrator	92.2%	61.8%	95.7%	61.0%

There was no observed difference in rates of USC from same- or other-sex perpetrators by ethnicity/race. DWC participants and participants of all other ethnic/racial identities did not differ in the frequency of same- or other-sex perpetrators, and these rates also did not significantly differ from 2013 to 2015.

Power Imbalance

In 2015, 38% victims perceived a power imbalance in their respective instances of USC, while 40.4% did not. This number was even more strongly pronounced for female participants, who perceived a power imbalance in 42.9% of instances, as opposed to 17.6% of instances for male participants. This difference was marginally significant, χ^2 (1, N = 94) = 3.75, p = 0.05. There were no other significant differences within any other demographic category.

Table USC14. Participants' perceived power imbalances by demographic category

	Yes	No	Unsure
Male	17.6%	58.8%	23.5%
Female	42.9%	36.4%	20.8%
Heterosexual	36.8%	41.2%	22.1%
Non-Heterosexual	37.9%	41.4%	20.7%
DWC	41.3%	41.3%	17.5%
DSOC + International	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%

Note. DWC = Domestic White/Caucasian, DSOC = Domestic Students of Color

Threat and Physical Force

In 2015, victims experienced threat either before or during USC in 4.6% of instances and physical force in 19.4% of instances. A total of 22.0% of cases included threat and/or force either before or during USC.

No male participants experienced threat before or during an instance of USC in either 2013 or 2015. In 2015, a total of 6.3% of incidents experienced by male participants involved physical force. In 2015, female participants experienced threat in 6.5% of incidents of USC (1.8% in 2013) and force in 22.1% of incidents (16.8% in 2013).

Heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants experienced threat and force at largely the same rates, with 19.1% of heterosexual and 25.0% of non-heterosexual participants experiencing threat and/or force before or during their instance(s) of USC in 2015. These rates did not significantly differ from 2013 to 2015.

Experiences of threat and force also did not significantly differ for DWC, DSOC, or international students in 2015 or 2013. These groups also did not significantly differ in experiences of threat/force from 2013 to 2015.

INTOXICATION

Victim Intoxication

The following analyses were conducted to better understand the situational factors relating to USC. These analyses are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. Instead, the results are meant to help the community understand how this type of misconduct occurs on our campus and to identify possible places the community might intervene to reduce future instances of USC.

In 2015, 53.7% of participants that were victims of USC within the last year reported that they were mildly to severely intoxicated, and 28.7% of participants said that they were either moderately or severely intoxicated. These rates were not significantly different from the rates reported in 2013 (55.0% and 28.2%, respectively).

When a victim was moderately to severely intoxicated, USC occurred more frequently at parties (64.7%) than outside of parties (35.3%), χ^2 (1, N = 196) = 5.67, $p < .05$. When victims were not to this level of intoxication, there was no significant difference between whether the USC occurred at a party (46.9%) or outside of parties (53.1%). Intoxicated victims most frequently experienced USC in on-campus public locations (65.8%). A victim's intoxication was not associated with the victim's relationship to the perpetrator. Intoxicated victims did not experience more threat or force than sober victims.

Perpetrator Intoxication

In 2015, 60.2% of participants that were victims of USC within the past year reported that the perpetrator appeared mildly to severely intoxicated, and 38.9% of participants said that the perpetrator was either moderately or severely intoxicated. These rates were not significantly different from the rates reported in 2013 (62.8% and 47.3%, respectively).

When a perpetrator was moderately to severely intoxicated, USC happened more frequently at parties (63.7%) than outside of parties (36.3%), χ^2 (1, N = 164) = 8.35, $p < .05$. When perpetrators were not to this level of intoxication, there was no significant difference between whether the USC occurred at a party (41.1%) or outside of parties (58.9%). Intoxicated perpetrators most frequently perpetrated USC in on-campus public locations (68.7%). A perpetrator's intoxication was not associated with the perpetrator's relationship to the victim. Intoxicated perpetrators used more physical force (56.0%) than perpetrators who were not intoxicated (41.0%), χ^2 (1, N = 255) = 3.68, p = 0.06.

Both Victim and Perpetrator Intoxication

Either the victim or the perpetrator were mildly to severely intoxicated in 66.7% of reported cases in 2015, and either were moderately or severely intoxicated in 50.0% of cases. Both the victim and perpetrator were mildly to severely intoxicated in 47.2% of cases, and both were

moderately or severely intoxicated in 17.6% of cases. These patterns did not differ significantly across survey year.

If a victim experienced any level of intoxication, the victim was more likely to experience USC from a perpetrator who also was intoxicated; if a victim was not intoxicated, the victim was more likely to experience USC from a perpetrator who also was not intoxicated (see Table USC15). This trend held true through 2013, χ^2 (1, N = 148) = 62.32, p < .05, and 2015, χ^2 (1, N = 108) = 40.25, p < .05, and the pattern did not change significantly from 2013 to 2015.

Table USC15. Any intoxication in unwanted sexual communication events by survey year

		2013	2015
Perpetrator Intoxicated	Victim Intoxicated	50.0%	48.4%
	Victim Not Intoxicated	12.8%	11.0%
Perpetrator Not Intoxicated	Victim Intoxicated	4.7%	5.2%
	Victim Not Intoxicated	32.4%	35.5%

As before, if a victim was not moderately to severely intoxicated, the victim was more likely to experience USC from a perpetrator who also was not moderately to severely intoxicated. This trend held true through 2013, χ^2 (1, N = 148) = 23.01, p < .05, and 2015, χ^2 (1, N = 108) = 9.18, p < .05, and the pattern did not change significantly from 2013 to 2015.

Table USC16. Moderate-Severe Intoxication in unwanted sexual communication events by survey year

		2013	2015
Perpetrator Intoxicated	Victim Intoxicated	22.3%	17.4%
	Victim Not Intoxicated	25.0%	23.2%
Perpetrator Not Intoxicated	Victim Intoxicated	6.1%	8.4%
	Victim Not Intoxicated	46.6%	51.0%

CO-OCCURRING FACTORS TO UNWANTED SEXUAL COMMUNICATION

Frequency of Experience

The frequency of participants who had experienced USC from one person versus from multiple people did not significantly change from 2013 to 2015 (see Table USC17)

Table USC17. Percentage of participants who have experienced unwanted sexual communication from one or more persons

	2013	2015
One Person	63.5%	56.9%
More than One Person	36.5%	43.1%

Similarly, the frequency of participants who had experienced USC one time versus multiple times did not significantly change from 2013 to 2015 (see Table USC18).

Table USC18. Percentage of participants who have experienced unwanted sexual communication in one or more events

	2013	2015
One Event	45.9%	49.5%
More than One Event	50.5%	54.1%

A more detailed account of the number of persons providing the USC by frequency of occurrence is provided in Table USC19. There was no significant change in the pattern of frequency and number of persons perpetrating the USC from 2013 to 2015. However, the most common occurrence across both years was a single incident of USC committed by a single individual, and the second most common experience involved multiple USC events committed by the same individual.

Table USC19. Frequency of unwanted sexual communication occurrence

	2013	2015
Once by One Person	35.5%	36.7%
Once by More than One Person	10.1%	12.8%
Multiple Times by One Person	27.7%	20.2%
Multiple Times by a Different Person Each Time	21.6%	18.3%
Multiple Times by More than One Person On at Least One Occasion	4.7%	11.9%

Modes of Unwanted Sexual Communication

USC can occur in a variety of circumstances and through many different modes of communication. When participants experienced USC, they most frequently experienced it in person, through text message, or on social media (Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat, etc.). See Table USC20. There were no significant differences in the rate of each mode used to commit USC from 2013 to 2015.

Table USC20. Frequency of different modes of unwanted sexual communication

	2013	2015
In Person	77.6%	80.0%
Text Message	25.7%	22.5%
Social Media	20.4%	15.5%
On the Phone	2.6%	0.9%
Dorm Room Whiteboard	2.6%	0.9%
Other	3.3%	0.9%
Written Letter	2.6%	0.0%

Location

In-person USC occurred in a variety of locations: on campus and off campus, in public settings and in private settings, at parties and in other locations. In both 2013 and 2015, despite the differences in rates, participants did not experience significantly more USC in public than in private settings. Additionally, there was no significant change for either public or private settings from 2013 to 2015.

Table USC21. Percent of unwanted sexual communication instances that occurred in a private vs. public location

	2013	2015
Public	60.3%	68.2%
Private	39.7%	31.8%

A more detailed description of locations where USC occurred is presented in Table USC22. Most commonly, USC was experienced at parties, in dorms, and off campus. Less commonly, it was experienced in academic buildings and while outside on campus. There was no significant change in rates of USC for any given location from 2013 to 2015.

Table USC22. Most common in-person locations of unwanted sexual communication

	2013	2015
Harris Center/Gardner Lounge	22.0%	27.4%
Other Party	16.0%	21.0%
Dorm Room	25.0%	17.7%
Dorm (not room)	11.0%	8.1%
Off Campus, in Grinnell	6.0%	8.1%
Off Campus, not Grinnell	1.0%	6.5%
Academic Building	4.0%	1.6%
On Campus, Outside	2.0%	0.0%

In 2015, 59.4% of USC experienced in person occurred at parties. A variety of parties were particularly notable. The majority of USC that participants experienced at parties occurred at college-sponsored parties at either the Harris Center or Gardner Lounge (see Table USC23).

These parties accounted for 50.1% of all USC experienced at parties. Additionally, off-campus parties accounted for at least 10.5% of all USC experienced at parties.

Table USC23. Parties at which participants experienced unwanted sexual communication

	2013	2015
Harris Center	31.4%	31.6%
Gardner Lounge	11.8%	5.3%
Both Harris and Gardner	5.9%	13.2%
Other On Campus	5.3%	3.9%
Other Off Campus	9.8%	10.5%
Both On and Off Campus	5.9%	0.0%
Other Unspecified	31.4%	34.2%

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES

The USC section of the survey ended with two open-ended questions, one asking participants for any other information about the USC they had experienced, and one asking if they had any recommendations for lowering instances of USC on campus.

Anything Else

Many participants used this section to give further details about the USC they had experienced, such as outlining how it happened, what was said, and who else was present when the USC occurred. Some of these participants addressed instances that occurred at parties, between committed romantic partners, and over social media.

A number of participants expressed feeling a low level of severity toward the USC they had experienced: “It was on the mild end of the spectrum of sexual misconduct.” “It was more annoying than anything.” “It was very low-level harassment, but, overall, not particularly serious.” One participant in particular addressed this feeling: “I feel like there can be a huge grey area surrounding situations like this, and I think the situations I have been in have definitely (have) fallen into that grey area. Almost every time, they were things that made me uncomfortable, but seemed like they could almost have been considered ‘harmless’ despite how uncomfortable they made me.”

Two participants referenced problems they had experienced with campus officials. One mentioned having a difficult time getting Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS) to notify the victim’s professors of the experience, so as to explain his/her/hir decreased academic performance. The other called security to ask to be redirected to an advocate, only to have the security employee ask what an advocate was. The participant was not connected with an advocate until hours later and at that point declined the service.

Student Recommendations

Most of these responses were comparable to the responses given to the same question at the end of the survey. See the section titled "Participants' Recommendations" for more student recommendations on lowering instances of sexual misconduct.

Most students who responded to this question recommended more educational materials — specifically, education related to behavior in party settings, consent, and active bystander training, as well as education targeted toward potential perpetrators of USC.

One student also requested heightened security at campus-sponsored parties. "I know I'm not the only one [who's] been harassed by drunk male athletes at parties, and their buddies working security don't do anything to stop them."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The rate of unwanted sexual communication dropped significantly from 2013 (27.5%) to 2015 (17.5%). Despite that statistically significant decrease, cisgender women and men at Grinnell College experience unwanted sexual communication at rates significantly higher than the rates reported in the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Black et al., 2011). At the same time, the rates at Grinnell College were less than the rates reported by the AAU across all three gender groups (Cantor et al., 2015). Also, over 40% of participants who experienced unwanted sexual communication stated that they received such communication from two or more people within the past year, and over 50% reported they had such experiences on more than one occasion. The most common experience was hearing the communication in person (80.0%), but many also reported experiencing unwanted sexual communication by text message (22.5%) or social media (15.5%).

Students at greatest risk for experiencing USC included first-year students, heterosexual females, non-heterosexual males, and both non-domestic and nonwhite participants. Unwanted sexual communication occurred most frequently at parties, especially college-sponsored parties at Harris Center and Gardner Lounge; and the perpetrator was reported as intoxicated in approximately two-thirds of incidents. Surprisingly, physical force co-occurred in just over one-fifth of incidents. Such factors should be considered, as the College moves forward in initiating intervention policies to lower USC on campus.

UNWANTED SEXUAL TOUCHING

DEFINITION

For the purposes of this survey, unwanted sexual touching (UST) was defined as "any contact with breasts, buttocks, groin, or genitals without consent. This includes the use of body parts being touched with another object, or being made to touch yourself or another with any or on any of these body parts. Unwanted touching may be brief, appear accidental, or begin with consented, acceptable touching and subsequently progress outside the boundaries of consent."

BASE RATES

Survey Comparisons

Of the students responding to the 2015 survey, 15.5% (95% CI: 13.1% to 17.9%) reported they had experienced unwanted sexual touching during the 2014–15 academic year. This rate is significantly lower than the rate of unwanted sexual touching (22.8%, 95% CI: 19.8% to 25.8%) reported during the 2012–13 academic year (95% CI for difference: -9.3% to -5.4%).

The 2015 survey allowed for an examination of experiences of UST during previous semesters and academic years while at Grinnell College. An additional 8.8% (24.3% in total) of 2015 survey participants reported experiencing UST at some point while in college.

The U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs (DOJ-OJP) survey of college women (Fisher et al., 2000) found that 18.0% of participants reported a completed sexual contact without force over a 12-month period, a rate that is not significantly different from that observed Grinnell College. In 2010, the Centers for Disease Control's National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NIPSVS) of a nationally representative sample of over 16,000 individuals ages 18 and older reported a 2.0% rate of UST experiences over a 12-month period and a 27.1% lifetime prevalence rate (Black et al., 2011). The rate of UST experiences reported in 2015 at Grinnell College was significantly higher than the rate reported for NIPSVS ($z = 10.79$, $p < .05$), but the lifetime prevalence rate taken in 2015 for Grinnell College participants was not significantly different from NIPSVS. In 2014, the American College Health Association reported results from more than 66,000 undergraduates who took the National College Health Assessment (NCHA) during the spring of 2014. They found that for the preceding12-month time period, 7.6% of college students experienced UST. The rate of UST experiences reported in 2015 at Grinnell College was significantly higher than the rate reported for the NCHA ($z = 6.61$, $p < .05$). After comparing the 2015 survey to other nationally distributed college surveys, Grinnell College had an overall higher rate of UST experiences over the course of one year, despite the reduction in UST rates from 2013 to 2015.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Academic Year

No significant difference in rates of UST emerged across academic years for either the 2013 or 2015 administration of the survey (see Table UST1). However, there were significant differences

between survey years when separated by academic year. The rates of UST in 2013 were significantly higher than the rates of UST in 2015 for third-year (χ^2 (1, N = 371) = 9.28 p < .05) and fourth- or fifth-year participants (χ^2 (1, N = 356) = 4.340, p < .05). The rates were not significantly different for first- and second-year participants across survey years.

Table UST1. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by academic year and survey year

	2013 (1 yr)	2015 (1 yr)	2015 (during college)
First Year	19.8%	18.8%	18.8%
Second Year	23.1%	17.7%	25.0%
Third Year	23.0%	11.2%	21.8%
Fourth/Fifth Year	23.8%	15.0%	31.0%
Total	22.8%	15.5%	24.3%

Table UST1 also displays the rates of UST for any time during college by academic year for those responding to the 2015 survey. The rates for each academic year were variable, and a significant chi-square value emerged, χ^2 (3, N = 837) = 9.25, p < .05. This significant difference seems driven by the difference between first-year (18.8%) and fourth-/fifth-year (31.0%) participant rates of UST during any time in college.

This finding is similar to the results reported in a study by Flack, Caron, Leinen, Breitenbach, Barber, Brown, and Stein (2008). With a sample of 207 first- (104) and second-year (101) students at a small liberal arts university, researchers found a significant elevation in incidence rates of first- and second-year women's unwanted sexual experiences between the end of the first month and fall break (mid-October) during the second year at school. Significantly fewer first-year (20.3%) than second-year (38.7%) women reported that they had experienced at least one incident of UST while at the university. When comparing the percentages reported by Flack and colleagues to the rates of experiences UST at any time during college collected in 2015 for Grinnell College students, the increased pattern of experienced UST during the second year of college held true for Grinnell's campus as well.

Gender

There were significant differences in UST rates between survey years for gender identity groups (see Table UST2). From 2013 to 2015, experiences of UST significantly decreased for both cisgender female (χ^2 (1, N = 953) = 6.884, p < .05) and male (χ^2 (1, N = 564) = 7.315, p < .05) participants. Though there was an increase in the rate of UST for transgender or other gender participants, that increase was not statistically significant. Within survey years, the rates of UST across gender identity groups were not stable. Significant chi-square values emerged for the analysis of UST rates by gender identity in 2013 (χ^2 (2, N = 721) = 33.303, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 840) = 47.726, p < .05). In both survey years, it appeared that cisgender males reported proportionally fewer UST experiences than cisgender females or transgender or other participants.

Table UST2. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by gender and survey year

	2013	2015

Transgender/Other	15.4%	25.8%
Cisgender Female	29.7%	22.3%
Cisgender Male	10.7%	4.7%

This finding is consistent with the result of a study conducted by Banyard, Ward, Cohn, and Plante (2007). They surveyed 651 male and female college undergraduate students from a state university in New England. The Banyard et al. (2007) study found women reporting higher rates of UST (19.6%) than men (8.2%), following the same trend as Grinnell's campus. Additionally, the Flack and colleagues' (2008) study revealed this same trend, with almost 30% of combined first- and second-year women at a small liberal arts university experiencing UST, compared to about 5% of combined first- and second-year men at the same university.

The pattern gender differences are also consistent with the results of the 2015 Association of American Universities' survey of more than 150,000 undergraduate and graduate students from 27 universities (19.3% response rate). However, the overall rates reported in the AAU survey were lower than those found at Grinnell College. For example, Cantor and colleagues (2015), the researchers who conducted the AAU survey, found that among undergraduates, 10.5% of women, 9.3% of transgender or other gender, and 2.4% of men experienced UST in the past year. While the rate of UST for cisgender males at Grinnell College was marginally higher than that reported by the AAU ($z = 1.94$, $p = .05$), the rates for cisgender female ($z = 6.27$, $p < .05$) and transgender or other gender ($z = 2.10$, $p < .05$) participants at Grinnell College were significantly higher.

The researchers who conducted the AAU study also reported rates of UST since entering college by gender. Specifically, they reported that 17.7% of undergraduate females, 17.8% of undergraduate transgender or other gender participants, and 4.0% of undergraduate males experienced UST since entering college. These rates were significantly lower than the rates of UST at Grinnell College for both cisgender females (32.9%; $z = -7.15$, $p < .05$) and males (9.7%; $z = -3.45$, $p < .05$). Despite the apparently large difference in rates for transgender or other gender participants at Grinnell College (32.3%) and from the AAU survey (17.8%), that difference was only marginally significant ($z = -1.73$, $p = .08$), possibly owing the small sample of transgender or other gender participants at Grinnell College.

Sexual Orientation

There were significant differences in rates of UST by sexual orientation across survey year (see Table UST3). From 2013 to 2015, rates of experienced UST decreased for both participants identifying as pansexual/bisexual/lesbian/gay/other (non-heterosexual) and heterosexual. However, only the rate decrease for heterosexual participants was significant, χ^2 (1, $N = 1532$) = 9.805, $p < .05$. The differences in rates between non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants were not significantly different for either year.

Table UST3. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by sexual orientation by survey year

	2013	**2015**

Heterosexual	22.5%	15.3%
Non-Heterosexual	23.8%	16.4%

Sexual Orientation by Gender Identity

The rates of UST by gender identity and sexual orientation are presented in Table UST4. As observed in that table, several notable patterns emerged. First, there were no significant differences between female and male participants who also were non-heterosexual in both 2013 and 2015. However, significant differences emerged for gender identity among heterosexuals in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 540) = 49.21, $p < .05$) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 603) = 39.27, $p < .05$). Among female participants, no significant differences in rates of UST emerged for the comparison of non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants for either survey year, while the same comparison for male participants was significant in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 239) = 9.17, $p < .05$) and marginally significant in 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 320) = 3.04, $p = .08$). In comparisons for each combination of gender identity and sexual orientation across survey administrations, marginally significant chi-square values were associated with the decrease in rates for non-heterosexual males (χ^2 (1, N = 97) = 3.59, $p = .06$), heterosexual males (χ^2 (1, N = 462) = 3.34, $p = .05$), and heterosexual (χ^2 (1, N = 683) = 3.73, $p = .05$) females. The decrease observed for non-heterosexual females was not significant.

Table UST4. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by sexual orientation, gender, and survey year

	Female		**Male**	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Heterosexual	31.1%	24.5%	7.7%	3.8%
Non-Heterosexual	25.0%	17.7%	23.3%	9.3%

Ethnicity

Significant difference in rates of current-year UST emerged between members of different ethnic/racial backgrounds for the 2013 but not the 2015 survey year (see Table UST5). In 2013, the rate of UST by international participants was higher than that of domestic students of color (DSOC) and domestic white or Caucasian (DWC) participants. However, the rates across ethnic/racial groups were not as pronounced in 2015. Further, all three groups experienced a decrease in the rate of UST, but only the drop for international (χ^2 (1, N = 81) = 5.03, $p < .05$), and DWC participants (χ^2 (1, N = 1113) = 7.321, $p < .05$) was significant.

Table UST5. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	**2015**
Domestic Students of Color	25.7%	19.9%
International	37.8%	15.7%
Domestic White or Caucasian	20.5%	14.3%

Ethnicity by Gender Identity

The rates of UST by gender identity and ethnic/racial background are reported in Table UST6. Several patterns in UST rates emerged when considering both demographic variables. First, female participants had higher rates of UST than male participants across all ethnic/racial background categories and survey administrations. Female DSOC participants had significantly higher rates of UST than their male counterparts in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 100) = 7.90, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 161) = 3.74, p = 0.05). The same pattern emerged for DWC participants in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 502) = 21.06, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 585) = 40.15, p < .05). A similar trend occurred for international participants, but only the difference in rates observed in 2015 was significant (χ^2 (1, N = 44) = 4.31, p < .05), possibly owing to the small number of international participants in the 2013 analysis (n = 36).

Second, international participants generally had higher rates of UST than both DSOC and DWC participants. However, significant differences did not emerge for rates of UST across ethnic/racial background for female participants in 2015 or male participants in 2013. There was a significant effect for ethnic/racial background for male participants in 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 312) = 6.79, p < .05), and a marginal effect for female participants in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 430) = 5.08, p = .08).

Third, rates of UST dropped from 2013 to 2015 for nearly all categories of gender identity and ethnic/racial background. However, this drop was only significant for two groups, males who were international participants (χ^2 (1, N = 26) = 4.63, p < .05) and males who were DWC (χ^2 (1, N = 405) = 5.28, p < .05).

Table UST6. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by ethnic/racial background, gender, and survey year

	Female		Male	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Domestic Students of Color	34.8%	23.6%	8.8%	10.9%
International	44.0%	24.1%	27.3%	0.0%
Domestic White or Caucasian	26.3%	21.9%	8.6%	3.3%

Ethnicity and Sexual Orientation

The rates of UST by sexual orientation and ethnic/racial background are reported in Table UST7. Several patterns in UST rates emerged when considering both demographic variables. First, heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants had statistically equivalent rates of UST across the three ethnic/racial background categories in both 2013 and 2015.

Second, while ethnic/racial background was not statistically associated with UST rates for non-heterosexuals in 2013 or 2015, significant differences in rates emerged for heterosexual participants in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 493) = 6.47, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 583) = 5.99, p < .05). Despite these significant differences, however, the pattern of rates was not consistent across the two survey administrations. In 2013, international participants experienced the highest rate of

UST, with DWC participants experiencing a rate slightly lower than DSOC. In 2015, DSOC and international participants had approximately the same rate of UST, while DWC participants experienced a lower rate.

Third, participants in all combinations of sexual orientation and ethnic/racial background categories experienced a reduction in rates of UST from 2013 to 2015. However, this reduction was significant only among heterosexual DWC participants, χ^2 (1, N = 817) = 7.71, p < .05.

Table UST7. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by ethnic/racial background, sexual orientation, and survey year

	Non-Heterosexual		Heterosexual	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Domestic Students of Color	23.8%	16.3%	23.4%	21.7%
International	25.0%	8.3%	39.4%	20.7%
Domestic White or Caucasian	21.0%	16.9%	20.4%	13.1%

CO-OCCURRING FACTORS TO UNWANTED SEXUAL TOUCHING

Number of Perpetrators and Frequency of Experiences

The proportion of UST experiences involving one or more than one perpetrator and frequency of UST experiences within the past academic year are presented in Table UST8. The most common experience for victims of UST was a single event by one perpetrator, and the proportion was consistent across survey years. The second most common experience was UST on more than one occasion by a different perpetrator each time. That proportion was consistent across survey years, as well. Additionally, no significant differences emerged between either the rates of experience by one versus more than one person or the rates of one-time experiences versus multiple experiences between survey years. The rates were roughly equivalent and consistent.

Table UST8. Number of perpetrators and frequency of unwanted sexual touching by survey year

	2013	2015
One person	58.8%	57.1%
More than one person	41.2%	42.9%
One time experience	58.8%	58.2%
More than one experience	41.2%	41.8%
Once by one person	47.1%	44.0%
Once by more than one person	11.8%	14.3%
Multiple times by one person	11.8%	13.2%
Multiple times by a different person each time	23.5%	23.1%
Multiple times by more than one person on at least one occasion	5.9%	5.5%

Location

The reported locations where UST events occurred are reported in Table UST9. Across survey years, the most common location for UST was in a public location on campus. Just over half of UST occurred this way in 2015. The second most common location was also on campus, but in a private location. There were marginally significant differences between 2013 and 2015 for experiences of UST at private or public locations in relation to the Grinnell College campus, χ^2 (5, N = 159) = 10.605, p = .06. After generalizing locations to public or private, there were no significant differences between survey years with UST experiences in private locations (25.6% in 2015; 26.0% in 2013) or public locations (74.4% in 2015; 74.0% in 2013).

Table UST9. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization at private versus public locations on and off campus by survey year

	2013	2015
On campus private	21.9%	22.1%
On campus public	43.8%	54.7%
Off campus private	1.4%	3.5%
Off campus public	12.3%	15.1%
Public (both on and off campus)	17.8%	4.7%
Private (both on and off campus)	2.7%	0.0%

More specific locations of UST events are listed in Table UST10. The most common location reported in both years was Harris Center or Gardner Lounge parties. There were significant differences between 2013 and 2015 for experiences of UST at specific locations around campus, χ^2 (9, N = 162) = 18.854, p < .05. The biggest change in location of UST from 2013 to 2015 occurred in the proportion of events occurring at Harris Center or Gardner Lounge parties, with an increase of 13.5%. This change in rate corresponds to a similar drop of 13.6% at unspecified parties, more generally.

Table UST10. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization at locations around campus by survey year

	2013	2015
Harris Center/Gardner Lounge	26.7%	40.2%
General dorm	8.0%	12.6%
Off campus Grinnell	10.7%	11.5%
Dorm room	16.0%	11.5%
Off campus not at Grinnell	2.7%	4.6%
On campus/outside	0.0%	4.6%
Other college-owned (non-dorm) building	2.7%	2.3%
Unspecified party	14.7%	1.1%
Multiple	14.7%	9.2%
Unspecified	4.0%	2.3%

Parties, more generally, were listed as the primary location of UST. In total, 67.9% of participants who had experienced UST reported at least one incident occurred at a party, whether on or off campus. The rates of UST at party locations were stable across both years (68.0% in 2013 and 67.8% in 2015).

PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS

Campus Community Members

In 2013, 89.3% of perpetrators of UST were reported to be members of the campus community. That percentage was not statistically different from the rate observed in 2015 (90.2%).

Relationship to Perpetrator

The rates of different perpetrator-victim relationships are reported in Table UST11. In general, UST was less likely to occur between romantic partners and most likely to occur when the perpetrator was a stranger to the victim. The rate for UST in different relationship categories was stable across the two survey administrations.

Table UST11. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by relationship of perpetrator to victim

	2013	2015
Romantic Partner	11.8%	10.9%
Friend	23.5%	28.3%
Acquaintance	23.5%	26.1%
Stranger	41.2%	34.8%

There were no significant differences between 2013 and 2015 for the relationship female and male participants had with perpetrators (see Table UST12). Across both 2013 and 2015, female participants had the most UST experiences with strangers while male participants had the most

experiences with friends and acquaintances. In 2013 and 2015, both female and male participants experienced the least amount of UST from a romantic partner.

Table UST12. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by relationship of perpetrator to victim and gender identity of victim

	Female		Male	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Romantic Partner	10.7%	12.0%	15.4%	11.1%
Friend	21.4%	26.7%	30.8%	33.3%
Acquaintance	21.4%	25.3%	38.5%	33.3%
Stranger	46.4%	36.0%	15.4%	22.2%

There were no statistically significant differences between 2013 and 2015 concerning the relationships of perpetrators to victims for either non-heterosexual or heterosexual participants (see Table UST13). Across both 2013 and 2015, both non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants experienced most UST with strangers. Contrary to non-heterosexual participants, heterosexual participants had higher rates of experiences with friends rather than acquaintances. Both sexual orientation groups experienced the least UST with romantic partners.

Table UST13. Rates of unwanted sexual touching victimization by relationship of perpetrator to victim and sexual orientation of victim

	Non-Heterosexual		Heterosexual	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Romantic Partner	17.4%	16.0%	8.7%	9.7%
Friend	17.4%	20.0%	26.2%	30.6%
Acquaintance	21.7%	24.0%	23.2%	27.4%
Stranger	43.5%	40.0%	42.0%	32.2%

There were no significant differences between 2013 and 2015 for the relationships members of different ethnic/racial background groups had with perpetrators (see Table UST14). Members of the three ethnic/racial groups had the highest rates of UST with a stranger in both 2013 and 2015. DWC participants had higher rates of UST experiences with acquaintances over friends while DSOC participants were more likely to have experiences with friends over acquaintances. All three ethnic/racial groups experienced the least UST with romantic partners.

Table UST14. Rates of unwanted sexual touching by relationship of perpetrator to victim and ethnic/racial background of victim

	DSOC		International		DWC	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Romantic Partner	12.5%	9.5%	0.0%	0.0%	9.2%	10.5%
Friend	37.5%	33.3%	60.0%	20.0%	18.5%	22.8%
Acquaintance	12.5%	23.8%	0.0%	20.0%	26.2%	29.8%
Stranger	37.5%	33.3%	40.0%	60.0%	46.2%	36.8%

Note. DSOC = Domestic students of color; DWC = Domestic white or Caucasian.

Sex of Perpetrator

The perceived sex match of the perpetrator of UST is presented in Table UST15. In 2013, participants most commonly experienced UST with perpetrators of a different sex at 83.3%, followed by perpetrators of the same sex at 10.8%; participants were least likely to experience UST with perpetrators of both the same and different sexes at 5.9%. Participants in 2015 replicated this pattern with 88.0% experiences with different-sex perpetrators, 10.9% with same-sex perpetrators, and 1.1% with perpetrators of both the same and different sexes. The rates of perpetrator sex match did not change significantly across survey year.

Table UST15. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual touching

	2013	**2015**
Same Sex Only	10.8%	10.9%
Different Sex Only	83.3%	88.0%
Both Same and Different Sex	5.9%	1.1%

For the purposes of analyzing how perpetrator sex interacts with other demographic variables and because there were very few (n = 7) individuals who reported experiences with perpetrators of same and different sexes, those individuals will be collapsed with participants who reported experiences with perpetrators of a different sex.

Rates of perpetrator-victim sex match are reported in Table UST16. In general, female victims of UST were perpetrated against by a person of a different sex, while male victims of UST were perpetrated against by nearly equal proportions of individuals who were the same sex and different sex. These pattern differences were statistically significant in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 97) = 30.77, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 84) = 35.62, p < .05). Further, the rates of same- to different-sex perpetrator by gender identity did not change significantly from 2013 to 2015.

Table UST16. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual touching by participant's gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Same Sex	3.6%	53.8%	1.3%	55.6%
Different (or both same and different) Sex	96.4%	46.2%	98.7%	44.4%

Different patterns of perpetrator sex emerged for individuals of different sexual orientations (see Table UST17). In both 2013 and 2015, heterosexual victims were much more likely to be victimized by someone of a different sex. For non-heterosexual victims, approximately two-thirds of the time their perpetrator was of a different sex, with between one-fifth and one-quarter occurring in same-sex pairs. In 2013, the difference in experience patterns between non-heterosexual and heterosexual victims' experiences was marginally significant (χ^2 (1, N = 92) = 3.74, p = .05), while in 2015, that difference was statistically significant (χ^2 (1, N = 87) = 7.05, p < .05). Further, the pattern of proportions was consistent across survey years.

Table UST17. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual touching by participant's sexual orientation

	2013		2015	
	Non-Heterosexual	**Heterosexual**	**Non-Heterosexual**	**Heterosexual**
Same Sex	21.7%	7.2%	24.0%	4.8%
Different Sex	78.3%	92.8%	76.0%	95.2%

There were no significant differences in perpetrator sex among ethnic/racial background groups in either 2013 or 2015 (see Table UST18). All three ethnic/racial groups experienced more UST with perpetrators of a different or both sexes than experienced with a perpetrator of the same sex. Additionally, there was no significant difference between 2013 and 2015 for any ethnic/racial group and the sex of the perpetrator.

Table UST18. Sex of perpetrator of unwanted sexual touching by participant's ethnic/racial background

	2013			2015		
	DSOC	**I**	**DWC**	**DSOC**	**I**	**DWC**
Same Sex	0.0%	20.0%	10.8%	9.5%	0.0%	10.5%
Different Sex	100.0%	80.0%	89.2%	90.5%	100.0%	89.5%

Note. DSOC = Domestic students of color; I = International; DWC = Domestic white or Caucasian.

Power Imbalance

In 2015, victims of UST were asked if they perceived a power imbalance between themselves and the perpetrator of the UST. In total, 38.1% reported perceiving such an imbalance. Further, female participants perceived an imbalance at a significantly greater rate (42.7%) than male participants (0.0%; χ^2 (2, N = 84) = 6.20, p < .05). There were no statistically significant differences in rates of perceived power imbalance between DSOC (23.8%), international participants (60.0%), and DWC participants (40.4%). Additionally, there were no statistically significant differences between non-heterosexual (23.8%) and heterosexual participants (40.3%) in perceived power imbalance.

Force or Threat

There were no significant differences between 2013 and 2015 for concurrent experiences of threat or force (see Table UST19). The proportion of those who experienced threat, force, and threat decreased slightly from 2013 to 2015, but none of these decreases were statistically significant.

Table UST19. Rates of threat or force before or during unwanted sexual touching by survey year

	2013	2015
Threat	2.9%	2.2%
Force	21.4%	18.5%
Threat or Force	24.3%	19.6%

Additionally, there were no significant differences between survey years for threat, force, or either threat or force by gender identity (see Table UST20), sexual orientation (see Table UST21), or ethnicity/race (see Table UST22). Additionally, though some differences are apparent for comparisons of female versus male participants, none of the differences were statistically significant. This is likely due to the relatively smaller number of male participants who experienced unwanted sexual touching.

Table UST20. Rates of threat or force before or during unwanted sexual touching by gender and survey year

	Threat		Force		Threat or Force	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Female	3.6%	2.7%	21.4%	23.3%	25.0%	24.7%
Male	0.0%	0.0%	14.3%	0.0%	14.3%	0.0%

Table UST21. Rates of threat or force before or during unwanted sexual touching by sexual orientation and survey year

	Threat		Force		Threat or Force	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Non-Heterosexual	4.3%	8.0%	30.4%	16.0%	35.0%	20.0%
Heterosexual	3.0%	0.0%	20.0%	2.1%	22.9%	21.0%

Table UST22. Rates of threat or force before or during unwanted sexual touching by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	Threat	Force	Threat or Force

	2013	2015	2013	2015	2013	2015
DSOC	0.0%	0.0%	11.8%	28.6%	11.8%	28.7%
I	0.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%
DWC	3.5%	4.6%	21.5%	17.5%	26.2%	19.3%

Note. DSO = Domestic students of color; I = International; DWC = Domestic white or Caucasian.

INTOXICATION

The following analyses were conducted to better understand the situational factors relating to UST. These analyses are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. Instead, the results are meant to help the community understand how this type of misconduct occurs on our campus and to identify possible places the community might intervene to reduce future instances of UST.

Mild to severe perpetrator and victim intoxication rates during UST experiences are presented in Table UST23. Perpetrators were perceived to be intoxicated (mild to severe) in 70.9% instances of UST in 2013. This rate was not statistically different from the rate observed in 2015 (70.7%). Victims also reported that they were mildly to severely intoxicated in 70.9% of UST incidents in 2013 and 60.9% of incidents in 2015. None of these differences in rates across survey years were statistically significant. The most common experience across victim and perpetrator intoxication was when both the victim and perpetrator were at least mildly intoxicated, accounting for 60.2% of UST instances in 2013 and 51.1% of instances in 2015.

Table UST23. Rates of unwanted sexual touching when both the victim and perpetrator were intoxicated

	2013		2015	
	No Victim Intoxication	**Victim Intoxication**	**No Victim Intoxication**	**Victim Intoxication**
No Perpetrator Intoxication	18.4%	10.7%	19.6%	9.8%
Perpetrator Intoxication	10.7%	60.2%	19.6%	51.1%

Moderate to severe perpetrator and victim intoxication rates during UST experiences are presented in Table UST24. Perpetrators were perceived to be intoxicated (moderate to severe) in 53.4% instances of UST in 2013. This rate was not statistically different from the rate observed in 2015 (50.0%). On the other hand, victims reported they were moderately to severely intoxicated in 35.9% of UST incidents in 2013 and 32.6% of incidents in 2015. None of the differences in rates across survey years were statistically significant. However, perpetrators were significantly more likely to be moderately to severely intoxicated than victims.

Table UST24. Rates of unwanted sexual touching when both the victim and perpetrator were moderately to severely intoxicated

	2013		2015	
	No Victim Intoxication	**Victim Intoxication**	**No Victim Intoxication**	**Victim Intoxication**
No Perpetrator Intoxication	38.8%	7.8%	38.0%	12.0%
Perpetrator Intoxication	25.2%	28.2%	29.3%	20.7%

Of the participants who experienced UST, there was a significant difference in the proportion of UST events occurring at parties depending upon whether or not the perpetrator was mildly to severely intoxicated, χ^2 (1, N = 205) = 13.66, $p <$ .05. Of the participants indicating the perpetrator was not mildly to severely intoxicated, 53.1% experienced UST at a party. Of the participants indicating the perpetrator was mildly to severely intoxicated, 77.6% experienced UST at a party.

Of the participants who experienced UST, there was a significant difference in the proportion of UST events occurring at parties depending upon whether or not they were moderately to severely intoxicated, χ^2 (1, N = 205) = 5.10, $p <$ .05. Of the participants indicating they were not moderately to severely intoxicated, 60.6% experienced UST at a party. Of the participants indicating they were moderately to severely intoxicated, 76.5% experienced UST at a party.

Of the participants who experienced UST, there was a significant difference the perceived intoxication level of the perpetrator, dependent upon the relationship of the perpetrator to the victim, χ^2 (3, N = 193) = 9.938, $p <$ .05 (see Table UST25). Among instances where the UST occurred with a romantic partner, the majority of instances, the perpetrator was not perceived as mildly to severely intoxicated. When the perpetrator was a friend or acquaintance, the perpetrator was perceived to be intoxicated in the majority of instances. When the perpetrator was a stranger, the perpetrator was equally likely to be perceived as not intoxicated or intoxicated.

Table UST25. Rates of unwanted sexual touching when the perpetrator was mildly to severely intoxicated by relationship of the perpetrator to the victim

	Romantic Partner	**Friend**	**Acquaintance**	**Stranger**
Not Intoxicated	77.3%	40.8%	39.6%	48.6%
Intoxicated	22.7%	59.2%	60.4%	51.4%

Similarly, there was a significant difference victim's reported level of intoxication depending upon the relationship of the victim to the perpetrator, χ^2 (3, N = 193) = 11.556, $p <$ .05 (see Table UST26). When the perpetrator was a romantic partner, the victim was not intoxicated in the vast majority of instances. However, the rate of intoxication on the part of the victim increased when the perpetrator was a friend, acquaintance, or stranger.

Table UST26. Rates of unwanted sexual touching when the victim was mildly to severely intoxicated by relationship of the perpetrator to the victim

	Romantic Partner	Friend	Acquaintance	Stranger
Not Intoxicated	95.5%	65.3%	54.2%	63.5%
Intoxicated	4.5%	34.7%	45.8%	36.5%

Of the participants who experienced UST, there was a significant difference in perceived force before or during the experience depending upon whether the perpetrator was mildly to severely intoxicated, χ^2 (1, N = 195) = 4.14, $p < .05$. Of the participants indicating the perpetrator was not mildly to severely intoxicated, 16.0% perceived force. Alternatively, of the participants indicating the perpetrator was mildly to severely intoxicated, 24.6% perceived force by the perpetrator. No significant difference emerged for experiences of force based upon victim intoxication. When the victim was not intoxicated, 19% of the time the victim experienced force, compared to 22.8% of the time when the victim was intoxicated.

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES

Toward the end of the UST section of the survey, participants were asked two additional open-ended questions: 1) "Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?" and 2) "Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?" Over the course of these two responses, the three common trends of topics discussed by participants included a need to increase education for first-year students, the importance of handling verbal pressures before and after UST incidents, and the absence of consent for sexual touching as an overarching campus culture problem that needs addressing.

A number of responses indicated that first-year students as a group should be the target of sexual misconduct education. The consensus was that first-year students are at a higher risk to unwanted sexual experiences because they are entering into a new environment and have different levels of sexual misconduct knowledge coming into college. It was suggested that there should be a greater push to talk about sexual misconduct and what that means and looks like (all types) during New Student Orientation (NSO). Along the same lines of introducing first-year students to Grinnell College, some contended that NSO inaccurately conveyed that sex in college is prevalent and sought out campuswide, and that choosing not to have sex in college is not discussed as an option, despite many students choosing that option. Those participants contend that this approach gives the impression that they are supposed to have sex. One participant wrote, "As a first year dating a first year, I was expected to change my mind about sex. I was constantly expected to decide that I wanted to have sex during college." It is important to not only educate first-year students about the sex culture at Grinnell, but also that having sex is not as prevalent as it may appear.

Another common suggestion from participants was for the College to educate students on how to handle the verbal pressures from another person before and after UST incidents. Participants called for a venue to educate students at the College on the language students could use to get out of a possible unwanted sexual touching incident. One participant additionally wanted ways to

"call out friends" when students witness their friends instigating an act of UST on another person.

Multiple participants specifically mentioned verbal coercion (e.g., "begging") as a problem relevant to UST. One participant wrote, "I was constantly pressured, but never forcefully, angrily, or abusively. Still, I believe that it came as a result of poor expectations on the partner's end." In addition to threat and force experienced during an UST experience, participants also indicated that verbal coercion was an element of UST as well.

Finally, participants noted the absence of seeking consent during the engagement of sexual touching, whether wanted or unwanted. Participants acknowledge that alcohol and parties are influential in creating an environment that facilitates UST, but the larger problem is the absence of consent-seeking as a norm. One participant wrote, "A lot of the discussion about sexual violence at Grinnell has centered around bystander intervention and drinking culture. It's true that my experience of unwanted sexual touching did happen in front of bystanders and did happen while we were both drunk, but I think a larger, unnamed problem is the culture." Multiple responses stressed the importance of verbal communication and that consent is a conversation between the parties involved. One participant wrote, "Consent must be enthusiastic — Yes means yes! — and accompany any physical or sexual contact, no matter how small." The important message that participants would like to be conveyed to the student population is that consent is not something that is asked only in the privacy of a bedroom; consent needs to be obtained during any sexual act, regardless of location.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In 2013, 22.8% of participants reported experiencing UST. That rate was significantly higher than the rate reported by participants in 2015 (15.5%). Despite this statistically significant decrease, nearly one-quarter (24.3%) of participants reported experiencing such misconduct since entering college, a rate similar to a DOJ-OJP-funded study of college women (Fisher et al., 2000). However, Grinnell College rate was significantly higher than the rates reported in the 2014 ACHA-funded study of college undergraduates and the 2015 AAU survey of over 150,000 students.

Just over 40% of participants who reported UST also reported that they had such experiences perpetrated by more than one person. In addition, a similar number reported experiencing unwanted sexual touching on more than one occasion. In 2015, the most common perpetrators of such incidents were deemed strangers (34.8%), followed by friends (28.3%) and acquaintances (26.1%). Concurrent threat or force was experienced in one in five cases in 2015. Cisgender female students were more likely to be perpetrated against by a person of a different sex while cisgender male students were equally as likely to be perpetrated against by a person of the same or different sex.

The most common location for UST was in a public location on campus. Parties, more generally, were the primary location of UST, whether they are on or off campus (67.9%). Specifically, students were at most risk to experiencing unwanted touching at a Harris Center or Gardner Lounge party (40.2%). The chances of experiencing UST were further increased when alcohol or

other drugs were involved. The perpetrator was judged to be intoxicated in 60.9% of such incidents, and in just over half of incidents both the perpetrator and victim were intoxicated.

Furthermore, there were specific groups at Grinnell College that were more at risk to experiencing unwanted sexual touching. Although not the case in 2013, first-year students were at more risk of experiencing UST than those from any other academic year, and in general, younger students were more at risk than older students in 2015. Cisgender female students were at the highest risk for experiencing such misconduct. Additionally, heterosexual cisgender females and non-heterosexual males were more at risk to experience unwanted sexual touching than any other sexually oriented groups on campus. Lastly, domestic students of color and international students were more at risk of experiencing unwanted sexual touching than domestic Caucasian students.

ATTEMPTED OR COMPLETED SEXUAL ASSAULT

DEFINITION

For the purposes of this survey, sexual assault was defined as "attempted or completed vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse without consent. Consent for one type of sexual act does not mean consent has been given for other acts. Physical force does not have to occur for a sexual act to be considered sexual assault. Intercourse includes vaginal penetration by a penis, object, tongue or finger; anal penetration by a penis, object, tongue, or finger, and oral copulation (mouth to genital contact or genital to mouth contact)."

BASE RATES

In the 2015 survey, 0.8% of participants reported that they had experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault during the 2014–15 academic year. An additional 3.2% reported that "something like this" had occurred. After reviewing additional information from these cases, we determined that their experiences met the definition stated above. Combined, a total of 4.0% (95% CI: 2.7% to 5.4%) of participants reported having experienced attempted or completed sexual assault during the 2014–15 academic year. Participants were also asked about sexual assault that occurred in previous academic years, and 7.9% (95% CI: 6.1% to 9.7%) of participants in the survey year 2015 reported experiencing an attempted or completed sexual assault at any time while in college.

For comparison, 1.4% of participants from the 2013 administration of the survey stated they had experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault during the 2012–13 academic year. An additional 3.3% of participants said that "something like this" had happened to them, with a combined rate of 4.7% (95% CI: 3.2% to 6.3%). Though the rate observed in 2014–15 is lower, the difference was not statistically significant. The question of sexual assault prevalence during the entire time in college was not asked in the 2013 administration of the survey, so no comparison could be made between the two survey administrations.

Of those in 2015 who had reported that they had experienced sexual assault during their time in college (7.9% of total participants), 88.9% experienced at least one completed sexual assault and 11.1% experienced attempted sexual assault only. Examining only assaults that occurred in the past year, 13.6% experienced attempted sexual assault and 86.4% experienced completed assault. Of the people reporting that they had experienced sexual assault in 2013, 94.7% experienced completed sexual assault and 5.3% experienced attempted sexual assault only during the academic year. The difference between years was nonsignificant.

Of those who experienced sexual assault in the 2015 survey at any time during their college enrollment, 75.6% experienced sexual assault only once, 13.3% experienced two or more assaults, and 11.1% experienced attempted sexual assault only. Of assaults that occurred during the academic year of 2014–15, 68.2% experienced sexual assault only once, 18.2% experienced two or more assaults, and 13.6% experienced attempted sexual assault only. In 2013, again, the response options for the question only allowed for an examination of sexual assault during the academic year of 2012–13. Of those people who experienced sexual assault in that time, 78.9%

experienced sexual assault once, 15.8% experienced two or more sexual assaults, and 5.3% experienced attempted sexual assault only. See Table SA1. The differences rates of attempted and completed assaults between survey years were nonsignificant.

Table SA1. Breakdown of participants' experiences with attempted and completed sexual assault

	2013	2015 (any time)	2015 (current year)
Attempted Assault	5.3%	11.1%	13.6%
Completed Single Assault	78.9%	75.6%	68.2%
Multiple Times with the Same Person	10.5%	8.9%	13.6%
Multiple Times with Different Person on at Least Two Occasions	5.3%	4.4%	4.5%

To put these rates in context, the 2015 rate for sexual assault at any time during college (7.9%) is significantly lower (z = -11.71, p < .05) than that of Krebs and colleagues (2007), who found that 19% of their sample had experienced sexual assault since entering college. Krebs and colleagues' survey was administered to a random sample of 5,446 undergraduate women at two large universities. Using a more direct comparison, the rate of sexual assault at any time while in college for cisgender females (10.6%) at Grinnell College also is significantly lower than the rate observed by Krebs and colleagues (z = -5.72, p < .05). Similarly, a nationally representative survey of 1,053 undergraduate women and men conducted by *The Washington Post* and the Kaiser Family foundation in 2015 found that 20% of women and 5% of men experienced sexual assault at some time during college. The rates reported by the Post-Kaiser study were significantly higher than those reported by Grinnell College cisgender female (z = 6.76, p < .05) and cisgender male (2.2%; z = 2.96, p < .05) participants.

Of note, however, is that both the Krebs and colleagues (2007) and Post-Kaiser studies used a different methodology to arrive at their rates. In both studies, the researchers asked several questions related to potentially assaultive experiences — "had sexual contact with you either by making threats of nonphysical punishment, such as being fired from a job or damaging your reputation, or by making promises of rewards, such as raising your grade or inviting you to a party?" Comparatively, the current Grinnell study used only one question (See Appendix). It is possible that the method of using several different types of questions, such as that employed by Krebs and colleagues and Post-Kaiser, was more inclusive of the range of possible sexual assault situations that might occur on college campuses.

The rate of sexual assault at Grinnell College remained consistent with other national averages. In the National College Health Assessment (NCHA) reference sample (American College Health Association, 2014) 3.2% of their sample of 66,646 undergraduate college students reported an attempted sexual penetration without consent during the previous 12 months. A total of 2.0% reported a completed sexual penetration without consent. Combined, the rate of attempted or completed sexual penetration without consent was 5.2%, which was not significantly different from the rate observed in either the 2013 or 2015 administrations of Grinnell College's sexual climate survey. Of note, the definitions used on the NCHA to arrive at their rates ("sexually penetrated (vaginal, anal, oral) without your consent") were very similar to how the same

question was asked on the present survey ("attempted or completed vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse without consent"), potentially explaining the similarity in rates.

However, the rate of attempted or completed sexual assault was significantly higher than the rates observed in other studies. For example, the Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs (DOJ-OJP) conducted of a survey of 4,446 college women (Fisher et al., 2000), looking at sexual assault experiences during the previous 12 months. They found that 2.8% of participants reported an attempted or completed sexual assault. This rate is not statistically lower than the overall observed at Grinnell College; however, the DOJ-OJP rate is significantly lower than the rates observed for Grinnell College female-identifying participants (6.0% in 2015, 5.6% in 2013).

The rates of attempted or completed sexual assault also were similar to those reported from a survey of more than 150,000 students at 27 universities in the United States. That survey, commissioned by the Association of American Universities (AAU, Cantor et al., 2015), found that 4.9% of undergraduate females, 6.5% of undergraduate transgender or other gender participants, and 1.2% of undergraduate males experienced attempted or completed assault in the previous year. These rates were not significantly different from the rates reported at Grinnell College (5.7%, 6.5%, and 1.3%, respectively). In addition, the rates reported by the AAU for experiences of attempted or completed sexual assault since entering college also were not significantly different from those observed at Grinnell College for female (10.8% vs. 10.6%), transgender or other gender (12.4% vs. 19.4%), and male (2.2% vs. 2.2%) participants.

Alternatively, the Grinnell College rate was significantly higher than the rate observed from 1995 through 2013 in the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) using a representative sample of U.S. women ages 18 to 24. The rate of rape and sexual assault was reported to be 4.3 out of 1000 (0.43%) for college students (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). That rate was not statistically different from the rate of similarly aged non-college-student participants. Both rates were significantly lower than the rates observed at Grinnell College. The rate observed in the NCVS survey, however, was based on experiences of "rape," which is a term many victims of sexual assault might not identify with their own experience. The actual rate of sexual assault nationally might be higher in the NCVS, had a more inclusive definition been used.

Finally, the rate of attempted or completed sexual assault was significantly higher than the rate observed in the 2011 Centers for Disease Control's National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NIPSVS). In that study, 14,155 U.S. citizens who were 18 and older were surveyed about a variety of experiences with sexual violence (Black et al., 2010). The survey reported a 12-month prevalence rate for rape of 1.1% and a corresponding lifetime rate of 18.3% for women. They did not report a corresponding 12-month rate of rape for men; however, they reported the lifetime prevalence of rape for men to be 1.4%. The 12-month prevalence rate observed in the NIPSVS for women was significantly less than that observed at Grinnell College ($z = 4.60$, $p < .05$), but the NIPSVS lifetime rate was significantly higher ($z = -5.21$, $p < .05$).

These differences are likely due, in part, to the age range of those surveyed in the NIPSVS study. In that study, only 13.1% of survey participants were 18–24, or the approximate age of the typical college student, while the remainder of participants were older (e.g., 17.0% were 65 and

older). With nearly 80% of first-time rapes occurring before victims' 25th birthday (Black et al., 2010), one might assume that the 12-month rate for the subgroup of NIPSVS participants who were in the typical college age range to be higher than the 1.1% rate reported above and closer to the rate observed at Grinnell College. Similarly, with 20% of victims first raped after age 25, one might also assume that the lifetime prevalence of rape among Grinnell College students will increase as they get older and closer to the rate observed in the NIPSVS.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Gender

The rates of attempted or completed sexual assault by gender are found in Table SA2. No significant changes in rates of sexual assault for gender identity groups occurred between 2013 and 2015. However, significant differences in rates among gender categories emerged in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 709) = 6.17, $p < .05$) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 824) = 11.46, $p < .05$). In both years, transgender participants reported the highest rates of sexual assault, with the difference most pronounced in 2013, while cisgender male participants experienced the lowest rates. Because of the relatively fewer numbers of transgender/other gender participants who completed the survey (13 in 2013 and 31 in 2015), subsequent analyses will include those participants with the gender they identified.

Table SA2. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Cisgender Female	5.6%	5.7%
Transgender/Other	15.4%	6.5%
Cisgender Male	1.6%	1.3%

Using the collapsed gender categories (see Table SA3), the rate of sexual assault was significantly higher for those identifying as female than the rates observed for participants identifying as male in both 2012-2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 709) = 6.19, $p < .05$) and 2014-2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 824) = 0.08, $p < .05$). However, the rate of sexual assault did not change for females or males across the two survey administrations.

Table SA3

Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Female	5.6%	6.0%
Male	1.6%	1.2%

Academic Year

The rates of attempted or completed sexual assault by class year are reported in Table SA4. No significant differences were observed for class year in 2013 and 2015. Similarly, there were no

changes in rates across survey year for any class year. The 2015 administration of the survey allowed for an examination of attempted or completed sexual assault at any time during the participants' enrollment in college. A total of 4.8% of first-year participants, 9.1% of second-year participants, 9.1% of third-year participants and 7.5% of fourth- or fifth-year participants reported experiencing attempted or completed sexual assault. The increase of sexual assault experience during the first two years followed by the evening-out and drop during the later two years indicates that younger students are at a higher risk. This trend, however, was not significant.

Table SA4. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by academic year and survey

	2013	2015
First Year	4.8%	4.8%
Second Year	3.8%	4.1%
Third Year	5.2%	4.6%
Fourth/Fifth Year	3.5%	3.9%

Academic Year by Gender Identity

The rates of sexual assault from the 2015 survey remained relatively consistent across gender identity and class year (see Table SA5). Female participants had significantly higher rates of sexual assault during the 2014–15 academic year than male participants for all four years, except during the second year, when the rates were not significantly different. Also, despite some apparent variability, no significant difference in rates was observed across academic years within gender identity categories.

Table SA5. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by academic year and gender

	Female		Male	
	1-yr.	**Cumulative**	**1-yr.**	**Cumulative**
First Year	6.7%	6.7%	1.4%	1.4%
Second Year	5.1%	9.1%	2.1%	2.1%
Third Year	7.3%	10.0%	1.4%	2.1%
Fourth/Fifth Year	4.1%	7.7%	0.0%	1.6%

A similar pattern emerges when examining attempted or completed sexual assault rates over the course of students' whole time in college (see Table SA5). Participants identifying as female reported significantly more experiences of sexual assault than did those identifying as male across all four academic years. However, no significant difference in rates emerged across academic years for either females or males.

Race/Ethnicity

The rates of attempted or completed sexual assault by ethnic/racial identity and survey administration are presented in Table SA6. As observed there, the rates of sexual assault were consistent all ethnic/racial identities in 2015, and none of the observed differences were statistically significant. The rates varied more in 2013. Most notably, international students reported no attempted or completed sexual assaults; however, because of the small number of

international students responding in 2013, that rate was not significantly different from the rates observed for domestic students of color (DSOC) or domestic white/Caucasian (DWC) participants. Similarly, the rates for each ethnic/racial identity did not differ significantly across survey administration.

Table SA6. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	2015
Domestic Students of Color	4.0%	4.2%
International	0.0%	4.5%
Domestic White/Caucasian	4.9%	4.2%

Race/Ethnicity by Gender Identity

Though rates varied slightly for attempted or completed sexual assault across ethnic/racial categories for female participants, no significant difference emerged (see Table SA7). Similarly, no significant differences in rates emerged for ethnic background category within male participants. For DWC participants a significant difference emerged between female and male participants. However, no significant difference emerged for gender identity within DSOC and international students.

Table SA7. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by ethnic/racial background and gender

	Female	Male
Domestic Students of Color	5.2%	2.3%
International	3.6%	0.0%
Domestic White/Caucasian	6.3%	1.2%

Attempted and completed sexual assault rates for participants by ethnic background and gender identity are presented in Table SA8. In both 2013 and 2015, the rate differences between female- and male-identifying students was significant for DWC participants but not for DSOC or international students. Possibly the nonsignificant rate difference for international students in 2015 is due to the relatively small number of international students who completed the survey. Among female-identifying participants, there were no significant differences in rates of sexual assault across the three ethnic background categories in both 2013 and 2015. A similar pattern of nonsignificant differences emerged for male-identifying participants. Finally, no significant differences emerged for any other category across survey year.

Table SA8. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by ethnic/racial background and gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Domestic Students of Color	4.5%	2.9%	5.7%	1.9%
International	0.0%	0.0%	6.9%	0.0%
Domestic White/Caucasians	6.2%	1.4%	6.4%	1.2%

Sexual Orientation

The rates of attempted and completed sexual assault by sexual orientation are presented in Table SA9. In 2013, heterosexual participants experienced sexual assault at a rate of 3.7%, while non-heterosexual participants experienced sexual assault at a rate of 7.5%. This difference was significant (χ^2 (1, N = 707) = 4.13, $p < .05$). In 2015, heterosexual participants experienced sexual assault at a rate of 3.6%, while the rate for non-heterosexual participants was 5.5% and that difference was not significantly different. Furthermore, the difference in rates between 2013 and 2015 was not significant for both heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants.

Table SA9. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by sexual orientation and survey year

	2013	**2015**
Heterosexual	3.7%	3.6%
Non-Heterosexual	7.5%	5.5%

Sexual Orientation by Gender

There was an interaction between sexual orientation and gender identity for rates of attempted or completed sexual assault (see Table SA10). In 2013 and 2015, there was no significant effect for gender identity within non-heterosexual participants. However, significant difference emerged between heterosexual female and heterosexual male participants, with female participants experiencing a greater rate of attempted or completed sexual assault across both survey administrations. Similarly, within female participants there was no significant effect for sexual orientation for either survey administration. Non-heterosexual males had higher rates than heterosexual males in both survey administrations; however, the rate difference was only significant in 2015. Finally, no significant changes in rates occurred for any group across survey years.

Table SA10. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by sexual orientation and gender

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Heterosexual	5.2%	1.0%	6.2%	0.4%
Non-Heterosexual	7.6%	4.7%	6.1%	5.6%

PERPETRATOR CHARACTERISTICS AND CO-OCCURRING FACTORS TO SEXUAL ASSAULT

Community Membership

Of survey participants who experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault, 83.3% in 2013 and 81.8% in 2015 were assaulted by a member of the Grinnell College community. Of the remaining, 11.1% in 2013 and 18.2% in 2015 reported that they were assaulted by someone who was not a member of the Grinnell College community. In 2013, 5.6% were unsure about the status of the assault perpetrator. These differences in college membership rates were not significant across survey administration.

Power Imbalance

A question about perceived power imbalance was asked in the 2015 survey only. Of those reporting an attempted or completed sexual assault who also responded to this question, 61.9% indicated a perceived power imbalance, whereby the perpetrator of the assault held some position of power over the victim. Female participants perceived this imbalance in 66.7% of cases, while 33.3% of male-identifying participants perceived an imbalance. Regarding sexual orientation, 72.7% of heterosexual and 50.0% of non-heterosexual participants perceived an imbalance, and 50.0% of DSOC, 60% of DWC participants, and 100% of international students perceived a power imbalance. It should be noted that none of these difference in rates were significant, in part because there were only 21 participants who answered this question, in addition to providing demographic information.

Relationship of Perpetrator to the Victim

As presented in SA11, the perpetrator in most assault cases was reported to have been a friend. Trends beyond this vary over the course of the two survey years. The differences, however, are not significant. No significant differences in the relationship of the perpetrator to the victim emerged across different categories of gender identity, sexual orientation, or ethnic/racial background emerged.

Table SA11. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by relationship between perpetrator and victim

	2013	2015
Romantic Partner	27.8%	22.7%
Friend	44.4%	40.9%
Acquaintance	0.0%	27.3%
Stranger	27.8%	9.1%

Perpetrator Sex

In 85.0% of reported cases of attempted or completed sexual assault, the perpetrator was someone of a different sex than the victim. The rates of sexual assault by victim and perpetrator are displayed in Table SA12. In both survey years, female victims were significantly more likely to be assaulted by a person of a different sex than male victims (χ^2 (1, N = 56) = 21.33, p < .05).

Male victims were proportionally more likely to be assaulted by someone of the same sex in both survey years. In 2013, 100.0% of heterosexual participants were assaulted by someone of a different sex, compared to 90.9% of heterosexual participants in 2015. Among non-heterosexual participants, 60.0% were assaulted by a member of a different sex in 2013 versus 70.0% in 2015. The difference in rates between heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants was only significant in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 17) = 5.44, p < .05). No other demographic variables were significant.

Table SA12. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assault victimization by gender of the victim and perceived sex of the perpetrator

	2013		2015	
	Same sex	**Different sex**	**Same sex**	**Different sex**
Female	0.0%	100.0%	11.8%	88.2%
Male	100.0%	0.0%	66.7%	33.3%

Intoxication

The following analyses were conducted to better understand the situational factors relating to sexual assault. These analyses are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. Instead, the results are meant to help the community understand how this type of misconduct occurs on our campus and to identify possible places the community might intervene to reduce future instances of sexual assault.

Intoxication frequently co-occurs with sexual assault. In 2015, 69.6% of perpetrators were perceived to be mildly, moderately or severely intoxicated. In 2013, 61.1% of perpetrators were perceived to be intoxicated. This difference was not significant, nor was the difference when examining only moderate and severe intoxication (56.5% in 2015, 50.0% in 2013).

Rates of reported victim intoxication (including mild, moderate or severe) were 78.3% in 2015 and 66.7% in 2013. This difference was not significant, nor was the difference when only examining moderate or severe intoxication (60.9% in 2015, 61.1% in 2013). In 2015, 47.8% of victims reported they were severely intoxicated or incapacitated, compared to 38.9% of victims in 2013. This difference was not significant.

A total of 82.6% of sexual assault cases in 2015 involved intoxication by either the victim or the perpetrator. In 2013 this rate was 77.8%. The difference in rates across survey years was not statistically significant. In 2015, 69.6% of cases involved moderate or severe intoxication, compared to 77.8% in 2013, a difference that also was not statistically significant. Both the victim and perpetrator were intoxicated in 50.0% of reported assaults in 2013, compared to 65.2% in 2015. Moderate or severe intoxication by both the victim and perpetrator was observed in 33.3% of cases in 2013 and 47.8% in 2015. These rates were not significantly different.

No significant relation emerged between the level of intoxication of the victim and the use of force or threat. Of those who experienced force or threat, 31.8% of victims reported being severely intoxicated or incapacitated, while 55.6% of those who did not experience force or

threat reported severe intoxication or incapacitation. No significant patterns emerged between the relation of intoxication and location.

Threat and Force

Participants that reported having experienced sexual assault also reported having experienced threats before or during the assault at a rate of 4.5% and 22.2% in 2015 and 2013, respectively. Despite the apparently large difference in rates, this difference is not statistically significant, possibly owing to the smaller number of participants who experienced sexual assault in each year for whom force data was available (18 participants in 2013 and 22 participants in 2015).

Participants who experienced sexual assault also reported having experienced physical force before or during the assault at rates of 40.9% in 2015 and 61.1% in 2013. This difference also was also not statistically significant. A significant difference between survey administrations did emerge when experiences of threat and force were combined. In 2015, 40.9% of those who experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault also experienced actual force or the threat of physical force before or during the assault, while 72.2% of participants in 2013 experienced either physical force or threats (χ^2 (1, N = 40) = 3.922, p < .05). No additional analyses of force and threat experience were initiated for subgroups of participants (e.g., by gender identity) due to the small number of participants for whom force and threat data was available.

Location

The most common location for a sexual assault to occur in both 2013 and 2015 was in a dorm on campus. In 2013, 80% of assaults occurred in a dorm, compared to 70% in 2015. Of those assaults occurring in a dorm, the vast majority occurred within a dorm room. The locations of other assaults are presented in Table SA13. Across the two survey administrations the changes in proportions of sexual assaults in different locations was not significant. More fine-grained analysis of specific non-dorm locations was not initiated because of the relatively few individuals providing location data for those locations.

Table SA13. Rates of attempted or completed sexual assaults by location

	2013	2015
Dorm Room	60.0%	60.0%
Other Dorm Location	20.0%	10.0%
Party	13.3%	10.0%
Off-Campus House	0.0%	15.0%
Not in Grinnell	6.7%	5.0%

Party or Event Attendance Preceding Sexual Assault

Table SA14 presents party or event attendance prior to reported sexual assaults. As observed there, victims reported a slight increase in party attendance prior to their sexual assault in 2015. This increase mirrored the slight increase in victim intoxication observed from 2013 to 2015. This relation between alcohol and party/event attendance is significant (χ^2 (3, N = 64) =

10.52, $p < .05$). Of sober victims, 47.1% attended a party/event prior to their assault. Of intoxicated victims, 14.9% did not attend a party or event. This variable is also significant when looking at only moderately/severely intoxicated victims, (χ^2 (3, N = 64) = 11.79, $p < .05$). Of victims considered sober according to this calculation, 46.2% did not attend a party/event prior to their assault. Of intoxicated victims, 85.1% attended a party or event prior to their assault. Of severely intoxicated/incapacitated victims, 95.8% attended a party or event prior to the assault. Perpetrator intoxication was not significantly related to party or event attendance.

Table SA14. Rates of victims attending parties or events with perpetrator

	2013	2015
Attended party, perpetrator was not present	11.8%	10.6%
Attended party, perpetrator was present	41.2%	44.7%
Attended party with perpetrator	17.6%	21.3%
Did not attend party	29.4%	23.4%

Possible Missed Bystander Opportunities

Of the people who reported having experienced sexual assault, 50.0% reported there was an opportunity for bystander intervention, and an additional 14.6% stated they were unsure. The remaining 35.4% reported that there was no opportunity for a bystander to intervene. Because the numbers of individuals who responded both to this question and the location variables were relatively small, no further analyses were conducted to determine specific locations offered more opportunities for bystander intervention.

QUALITATIVE RESPONSES

Toward the end of the sexual assault section of the survey, participants were asked two additional open-ended questions: 1) “Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?” and 2) “Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?” Participants were also asked about their experience with reporting their experience to a college official. Due to the very low number of responses, very little additional information was provided about their sexual assault experience. However, some used these sections as an opportunity to describe their experiences with reporting their sexual assault to others and to provide suggestions for improvement.

First, of the 15 who described reporting their experience to an college official, 10 used words like “very helpful,” “helpful,” or “to a large extent helpful” to describe their experience. The remaining 5 indicated dissatisfaction with their reporting experience. For those dissatisfied, most felt confused, misled, or traumatized by either the reporting process or by the conduct process that followed. One stated, “The system for dealing with misconduct completely failed me.” Examples of why this was the experience ranged from perceptions of inadequate investigation and support from Campus Safety and Security personnel (e.g., “the witnesses I provided were threatened by security because of their involvement with the substance used that night, they weren’t allowed to make statements, they weren’t given the opportunity to see the testimony that was attributed to them), to inadequate mental health support, to problems with the timing of different elements of the conduct process (e.g., “because (my) stage in their healing process was not contiguous with the administration's goal of keeping the process running ‘smoothly’”).

A variety of suggestions were provided. About one-third called for better training of people in the process of reporting, ranging from student advisers and residence life coordinators to the Title IX coordinator. In addition to perceiving a need for more thorough training, some mentioned that the training needed to include more interpersonal training in responding to potentially traumatized individuals (e.g., "It would be nice if this position is filled by [an] individual that can counsel/listen to the victim and have an understanding for the law, and not just push for the victim to officially report the incident").

About one-fifth of those who responded to these questions wanted to see harsher or revised punishments for their perpetrators. Three people specifically mentioned no-contact orders, indicating some concern about their effectiveness and confusion over how they worked (e.g., "I want no-contact orders to be revised and explained more thoroughly so that they are more useful when students seek them out."). One additional participant wanted greater separation between victims and perpetrators during hearings.

Academic accommodations were also mentioned as lacking. One participant had this to say, "I want the process of procuring academic accommodations (including medical or emergency leave and dropping classes) due to trauma to be less burdensome. I asked to go on medical leave due to trauma reasons late in a semester. Because I was asking late, I had to disclose the details of my traumatic experience to four different administrators, SHACS therapists, and staff members. I was told explicitly that I needed documentation and interviews in order to 'prove' that I wasn't simply requesting time off to save my transcript. Like all students who take medical leave, I was only given 48 hours to pack up my belongings and leave. Additionally, I had to spend a considerable amount of time and energy figuring out how to get the college to 'let' me return the next semester, since the school has a number of bizarre and subjective policies about the ways in which students must prove that we are ready to come back to Grinnell. This was a re-traumatizing experience. Additionally, the level of gatekeeping I was subjected to does not benefit the college (or reduce liability) in any real way. I don't believe that the college needed two mental health professionals to write academic affairs a letter explaining that it was traumatic for me to be raped."

Suggestions for prevention were not common. The only suggestion provided was to teach mandatory consent refresher courses or seminars every year. Another participant replied that there was a disconnection between theoretical definitions of consent and the actual actions taken by sexual partners on campus. Potentially, that disconnection is an avenue for improvement for future educational efforts. Finally, one participant expressed skepticism that active bystander training would have any appreciable effect to reduce sexual assault incidents on campus.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, the College's steps to prevent sexual assault have not significantly affected the rates of sexual assault, as no significant reductions in the rates of attempted and completed sexual assault were observed from 2013 to 2015. In 2013, 4.7% of participants reported experiencing an attempted or completed assault, while 4.0% of participants reported such an experience in 2015. Further, in 2015 7.9% of participants reported having experienced an attempted or completed

sexual assault since entering college, and of those nearly 90% reported that they had experienced at least one completed assault and nearly 14% experienced more than one sexual assault.

The rate of attempted or completed sexual assault at any time in college was significantly lower than that observed in the Campus Sexual Assault study (Krebs et al., 2007) and the poll conducted by *The Washington Post* and the Kaiser Foundation (2015). At the same time, the Grinnell College rates were similar to other national benchmark studies and higher than others. For example, the 12-month Grinnell College rates were consistent with those identified from the 2014 ACHA study of undergraduate students and the 2015 survey of 150,000 students by the AAU, while Grinnell's rates were higher than the rates observed in the DOJ-OJP funded study by Fisher and colleagues (2000), the National Crime Victimization Survey by Sinozich and Langton (2014), and the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Black et al., 2011). Definitional differences across surveys might partly explain the observed differences.

Some participant groups appeared to be at greater risk for attempted and completed sexual assault than others. For example, cisgender female and transgender or other gender participants reported experiencing sexual assault at rates four to five times higher than cisgender males. However, the rate of sexual assault for non-heterosexual males was consistent with the rate of sexual assault for both heterosexual and non-heterosexual female participants.

Some trends emerged regarding perpetrators of sexual assault. In over 80% of cases, the perpetrator was a member of the Grinnell College community, and in approximately 60% of cases, the victim perceived a power differential, whereby the perpetrator held some position of power over the victim. Strangers were the perpetrator of sexual assault in less than 10% of cases in 2015, while friends or acquaintances accounted for just over two-thirds of assaults. For female victims, nearly 90% of their perpetrators were judged to be of a different sex, while that was the case for only a third of male victims. Moderate to severe intoxication on the part of the victim and perpetrator occurred in nearly 70% of cases. The perpetrator was judged to be moderately or severely intoxicated in 56.5% of assaults, and the victim reported severe intoxication or incapacitation in nearly 40% of assaults. In 2015, just over 40% of victims reported experiencing physical force prior to or during the assault.

The most common location for an assault to occur was in a dorm room (60%). The victim reported attending a party prior to the assault in approximately three-quarters of reports, and astonishingly, about half reported that there was a missed opportunity for a bystander intervention that could have prevented the assault.

EXPERIENCES OF ANY TYPE OF MISCONDUCT

BASE RATES

Across the two survey administrations, 37.3% (95% CI: 35.0%to 39.7%) of participants reported experiencing one or more forms of sexual misconduct (excluding stalking, which was only surveyed in 2015) during the academic year of the survey. That rate of experience was 42.4% in 2013 (95% CI: 38.9% to 46.0%); however, the rate for experience of any sexual misconduct was significantly lower (33.1%, 95% CI: 30.0% to 36.2%) in 2015 (95% CI for difference: -11.7% to -7.0%). When stalking experiences were included, the rate of any form of sexual misconduct rose to 35.6% (95% CI: 32.4% to 38.7%) in 2015, which was still significantly lower than the rate observed in 2013 (95% CI for difference: -9.2% to -4.5%). The rates of all types of misconduct are reported in Table MT1.

Table MT1. Rates of single academic year sexual misconduct victimization by type of misconduct

Rate of Experience	Intimate Partner Abuse	Stalking	Unwanted Sexual Communication	Unwanted Sexual Touching	Attempted or Completed Sexual Assault
2013					
Unsure	*NA*	*NA*	8.6%	5.5%	1.4%
Yes	12.5%	*NA*	19.0%	17.3%	3.3%
Combined	12.5%	*NA*	27.5%	22.8%	4.7%
2015					
Unsure	*NA*	2.5%	3.2%	2.4%	0.9%
Yes	12.8%	3.9%	14.4%	13.1%	3.2%
Combined	12.8%	6.4%	17.5%	15.5%	4.0%

Note. NA = Not Assessed. Unsure responses represent instances where participants reported affirmatively to the item "I'm not sure, but something like this happened" in response to a sexual misconduct definition. Intimate partner abuse was not assessed by asking participants to respond to a misconduct definition, and thus, there were no "unsure" responses.

Experiences of unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault were collapsed into a single, physical sexual misconduct (PSM) variable. In total, 19.7% (95% CI: 17.8% to 21.7%) of all participants across both surveys reported experiencing one or more instances of PSM during in the academic year in which they took the survey. However, there was a statistically significant difference in the rates of PSM across survey years. Specifically, the rate in 2013 (23.2%, 95% CI: 20.1% to 26.2%) was significantly higher than the rate in 2015 (16.9%, 95% CI: 14.4% to 19.3%; 95% CI for difference: -8.2% to -4.3%).

Table MT2 presents the rates associated with experiencing one through five different types of sexual misconduct during the 2012–13 and 2014–15 academic years. The mean number of types of misconduct by academic year were significantly different ($t(1615.3) = 2.46$, $p < .05$). During the 2012–13 academic year, the mean number of misconduct types experienced was 0.67 (SD = .95), and in 2014–15 the mean was 0.56 (SD = .91). Caution should be used when interpreting

this difference, as the distribution of types of misconduct is significantly positively skewed and leptokurtic in 2013 (skewness = 1.49, *SE* = 0.9; kurtosis = 1.71, *SE* = .18) and 2015 (skewness = 1.93, *SE* = .8; kurtosis = 4.09, *SE* = .16), which constitutes a violation of the normal distribution assumption underlying independent samples *t*-tests. Both variables were transformed using a square-root transformation, and the *t*-test was conducted on those transformed variables. The significant difference remained ($t(1617.8) = 2.80$, $p < .05$). Participants in 2013 reported significantly more types of sexual misconduct than participants in 2015.

Table MT2. Rates of participants who experienced multiple types of sexual misconduct by survey year

Number of Types of Misconduct Experiences	2012–13	2014–15
0	57.6%	64.4%
1	25.7%	21.8%
2	10.3%	9.3%
3	4.7%	3.1%
4 or 5	1.7%	1.4%

Excluding those who did not experience any sexual misconduct, the mean number of misconduct types experienced by those who experienced at least one form of misconduct was 1.58 (*SD* = .83) in 2012-2013 and 1.57 (*SD* = 87) in 2014–15. The difference in those means was not statistically significant, indicating that the previous difference in means is due only to the greater proportion of participants who had no experience of sexual misconduct in 2015.

Whereas 35.6% of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents in 2014–15, 46.4% (95% CI: 43.2% to 49.7%) of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents since starting college. In addition, 25.9% (95% CI: 23.1%to 28.8%) of participants reported experiencing a physical form of sexual misconduct (unwanted sexual touching and/or attempted or completed sexual assault). No similar rate could be calculated for participants in 2013, as prior experiences were not surveyed during that administration.

ACADEMIC YEAR SEXUAL MISCONDUCT BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUP

The following analyses use the experience of any sexual misconduct variable that does not include stalking experiences. This decision was made because stalking experiences were only surveyed during the 2015 administration. The removal of that experience for these analyses allows for a more direct comparison of rates across survey administrations.

Academic Year

No significant differences in rates of experiencing any sexual misconduct were observed across academic year during either survey administration (see Table MT3). Similarly, though rates dropped from 2013 to 2015 for all academic years, only the rate drop observed for third-year students was statistically significant (χ^2 (1, $N = 372$) = 6.56, $p < .05$).

Table MT3. Rates of any sexual misconduct victimization by academic year and survey year

	2013	2015
First Year	41.0%	39.9%
Second Year	40.6%	35.5%
Third Year	43.1%	30.3%
Fourth/Fifth Year	42.7%	35.2%

Gender

The rates of academic year sexual misconduct by gender and survey administration are presented in Table MT4. In both 2013 (χ^2 (2, N = 772) = 31.90, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 842) = 53.42, p < .05), the rates of any sexual misconduct were not statistically stable across gender groups. In both years, cisgender male participants experienced sexual misconduct at rates lower than cisgender females and transgender or other gender participants. Further, the only gender group whose rates changed significantly across survey administration was the group of cisgender males. While the rate of any misconduct experience increased for transgender or other gender participants, those rates were based on a relatively small number of participants (n = 44), which likely explains why that increase was not statistically significant. Although the rate of any sexual misconduct experienced by cisgender females decreased slightly across survey administration, that difference also was not statistically significant.

Table MT4. Rates of any sexual misconduct victimization by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Cisgender Female	49.5%	44.1%
Transgender/Other	38.5%	51.6%
Cisgender Male	27.5%	19.9%

Sexual Orientation

Overall, non-heterosexual participants reported more sexual misconduct experiences (42.5%) than their heterosexual peers (36.7%). However, that difference was not stable across survey years. In 2013, non-heterosexual participants had a marginally higher rate of sexual misconduct than heterosexual participants (χ^2 (1, N = 707) = 3.19, p = .07), but that difference was not observed in 2015 (see Table MT5). Yet, both groups saw a decrease in rates from 2013 to 2015. The rate drop was marginally significant for non-heterosexual participants (χ^2 (2, N = 381) = 3.21, p = .07), while the difference was statistically significant for heterosexual participants (χ^2 (2, N = 1154) = 4.52, p < .05).

Table MT5. Rates of any sexual misconduct victimization by sexual orientation and survey year

	2013	2015
Heterosexual	39.9%	33.9%
Non-Heterosexual	47.8%	38.6%

Ethnicity/Race

The rates of academic year sexual misconduct by ethnic/racial category and survey administration are presented in Table MT6. As observed there, rates varied marginally across ethnic/racial groups in 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 812) = 5.35, p = .07), while rates did not significantly vary in 2013. Further, though rates did not significantly change from 2013 to 2015 for domestic students of color, the rates marginally decreased for international students (χ^2 (1, N = 82) = 3.59, p = .06) and significantly decreased for domestic white or Caucasian participants (χ^2 (1, N = 1115) = 5.86, p < .05).

Table MT6. Rates of any sexual misconduct victimization by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	2015
Domestic Students of Color	44.6%	42.8%
International	50.0%	29.5%
Domestic White/Caucasian	40.7%	33.7%

ACADEMIC YEAR EXPERIENCES WITH PHYSICAL SEXUAL MISCONDUCT BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUP

As mentioned previously, experiences of unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault were collapsed into a single, physical sexual misconduct (PSM) variable. While 19.7% (95% CI: 17.8% to 21.7%) of all participants across both survey years reported having experienced PSM during the academic year they took the survey, there was a statistically significant difference in the rates of PSM across survey years (23.3% in 2013 and 16.9% in 2015). Because rates of attempted or completed sexual assault remained stable across survey years, this drop in rates is largely attributable to the drop in rates of unwanted sexual touching from 2013 to 2015.

Academic Year

No significant differences in rates of experiencing PSM were observed across academic year during the 2013 survey administration (see Table MT7). Alternatively, in 2015, rates for third- and fourth-year participants were lower than their first- and second-year counterparts. That difference, however, was only marginally significant (χ^2 (3, N = 839) = 6.75, p = .08). An examination of changes for individual academic years across survey administration revealed significant drops in rates of PSM experience for third- (χ^2 (1, N = 372) = 6.90, p < .05) and fourth-year participants (χ^2 (1, N = 356) = 5.13, p < .05). In both cases, rates dropped from approximately one in four participants to one in seven. No significant change in rates of PSM occurred for first-and second-year participants, with approximately one in five participants in those two academic years experiencing such misconduct.

Table MT7. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization during current year by academic year and survey year

	2013	2015
First Year	20.7%	21.2%
Second Year	23.1%	20.0%
Third Year	23.0%	12.6%
Fourth/Fifth Year	25.2%	15.5%

Gender

The rates of experience for PSM by participants of different genders are presented in Table MT8. As observed there, significant differences in rates of experience emerged across participants of different genders in both 2013 (χ^2 (2, N = 842) = 47.71, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (2, N = 722) = 34.39, p < .05). Cisgender male participants experienced PSM at substantially lower rates than cisgender female and transgender or other gender participants in both survey years. However, the rates dropped significantly from 2013 to 2015 for both cisgender female participants (χ^2 (1, N = 955) = 4.70, p < .05) and male participants (χ^2 (1, N = 565) = 4.23, p < .05). Though the rates increased across survey years for transgender or other gender participants, the rate increase was not statistically significant, a finding likely due to the low number of such participants in the sample (n = 44).

Table MT8. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization during current year by gender and survey year

	2013	2015
Cisgender Female	30.3%	24.1%
Transgender/Other	23.1%	29.0%
Cisgender Male	10.7%	5.9%

When collapsed across survey year, the rates of experience for PSM are quite high for cisgender female and transgender or other participants. For those participants, just over one in four reported experiencing some form of PSM. Alternatively across the two survey years, approximately one in 13 cisgender males had similar experiences.

The rates of PSM by gender identity (transgender or other gender participants collapsed with reported gender identity), academic year, and survey year are reported in Table MT9. As observed there, female participants reported significantly higher rates of PSM than their male counterparts across all academic years and in both survey years. Also, though there was some variability in rates across academic year, rates for males and females were statistically stable in both 2013 and 2015. However, third-year female participants in 2015 experienced PSM at statistically significant lower rates than third-year female participants in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 219) = 6.42, p < .05). The drop in rates for fourth-year males also was statistically significant (χ^2 (1, N = 124) = 4.49, p < .05). No other subgroups change in rates was statistically significant. This finding seems to suggest that the observed statistically significant drop in rates for female participants from 2013 to 2015 is largely driven by the drop for third-year females, while the

significant drop for males from 2013 to 2015 can be attributed to the drop in rates for fourth-year males.

Table MT9. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization during current year by gender, academic year, and survey year

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
First Year	27.4%	9.4%	29.3%	8.4%
Second Year	31.0%	6.6%	28.2%	8.4%
Third Year	32.7%	6.3%	17.9%	11.5%
Fourth/Fifth Year	30.0%	14.6%	21.5%	3.9%

Sexual Orientation

Rates of academic year PSM dropped from 2013 to 2015 for both heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants (see Table MT10). However, only the change in rates for heterosexual participants was statistically significant (χ^2 (1, N = 1154) = 6.82, p < .05). Further, there were no significant differences in the rates of PSM between heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants in either 2013 or 2015.

Table MT10. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization by sexual orientation and survey year

	2013	**2015**
Heterosexual	22.7%	16.6%
Non-Heterosexual	25.5%	19.1%

The rates of PSM by sexual orientation, gender identity, and survey year are presented in Table MT11. As observed there, heterosexual female participants experienced physical sexual misconduct at statistically higher rates than heterosexual male participants in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 540) = 40.01, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 606) = 54.10, p < .05). Also, while heterosexual female participants experienced higher rates of PSM than non-heterosexual female participants, these differences were not statistically significant in either 2013 or 2015. On the other hand, non-heterosexual male participants experienced significantly higher rates of PSM in both 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 239) = 9.17, p < .05) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 321) = 9.23, p < .05). No other PSM rate changes from 2013 to 2015 were statistically significant.

Table MT11. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization during current year by gender, sexual orientation, and survey year

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Heterosexual	26.5%	4.1%	31.4%	7.7%
Non-Heterosexual	19.6%	14.8%	26.7%	23.3%

Ethnicity/Race

The rates of academic-year PSM by ethnic or racial background and survey year are presented in Table MT12. Rates dropped for all three participant groups from 2013 to 2015; however, the rate drop was only statistically significant for domestic white or Caucasian participants (χ^2 (1, N = 1115) = 5.19, $p < .05$). The rate drop for international participants was marginally significant (χ^2 (1, N = 82) = 3.62, $p = .06$). Further, in 2013, a marginally significant difference in rates of PSM emerged across ethnic or racial groups (χ^2 (1, N = 652) = 5.45, $p = .07$), with international participants experiencing the highest rate of PMS, followed by domestic students of color; domestic white or Caucasian students had the lowest rates of PSM. The difference in rates across groups was not statistically significant in 2015.

Table MT12. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	2015
Domestic Students of Color	25.7%	21.7%
International	36.8%	18.2%
Domestic White/Caucasian	21.2%	15.9%

The rates of PSM for participants of different ethnic or racial backgrounds and gender identities are presented in Table MT13. International participants were removed from this analysis because of the low numbers of participants in some cells. Female domestic students of color reported significantly higher rates of PSM than male participants 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 137) = 8.16, $p < .05$) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 205) = 7.18, $p < .05$). The same pattern held for domestic white or Caucasian participants in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 502) = 22.74, $p < .05$) and 2015 (χ^2 (1, N = 587) = 39.83, $p < .05$). Also, while there were no statistically significant differences between female domestic students of color and female domestic white or Caucasian participants in 2015, there was a marginally significant difference in PSM rates between those two groups in 2013 (χ^2 (1, N = 431) = 3.37, $p = .07$), with female domestic students of color experiencing PSM at a higher rate. Also, though male domestic students of color experienced PSM at rates higher than male domestic white or Caucasian participants, those differences were not statistically significant in either survey year. Finally, no subgroup experienced a statistically significant drop in PSM experience from 2013 to 2015.

Table MT13. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization during current year by gender, ethnic/racial background, and survey year

	2013		2015	
	Female	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**
Domestic Students of Color	37.0%	13.3%	25.9%	10.0%
Domestic White/Caucasian	27.1%	8.6%	23.8%	4.5%

SEXUAL MISCONDUCT ANY TIME IN COLLEGE BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUP

As mentioned previously, the 2015 administration of the survey allowed for an analysis of sexual misconduct experiences since starting college. The rate of any sexual misconduct experience (includes stalking, intimate partner abuse, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and attempted or completed sexual assault) was 46.4% (95% CI: 43.2% to 49.7%) for all participants.

Gender

The rates of experiencing sexual misconduct at any time during college, separated by gender, are presented in Table MT14. As observed there, cisgender female and transgender or other gender participants had such experiences at over twice the rate reported by cisgender male participants. While over one-quarter of cisgender male participants reported experiencing sexual misconduct since entering college, over half of cisgender female participants and nearly two-thirds of transgender or other gender participants had similar experiences. The differences in rates among gender participant groups were significantly different (χ^2 (2, N = 842) = 74.25, p < .05).

Table MT14. Rates of sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by gender (2015 only)

	Rate
Cisgender Female	56.9%
Transgender/Other	61.3%
Cisgender Male	26.8%

Academic Year and Gender

As expected, there was a marginally significant increase in these rates across academic years (χ^2 (3, N = 839) = 6.80, p = .08). Fourth- and fifth-year students had the highest rates of sexual misconduct (51.1%), followed by second- (47.3%), third (43.9%), and first-year students (39.9%). Also consistent with trends observed throughout previous sections of this document, transgender students had the highest incident rates (61.3%), followed by cisgender women (56.9%) and cisgender men (26.8%). The difference in rates was significant (χ^2 (2, N = 842) = 74.25, p < .05). The rates of sexual misconduct by academic year and gender identity are presented in Table MT15. As observed there, female-identifying participants (trans-inclusive) experienced sexual misconduct at approximately twice the rate of male-identifying participants across all academic years. Perhaps shockingly, nearly two-thirds of fourth- or fifth-year female-identifying students reported experiencing sexual misconduct since beginning college. Further, over half of first-year female students experienced some form of sexual misconduct since entering college. These rates suggest that experiences of sexual misconduct are common for all female-identifying students and these experiences accumulate quickly once those students start college.

Table MT15. Rates of sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by academic year and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
First Year	52.0%	21.7%	39.8%
Second Year	57.3%	27.7%	45.8%
Third Year	54.5%	26.6%	42.9%
Fourth/Fifth Year	63.1%	32.9%	51.9%

Sexual Orientation and Gender

Non-heterosexual students also reported a significantly higher rate of sexual misconduct experiences (53.2%) than heterosexual students (43.3%; χ^2 (1, N = 828) = 6.41, p < .05), and these rate differences were consistent across class year. The rates of sexual misconduct at any time in college by gender identity and sexual orientation are presented in Table MT16. As observed there, there was no statistically significant difference in rates of sexual misconduct experiences between female heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants, but there was a significant difference in rates for males (χ^2 (1, N = 321) = 6.11, p < .05), with non-heterosexual males experiencing sexual misconduct at any time in college at a rate greater than heterosexual males. However, male participants experienced significantly less sexual misconduct than female participants, regardless of sexual orientation.

Table MT16. Rates of sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by sexual orientation and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
Heterosexual	58.1%	24.3%	43.2%
Non-Heterosexual	55.5%	40.7%	51.5%

Ethnicity and Gender

The rates of sexual misconduct at any time in college were consistent across racial/ethnic categories, with 50.6% of domestic students of color, 45.0% of domestic white or Caucasian students, and 36.4% of international students reporting some experience of sexual misconduct. These differences were stable across class year. The rates of sexual misconduct at any time in college by racial/ethnic category and gender identity are presented in Table MT17. No significant differences in rates were observed across racial/ethnic category for female and male participants; however, female participants consistently reported statistically higher rates of sexual misconduct than male participants for each racial/ethnic category.

Table MT17. Rates of sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by ethnic/racial background and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
Domestic Students of Color	57.5%	34.5%	49.7%
International	51.7%	6.7%	36.4%
Domestic White/Caucasian	57.6%	26.3%	44.6%

PHYSICAL SEXUAL MISCONDUCT ANY TIME IN COLLEGE BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUP

As previously mentioned, the data collected during the 2015 survey administration allowed for an examination of sexual misconduct since entering college. While 46.4% (95% CI: 43.2% to 49.7%) of all participants reported experiencing some form of sexual misconduct (e.g., stalking, unwanted sexual communication), a still-sizable proportion reported experiencing physical forms of sexual misconduct since entering college. Specifically, 25.9% (95% CI: 23.1% to 28.8%) of participants reported experiencing unwanted sexual touching, attempted or completed sexual assault, or both.

Gender

The rates of PSM by gender are presented in Table MT18. As observed there, cisgender female and transgender or other gender participants reported experiencing PSM at rates over three times as high as those reported by cisgender males. The difference in rates was statistically significant (χ^2 (2, N = 842) = 58.24, p < .05).

Table MT18. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by gender (2015 only)

	PSM
Cisgender Female	35.5%
Transgender/Other	34.9%
Cisgender Male	11.2%

In 2015, the Association of American Universities (AAU) published a report of sexual climate surveys collected at 27 institutions of higher education in the United States and representing more than 150,000 participants (Cantor et al., 2015). Though methodological (e.g., AAU used different questions) and sampling differences (e.g., AAU received a 19.3% response rate) prohibit a direct comparison with the present findings, the authors of that study reported that, in total, 11.7% of their participants reported experiencing nonconsensual sexual penetration or sexual touching by force or incapacitation since enrolling in college. When broken down by gender, 23.1% of female; 24.1% of transgender, genderqueer or nonconforming, questioning or not listed (approximately equivalent to our transgender or other gender category), and 5.4% of male undergraduate participants reported experiencing nonconsensual sexual penetration or touching.

In comparison, the rates observed at Grinnell College are significantly higher for all three gender groups than the rates reported for the AAU survey. The 95% confidence interval for the percentage difference for cisgender females extends from 9.6% to 14.0% higher than the comparable rate from the AAU survey. The confidence interval for the difference for cisgender males is from 4.1% to 7.6% higher, and the confidence interval for the difference for transgender or other gender participants extends from 2.7% to 20.1% higher. Of note, however, the Grinnell College rate for transgender or other gender students was calculated on only 31 participants. Because of that low number, those participants will be collapsed into the gender identity they selected on the survey for all subsequent analyses.

Academic Year and Gender

The rates of PSM since entering college by academic year and gender are presented in table MT19. As observed there, female participants experienced PSM at rates significantly higher than male participants across all academic years. Though variability exists in the rates of PSM since entering college across academic years for both female and male participants, that variability was not statistically significant.

Table MT19. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by academic year and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
First Year	28.7%	8.8%	21.2%
Second Year	37.5%	13.4%	27.7%
Third Year	30.6%	10.3%	23.2%
Fourth/Fifth Year	42.2%	13.3%	31.9%

To put these numbers into context, 27.2% of undergraduate senior women in the AAU survey reported experiencing sexual contact involving penetration or sexual touching as a result of physical force or incapacitation since entering college. In contrast, 6.5% of undergraduate senior male participants reported such experiences since entering college. Both of those rates are significantly less than the rates observed for fourth- or fifth-year female and male participants at Grinnell College. The actual numbers used to calculate the AAU values were not specified in their data tables but could be estimated using other information. As a consequence, the following confidence intervals may not be exact. The 95% confidence interval for the difference in rates of PSM since entering college for senior undergraduate females between the two surveys extended from 10.6% to 19.4%, with the rates at Grinnell College significantly higher than those reported from the AAU survey. The Grinnell College PSM rate for senior undergraduate males also was significantly higher than the AAU rate (95% CI for the difference: 2.9% to 10.8%).

Sexual Orientation and Gender

Generally, non-heterosexual participants reported greater PSM since entering college than heterosexual participants (see Table MT20). However, when sexual orientation was crossed with gender, a more complex pattern emerged. While there were no significant differences in the rate of PSM between female heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants or between non-

heterosexual female and male participants, statistically significant differences emerged for rates of PSM between heterosexual and non-heterosexual male participants (χ^2 (1, N = 315) = 16.46, p < .05) and between heterosexual female and male participants (χ^2 (1, N = 604) = 59.33, p < .05). Female participants were over four times as likely and non-heterosexual male participants were over three times more likely to experience PSM since entering college than heterosexual male participants.

Table MT20. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by sexual orientation and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
Heterosexual	34.9%	8.3%	23.2%
Non-Heterosexual	34.0%	28.6%	33.2%

Ethnicity and Gender

Table MT21 presents the rates of PSM since entering college for participants of different ethnic or racial groups and by gender. The rates of PSM are significantly higher for female participants for domestic students of color (χ^2 (1, N = 157) = 4.27, p < .05), international participants (χ^2 (1, N = 44) = 4.08, p < .05), and domestic white or Caucasian participants (χ^2 (1, N = 779) = 48.46, p < .05). However, despite some variability, there were no statistically significant differences in rates of PSM across ethnic or racial groups for female or male participants.

Table MT21. Rates of physical sexual misconduct victimization at any time in college by ethnic/racial background and gender (2015 only)

	Female	Male	Total
Domestic Students of Color	32.0%	16.7%	26.8%
International	34.5%	6.7%	25.0%
Domestic White/Caucasian	35.6%	10.1%	25.1%

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The rate for any sexual misconduct for Grinnell College students is high. Across the two survey administrations, 37.3% of participants reported experiencing one or more form of sexual misconduct (excluding stalking, which was only surveyed in 2015). The rate of experience was 42.4% in 2013, but the rate was significantly lower (33.1%) in 2015. When stalking experiences were included, the rate of any form of sexual misconduct rose to 35.6%, which was still significantly lower than the rate observed in 2013.

Considering only unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault, 19.7% of all survey participants reported having experienced a physical form of sexual misconduct within the past year. However, the rate in 2015 was significantly lower (16.9%) than the same rate in 2013 (23.2%). Because the rates of attempted or completed sexual assault remained stable across survey administrations, this significant decrease is almost exclusively attributable to the reduction in rates of unwanted sexual touching from 2013 to 2015.

Excluding those who did not experience any sexual misconduct, the mean number of misconduct types experienced by those who experienced at least one form of misconduct was 1.58 (*SD* = .83) in 2012-2013 and 1.57 (*SD* = 87) in 2014–15. The difference in those means was not statistically significant. Participant groups that seemed most at risk for any type of sexual misconduct included cisgender females, transgender or other gender students, non-heterosexual students, and domestic students of color.

Whereas 35.6% of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents in 2014–15, 46.4% of participants reported experiencing one or more sexual misconduct incidents since starting college. Additionally, 25.9% of participants reported experiencing some form of physical sexual misconduct since starting college. No similar rate could be calculated for participants in 2013, as prior experiences were not surveyed during that administration. These rates were not stable across demographic group and suggest that some groups, particularly female and transgender or other gender students, may be more at risk for experiencing sexual misconduct than others. Nearly 40% of academic first-year participants reported experiencing some form of sexual misconduct in their first year of college, and the rates increased only marginally for older participants. When considering other demographic variables in conjunction, 63.1% of academic fourth- or fifth-year female participants reported at least one experience of sexual misconduct since entering college, and 42.2% of those same individuals experienced a physical form of sexual misconduct. That latter rate far exceeds the rate observed in other studies. Further, female-identifying heterosexual and non-heterosexual participants reported rates of any form of sexual misconduct above 50%, while male-identifying non-heterosexual participants also appeared to experience an elevated risk, relative to their heterosexual counterparts.

REPORTING MISCONDUCT PERCEPTIONS

In 2015, questions were added to the survey to determine participants' perceptions of campus leadership, policies, and reporting. These items were adapted from the White House Task Force's *Useful Tools* document. The original 12 items from that document were sexual assault-specific (e.g., "If someone were to report a sexual assault to a campus authority, how likely is it that the university would take the report seriously?"). To better determine if there were different perceptions of leadership, policies, and reporting depending upon the type of misconduct reported, these same 12 items were repeated for intimate partner abuse, stalking, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and sexual assault. Response options included (1) "Not at all likely, (2) "Slightly likely, (3) "Moderately likely," and (4) "Very likely."

Repeated-measures analysis of variance statistics were computed to determine if participants' perceptions about leadership, policies, and reporting differed across types of misconduct. All within-subjects effects were significant; however, the magnitude of the effect sizes ranged from miniscule to very small, signaling that the observed statistical significance was largely attributable to sample size and statistical power, rather than meaningful differences. A decision was made to run subsequent analyses on mean item-level agreement across the five misconduct subtypes. The mean level of agreement for each item is presented in Table RM1. Items are sorted by perceived likelihood where 1 is equal to "Not at all likely" and 4 is equal to "Very likely."

Table RM1. Level of perceived likelihood in response to question, "If someone were to report sexual misconduct to a campus authority, how likely is it that:"

	M	*SD*
Other students would support the person making the report.	3.34	0.61
The college would keep knowledge of the report limited to those who need to know in order for the college to respond properly.	3.21	0.74
The college would take the report seriously.	2.93	0.72
The college would support the person making the report.	2.84	0.82
The college would take steps to protect the safety of the person making the report.	2.75	0.81
The college would take steps to protect the person making the report from retaliation.	2.61	0.86
The college would take corrective action against the offender.	2.53	0.82
The alleged offender(s) or their associates would retaliate against the person making the report.	2.49	0.69
The college would take corrective action to address factors that may have led to the sexual assault.	2.48	0.85
The educational achievement/career of the person making the report would suffer.	2.43	0.86
The college would forward the report outside the campus to criminal investigators.	2.09	0.80
Other students would label the person making the report a troublemaker.	1.97	0.77

Note M = Mean. Higher values indicate perception of greater likelihood. *SD* = standard deviation.

On average, participants perceived it moderately to very likely that their peers would support persons reporting sexual misconduct and that the College would limit distribution of information in the report to those who need to know. Participants also perceived that the college was moderately likely to take the report seriously. Participants rated two items, on average, as slightly likely to not at all likely. Those items were that the College would forward the report to criminal investigators outside the College and that other students would label the reporting individual as a troublemaker.

The items were factor analyzed using maximum likelihood estimation and promax rotation. One item, "The educational achievement/career of the person making the report would suffer," was excluded, as it did not obviously reflect perceptions about leadership, policies, and reporting differed across types of misconduct. A three-factor solution emerged and reflected perceptions that (1) the College would take corrective action, (2) the College would take seriously the concerns of victims, and (3) students would make life difficult for victims. The mean perceived likelihood to these items is presented in Table RM2.

Table RM2. Perceived likelihood in response to perceptions about leadership, policies, and reporting factors

	Mean	SD
Factor 1: The College would take corrective action	2.49	0.72
Factor 2: The College would take seriously the concerns of victims	3.08	0.59
Factor 3: Students would make life difficult for victims	2.23	0.62

Participants perceived, on average, that the College was moderately likely to take seriously the concerns of victims. However, they were less sure that the College would take corrective action (e.g., protect person making report from retaliation, take action against offender). Participants also perceived that the likelihood that other students would make life difficult for victims was just more than slightly likely.

To determine if participant subgroups held different perceptions of the likelihood of each factor, each factor was subjected to factorial analysis of variance with academic year, gender identity, sexual orientation, racial/ethnic background, and experience with sexual misconduct used as fixed factors. For Factor 1, a significant main effect emerged for sexual orientation, $F(1, 674) = 6.98$, $p < .05$. Heterosexual-identifying participants perceived the College as more likely to take corrective action ($M = 2.6$, $SD = 0.72$) than non-heterosexual-identifying participants ($M = 2.2$, $SD = .67$). No other significant main effects or interactions emerged for the analysis of Factor 1. Further, there were no significant main effects or interactions for the analyses of Factor 2 (the College would take seriously the concerns of victims) or Factor 3 (students would make life difficult for victims). These null findings indicate that perceptions of campus leadership, policies, and the reporting experience are largely stable across student subgroups.

REPORTING SOURCE ENDORCEMENT

During both 2013 and 2015 survey administrations, participants were asked "To whom are you likely to turn for help with issues of sexual misconduct?" Options provided included available

campus and off-campus resources who could, in their official capacity, address the misconduct in some formal way. The level of endorsement for each option is provided in Table RM3.

Table RM3. Rates of endorsement of potential reporting sources by survey year

	2013	2015
Campus Advocates	26.3%	49.0%*
Therapist or Counselor	*NA*	43.8%
Student Health and Counseling Services Staff	64.5%	36.8%*
Campus Safety and Security	39.3%	33.8%*
Student Adviser	35.7%	32.7%
Residence Life Coordinator	40.2%	27.4%*
Local Police	16.9%	24.5%*
Clergy or Spiritual Leader	12.5%	23.2%*
Grinnell Community Health Services	18.2%	17.6%
Title IX Coordinator	8.9%	17.3%*
Coach	*NA*	10.4%
Ombuds Office	*NA*	7.3%
Domestic Violence Shelter	3.5%	4.9%

Note. Sorted by level of endorsement in 2015. *NA* = Not Assessed. Options for therapist or counselor, coach, and Ombuds Office were not provided in 2013.
* Statistically significant change in level of endorsement from 2013 to 2015.

Of note, the top two endorsed options in 2013 and the top three endorsed options in 2015 represent confidential resources. Receiving slightly less endorsement were resources that are legally required to pass on information to other officials or agencies or take direct action (e.g., Campus Safety and Security, student advisers, residence life coordinators). Significant increases in endorsement were observed for campus advocates (+22.7%), the police (+7.6%), clergy (+10.7%), and Title IX coordinator (+8.4%), while significant decreases in endorsement were observed for Student Health and Counseling Services (-27.7%), residence life coordinators (-12.8%), and Campus Safety and Security (-5.5%).

Academic Year

No significant differences in endorsement patterns emerged across participants of different academic years in 2015 for the majority of potential reporting sources. However, significant differences did emerge across academic years for the Ombuds Office, whereby third-year students endorsed reporting to that office at a rate of 11.1%, compared to lower rates for fourth- and fifth-year students (8%), second-year students (6.8%), and first-year students (2.9%). This pattern potentially suggests that older students may be more aware of the existence and function of that office, as opposed to differential patterns of trust in that office across academic years. Alternatively, first-year students endorsed reporting to student advisers at higher rates (43.3%) than second- (34.1%), third- (31.1%), and fourth- and fifth-year students (23.9%). This pattern might also reflect both the differential types of relationships students have with student advisers

across their academic careers and the observation that older students are more likely than younger students to live in settings that do not have student advisers.

Gender

In 2015, the relative order of endorsement was similar across gender categories. While campus advocates were the most likely source for reporting for both groups, female participants endorsed advocates (+11.9%), therapists or counselors (+10.2%), and the Title IX coordinator (+6.8%) at rates significantly higher than male participants. Alternatively, male participants endorsed Campus Safety and Security (+9.9%), coaches (+8.9%), and residence life coordinators (+8.4%) at rates significantly higher than female participants. See Table RM4 for rates of endorsement by gender.

Table RM4. Order of endorsement strength for reporting sources in 2015 separated by gender

	Female
Campus Advocates	53.8%
Therapist or Counselor	48.4%
Student Health and Counseling Services Staff	39.6%
Student Adviser	33.3%
Campus Safety and Security	29.9%
Clergy or Spiritual Leader	25.7%
Residence Life Coordinator	24.3%
Local Police	21.7%
Grinnell Community Health Services	19.9%
Title IX Coordinator	19.3%
Ombuds Office	7.6%
Coach	7.0%
Domestic Violence Shelter	5.0%
	Male
Campus Advocates	41.9%
Campus Safety and Security	39.8%
Therapist or Counselor	38.2%
Student Health and Counseling Services Staff	34.3%
Student Adviser	34.3%
Residence Life Coordinator	32.7%
Local Police	26.6%
Clergy or Spiritual Leader	20.8%
Coach	15.9%
Grinnell Community Health Services	14.4%
Title IX Coordinator	12.5%
Ombuds Office	6.1%
Domestic Violence Shelter	3.7%

Sexual Orientation

Three significant differences in endorsement rates emerged between non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants. Non-heterosexual participants endorsed campus advocates at a higher rate (60.9%) than heterosexual participants (45.1%; χ^2 (1, N = 828) = 16.22, p < .05). They also endorsed therapists or counselors at a higher rate (50.5% vs. 42.1%; χ^2 (1, N = 828) = 4.56, p < .05). Alternatively, heterosexual participants endorsed coaches at a higher rate (11.8%) than non-heterosexual participants (6.8%; χ^2 (1, N = 828) = 4.34, p < .05).

Race/Ethnicity

Campus advocates were endorsed by domestic white or Caucasian students (53.7%) at a rate significantly higher than domestic students of color (39.2%) and international students (36.4%; χ^2 (2, N = 812) = 14.28, p < .05). Similarly, domestic white or Caucasian students (48.2%) and international students (43.2%) endorsed reporting to therapists or counselors at a rate significantly higher than domestic students of color (32.5%; χ^2 (2, N = 812) = 12.92, p < .05). No other differences in endorsement rates were observed across racial/ethnic background.

ACTUAL REPORTING

Among all participants who reported experiencing any sexual misconduct, 11.8% reported one or more of their experiences to a source that could help address the misconduct because of that source's official capacity within Grinnell College. The rates of reporting did not differ significantly from 2013 (9.5%) to 2015 (13.6%), despite the small rise in the proportion of those who reported. The rates of reporting for each individual subtype of sexual misconduct are presented in Table RM5. As observed there, the rates of reporting decreased for victims of intimate partner abuse and unwanted sexual communication. Alternatively, the rates of reporting increased for victims of unwanted sexual touching and attempted or completed sexual assault. None of these changes in rates were statistically significant.

Table RM5. Rates of reporting to an official source by sexual misconduct subtype and survey year

	2013	2015
Stalking	*NA*	22.9%
Intimate Partner Abuse	8.1%	7.8%
Unwanted Sexual Communication	11.2%	7.0%
Unwanted Sexual Touching	3.7%	9.4%
Attempted or Completed Sexual Assault	20.0%	35.4%

Note NA = Not Assessed.

Though benchmark rates of reporting are not available for all types of misconduct, rates of reporting sexual assault, particularly rape, are available through several representative surveys. Grinnell College students had significantly higher rates of reporting attempted or completed sexually assault (35.4% vs. 4.8%) and unwanted sexual touching (9.4% vs. 1.5%) than rates observed for college women in one nationally representative Department of Justice – Office of Justice Programs study (Fisher et al., 2000). *The Washington Post* and Kaiser Family Foundation surveyed a nationally representative sample of college students about experiences with sexual

assault. Of those who experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault, 15% reported their experience to police or university authorities (*The Washington Post*, 2015). That rate was significantly lower than the reporting rate at Grinnell College for attempted and completed sexual assault. Krebs and colleagues (2007) in their nationally representative Campus Sexual Assault Study found that 12.0% of victims of forced sexual assault and 2.1% of victims of incapacitated sexual assault reported their experience to campus or local law enforcement, while slightly higher rates (15.8% and 7.5%, respectively) reported their experience to a victim's, crisis, or health care center. They did not provide rates for reporting to college officials; however, the rates of reporting attempted or completed sexual assault at Grinnell College exceed the rates Krebs and colleagues reported. Using a nationally representative sample of women ages 18 to 76 from the National Women's Study-Replication, Wolitzky-Taylor and colleagues (2011) found that 15.8% of rape victims reported their experience to law enforcement and that the reporting rate for rape in their sample was consistent with similar studies dating back to the 1990s. Though not a direct comparison because that sample was not limited to college students and the reporting source was limited to law enforcement, the rate of reporting at Grinnell College in 2015 was significantly higher than that found by Wolitzky-Taylor and colleagues. Alternatively, the rate of reporting attempted or completed assault at Grinnell College in 2015 was almost identical to the rate observed for victims of rape and sexual assault in reporting to police in the National Crime Victimization Survey in 2010 (35%; Planty et al., 2010). That sample also was not limited to college-age participants, making the rate less directly comparable.

Proportionally, however, the vast majority of participants who experienced sexual misconduct did not report their experiences to a College official who could provide support, resources, or resolution to their situation. When they did report, the most likely official to receive the report was the Title IX coordinator. Yet, reports were largely evenly distributed across a variety of campus officials. See Table RM6 for the sources where official reports were first reported.

Table RM6. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced sexual misconduct who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Title IX Coordinator	5.2%
Student Adviser	4.7%
Residence Life Coordinator	4.2%
Other	4.0%
Student Affairs	3.0%
Faculty Member	2.0%
Police	1.5%
Coach	1.2%
Ombuds Office	1.0%

For those participants who did not report their experiences, a follow-up question was asked to determine what factors inhibited them from seeking out College officials after experiencing sexual misconduct. Candidate reasons were provided, and participants could check all that

applied to them. The percentage of participants who endorsed each reason is presented in Table RM7. The values reported there were collapsed across misconduct types.

As observed in that table, a majority of victims of sexual misconduct chose not to report to someone in an official capacity within or outside the College because they did not believe what happened to them was abuse. Because of the wording of that option, it is not possible to determine if that belief was limited to the time the abuse occurred or if that belief remained in place at the time participants took the survey. It is possible that participants who were victims of misconduct did not believe at the time that what happened was abuse but have now reconceptualized that experience as abuse upon later reflection; however, it is also possible that, for some, they continue to believe the experience was not abusive.

Table RM7. Percentage of endorsement for reasons not to report sexual misconduct to an official reporting source

	Percent Endorsing Reason
I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse	68.5%
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	48.4%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	39.4%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	25.3%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	22.8%
Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble	20.1%
Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.	19.0%
Wanted to forget it happened	19.0%
Ashamed/embarrassed	16.3%
Didn't want others to worry about me	16.3%
Didn't think others would think it was important	16.0%
Didn't think others would understand	12.8%
I thought nothing would be done	12.2%
I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems	10.6%
I thought I would be blamed for what happened	9.8%
Didn't know reporting procedure on campus	9.5%
Concerned others would find out	8.7%
Fear of retribution from the person who did it	8.7%
Didn't think the school would do anything about my report	8.7%
I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me	8.4%
Fear of not being believed	7.9%
Would feel like an admission of failure	7.6%
Thought people would try to tell me what to do	7.1%
Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)	1.9%

Nearly half of participants who reported experiencing sexual misconduct stated that they did not think what happened was serious enough to talk about it. Other relatively frequent reasons for not reporting included believing that it was a private matter to be dealt with on their own, wanting to focus on other tasks or obligations, not believing that others would take the experience seriously, and not wanting the alleged perpetrator to get in trouble.

Stalking

Of those who reported that they experienced stalking during the 2014–15 academic year, 29.5% reported their experience to a source that could, in an official capacity, help address the misconduct. Of those that did report their experience, the largest percentage chose to report their experience to a resident life coordinator or a student adviser (See Table RM8).

Table RM8. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced stalking who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Residence Life Coordinator	11.4%
Student Adviser	6.8%
Police	6.8%
Coach	2.3%
Ombuds Office	2.3%
Student Affairs	2.3%
Title IX Coordinator	2.3%
Faculty Member	0.0%

The top reasons victims of stalking did not report their experience(s) are presented in Table RM9. Unlike the pattern of endorsement when all reasons were collapsed across types of sexual misconduct, the most prominent reason victims of stalking did not report their experience was because they did not think what happened was serious enough to talk about. This reason was followed closely by the belief that what happened was not abuse and by the desire for the perpetrator to not get into trouble. Fear of retribution was endorsed at a substantially higher rate for victims of stalking than by victims of any other form of sexual misconduct.

Table RM9. Top 10 reasons (plus ties) and percentage of endorsement for reasons participants did not report stalking to an official reporting source

	% Endorsed
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	58.1%
I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse	48.8%
Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble	41.9%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	32.3%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	32.3%
Fear of retribution from the person who did it	25.8%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	22.6%
Didn't think others would think it was important	22.6%
I thought nothing would be done	22.6%
Ashamed/embarrassed	19.4%
Concerned others would find out	19.4%
Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.	19.4%
I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me	19.4%
Didn't want others to worry about me	19.4%
Wanted to forget it happened	19.4%
Didn't think the school would do anything about my report	19.4%

Intimate Partner Abuse

No significant difference emerged in rates of reporting across survey year. In 2013, 8.1% of participants who experienced intimate partner abuse reported the experience to a source who could, in an official capacity, help address the misconduct. In 2015, the rate was lower (7.8%), but not significantly so. The proportions of those who experienced intimate partner abuse who reported to official resources are provided in Table RM10. As observed there, student advisers and the Title IX coordinator received proportionally more reports than did other sources. However, reports were largely distributed evenly across resource options.

Table RM10. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced intimate partner abuse who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Student Adviser	3.4%
Title IX Coordinator	3.4%
Residence Life Coordinator	1.7%
Faculty Member	1.7%
Coach	1.7%
Student Affairs	1.7%
Police	1.7%
Ombuds Office	0.8%

The top reasons for not reporting IPA are presented in Table RM11. As observed there, three-quarters of participants who did not report indicated that the reason they did not report was because of the belief that what happened did not constitute abuse, either at the time of the abuse or currently. Those who experienced intimate partner abuse endorsed this option at a rate higher than those who experienced any other type of sexual misconduct. In addition, a substantial number reported that they did not report because of the belief that what happened was a private matter. Though endorsed less for victims of intimate partner abuse compared to other forms of misconduct, more than one-third did not report because they did not perceive it to be a serious enough issue to disclose.

Table RM11. Top 10 reasons and percentage of endorsement for reasons participants did not report intimate partner abuse to an official reporting source

	% Endorsed
I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse	75.7%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	41.1%
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	34.6%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	23.4%
Didn't want others to worry about me	22.4%
Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble	19.6%
Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.	19.6%
Wanted to forget it happened	18.7%
Ashamed/embarrassed	16.8%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	15.9%

Unwanted Sexual Communication

No significant difference emerged in rates of reporting across survey year. In 2013, 11.2% of participants who experienced unwanted sexual communication reported their experience to a source that could, in an official capacity, help address the misconduct. In 2015, the rate was lower (7.0%), but not significantly so. The rates of reporting to specific sources are provided in Table RM12. As observed there, the primary resource for reporting were student advisers. No reports were made to residence life coordinators, coaches, or the Ombuds Office, while few were made to Student Affairs, the Title IX coordinator, faculty members, and the police.

Table RM12. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced unwanted sexual communication who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Student Adviser	3.6%
Student Affairs	1.8%
Title IX Coordinator	1.8%
Faculty Member	0.9%
Police	0.9%
Residence Life Coordinator	0.0%
Coach	0.0%
Ombuds Office	0.0%

Reasons for not reporting unwanted sexual communication are provided in Table RM13. The pattern of endorsement for reasons not to report for unwanted sexual communication mirrored that of the overall reasons for not reporting both in order and in strength of endorsement.

Table RM13. Top 10 reasons and percentage of endorsement for reasons participants did not report unwanted sexual communication to an official reporting source

	Percent Endorsing Reason
I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse	60.8%
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	51.0%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	40.2%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	24.5%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	20.6%
Wanted to forget it happened	17.6%
Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.	17.6%
Didn't think others would think it was important	14.7%
Ashamed/embarrassed	12.7%
Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble	11.8%

Unwanted Sexual Touching

No significant difference emerged in rates of reporting across survey year. In 2013, 3.7% of participants who experienced unwanted sexual touching reported their experience to a source who could, in an official capacity, help address the misconduct. In 2015, the rate was higher (9.4%), but not significantly so.

Of those who reported their experience, highest number of reports went to the Title IX coordinator. Student advisers, faculty members, and members of Student Affairs received equivalent numbers of reports, while coaches, the Ombuds Office, and police did not receive any reports of unwanted sexual touching (See Table RM14).

Table RM14. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced unwanted sexual touching who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Title IX Coordinator	3.3%
Student Adviser	2.2%
Faculty Member	2.2%
Student Affairs	2.2%
Residence Life Coordinator	1.1%
Coach	0.0%
Ombuds Office	0.0%
Police	0.0%

Of those who chose not to report their experience to an official resource, over half did not consider (at the time or currently) that what happened was abuse or that what happened was serious enough to talk about (See Table RM15).

Table RM15. Top 10 reasons and percentage of endorsement for reasons participants did not report unwanted sexual touching to an official reporting source

	Percent Endorsing Reason
I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse	54.0%
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	52.9%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	32.2%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	31.0%
Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble	23.0%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	23.0%
Wanted to forget it happened	20.7%
Didn't think others would think it was important	18.4%
Ashamed/embarrassed	17.2%
Didn't want others to worry about me	17.2%

Attempted or Completed Sexual Assault

No significant difference emerged in rates of reporting across survey year. In 2013, 20.0% of participants who experienced unwanted sexual touching reported their experience to a source who could, in an official capacity, help address the misconduct. In 2015, the rate was higher (35.4%), but not significantly so.

Table RM16 presents the rates of reporting to various official sources. The most common reporting source was the Title IX coordinator, followed by student advisers and members of

Student Affairs. No victims of attempted or completed sexual assault reported their experiences to police or to coaches.

Several patterns emerged for reasons why victims of sexual assault did not report their experience to official sources, patterns that deviated from the patterns of endorsement observed with other forms of sexual misconduct. First, the vast majority recognized their experience as abuse, unlike victims of other forms of sexual misconduct. Second, shame, embarrassment, and wanting to deal with the matter privately were the primary reasons for not reporting (see Table RM17). Victims of sexual assault endorsed shame and embarrassment and a desire to handle the issue privately more than victims of any other type of misconduct. They also endorsed a fear others would find out about their experience, a fear of not being believed, and a fear of being blamed (25.0%) more often than other types of misconduct. Also more often than with other forms of misconduct, a substantial number reported that they did not believe others would think what happened was a serious issue. Though not reported in the table, more victims of sexual assault endorsed that they did not report because such a report would feel like an admission of failure (25.0%). Finally, sexual assault victims reported wanting to forget it happened at a much higher rate than victims of other types of sexual misconduct.

Table RM16. Official reporting sources and corresponding percentages of participants who experienced attempted or completed sexual assault who reported to those sources collapsed across survey administration

	Percent Reporting to Source
Title IX Coordinator	21.7%
Student Adviser	13.0%
Student Affairs	13.0%
Residence Life Coordinator	8.7%
Faculty Member	4.3%
Ombuds Office	4.3%
Coach	0.0%
Police	0.0%

Table RM17. Top 10 reasons and percentage of endorsement for reasons participants did not report attempted or completed sexual assault to an official reporting source

	Percent Endorsing Reason
Ashamed/embarrassed	56.3%
Is a private matter — wanted to deal with it on own	50.0%
Didn't think others would think it was serious	50.0%
Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about	43.8%
Wanted to forget it happened	43.8%
Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)	37.5%
Concerned others would find out	31.3%
Fear of not being believed	31.3%
Didn't think others would understand	31.3%
Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.	31.3%

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In general, survey participants expressed some skepticism that College officials would be responsive to the concerns of victims of sexual misconduct when incidents were reported. Participants also seemed less likely to endorse beliefs that the College would take appropriate corrective action in such matters. Participants also perceived that it was not particularly likely that that other students would make life difficult for victims. These beliefs were stable across participant subgroups.

When considering to whom to report incidents of sexual misconduct, campus advocates were endorsed by nearly 50% of all participants in 2015, representing a major increase in endorsement since 2013. Other confidential resources also were endorsed at a rate higher than nonconfidential sources. At the same time, Student Health and Counseling Services staff saw a major decrease in endorsement from 2013 to 2015 as a possible reporting source. This observed drop is likely due to instability in staffing and the perception over the past few years that appointments are difficult to obtain. Observed drops in willingness to report to Campus Safety and Security and residence life coordinators also were observed. Participants in 2015 endorsed a willingness to report to local police, clergy, and the Title IX coordinator at significantly higher rates than in 2013. Seeing the Title IX coordinator as a reporting option nearly doubled from 2013 to 2015. Possibly, this increase is due to publicity around Title IX issues since 2013.

Concerning actual reporting, the proportion of participants who experienced sexual misconduct and reported the experience to an official resource increased by 4% from 2013 to 2015 (9.5% to 13.6%). The rate of reporting attempted or completed sexual assault to College officials in 2015 (35.4%) was higher than several rates observed in national benchmarking studies. Adequate comparison studies for other types of sexual misconduct were not available. Despite the relatively higher reporting rate for sexual assault, the rates of reporting across sexual misconduct all other subtypes is still very low (13.6%), overall. With a rate this low, the vast majority of victims of sexual misconduct are not accessing and receiving services and resources that they are entitled to under federal regulations. Though non-reporters endorsed many reasons for not

seeking help from an official resource, the primary reasons centered on not believing that what happened constituted abuse or not thinking that what happened was serious enough to warrant assistance. Wanting to deal with the issue privately also was reported as a strong reason. These patterns were largely stable across sexual misconduct subtype, with the exception of attempted and completed sexual assault. For those individuals, shame, embarrassment, and fear of not being believed or even being blamed for their experience were endorsed at higher rates than victims of other types of misconduct, signaling the unique needs of these individuals when others respond to their reports.

CONDUCT PROCESS PERCEPTIONS

At the end of the survey, participants were asked how fair they perceived the conduct process to be. This question was followed by another that asked what changes could be made to the conduct process for overall improvements. For both questions, participants were given 4,000 characters to share their opinions. Multiple themes were identified in the responses and are explored in the following analyses.

FAIRNESS

Approximately half of participants (47.9%) to the survey answered the fairness question. Responses are illustrated in Table CPP1. There was a significant difference between 2013 and 2015 in the proportion of participants' ratings of fairness (χ^2 (3, N = 814) = 19.22, p < .05). Fewer participants in 2015 were unsure about the fairness of the process compared to 2013. This change corresponded to a proportional increase in participants indicating that process was somewhat fair, as well as unfair. The proportion of participants rating the process as fair remained stable across survey administrations.

Table CPP1. Rates of perceived fairness of the conduct process by survey year

	2013	2015
Fair	38.6%	36.4%
Somewhat Fair	8.3%	15.7%
Unfair	20.7%	26.4%
I Don't Know	32.4%	21.5%

Differences in perceptions of conduct process fairness among participants of differing academic years were not significant in either 2013 or 2015. However, there was a significant difference in these perceptions among participants of different ethnic/racial identities, χ^2 (6, N = 738) = 14.20, p < .05. While 50.0% of international student participants perceived the conduct process as fair, 38.5% of domestic white or Caucasian participants judged the process as fair. Domestic students of color, on the other hand were substantially less likely to believe the process was fair (27.3%).

Perceptions of fairness by gender are presented in Table CPP2. As observed there, significant differences in fairness perceptions emerged across gender identities, as well, χ^2 (6, N = 787) = 22.91, p < .05. While the majority of cisgender male participants largely believed the process was fair or somewhat fair, cisgender females and transgender or other-gender participants were more likely to perceive the process as unfair. In particular, 50% of transgender or other-gender participants rate the process as unfair. Also, though not presented in the table, cisgender female participants' perception of fairness changed from 2013 to 2015. In 2013, 21.9% of those participants rated the process as unfair, while in 2015 that number rose to 30.0%. The percentage of cisgender females stating the process was somewhat fair also rose from 9.0% in 2013 to 19.0% in 2015. Ratings of "fair" remained relatively stable.

Table CPP2. Rates of perceived fairness of the conduct process by gender and survey year

	Transgender/Other	Cisgender Female	Cisgender Male

Fair	11.5%	34.3%	43.1%
Somewhat Fair	7.7%	14.7%	11.5%
Unfair	50.0%	26.5%	18.8%
I Don't Know	30.8%	24.5%	26.6%

There also were significant differences in perceived fairness between participants of different sexual orientations, χ^2 (3, N = 772) = 13.05, $p < .05$ (see Table CPP3). Overall, 29.0% of non-heterosexual participants and 40.0% of heterosexual participants perceived the process as fair. Further, while the ratings of fairness remained largely stable for heterosexual-identifying participants from 2013 to 2015, there was less stability for non-heterosexual participants. Specifically, proportionally fewer rated the process as fair in 2015 than in 2013,

Table CPP3. Rates of perceived fairness of the conduct process by sexual orientation and survey year

	Non-Heterosexual		**Heterosexual**	
	2013	**2015**	**2013**	**2015**
Fair	37.3%	24.4%	39.8%	40.8%
Somewhat Fair	7.5%	19.3%	9.2%	14.5%
Unfair	23.9%	37.0%	18.4%	22.6%
I Don't Know	31.3%	19.3%	32.5%	22.1%

REASONS FOR RATINGS OF FAIRNESS

In order to determine why participants were reporting the conduct process to be fair or unfair, open-ended responses were analyzed qualitatively for prominent themes. From there, differences between participants who perceived the conduct process to be fair and those who perceived it as unfair were examined. Note that the authors did not correct grammar, spelling, or other typographical errors in the example responses provided below (except where noted in brackets).

Perpetrator Punishment

Some mention of the adequacy of perpetrator punishment occurred in 17.0% of responses. These types of responses were significantly more likely to occur when the participant judged the conduct process as unfair, χ^2 (1, N = 603) = 73.2, $p < .05$. While 8.6% of those mentioning perpetrator punishment in their comments stated that they believed that punishments were too harsh and an additional 1.2% believed punishments were adequate, the remainder stated perpetrator punishment was inadequate (e.g., "It doesn't seem like the college disciplines the offenders sufficiently" or "Institute greater punishments for alleged attackers who are found guilty."). Within that group, a sizable proportion (36.8%) reported that the default sanction should be expulsion from the school. For example, one participant stated, "The perpetrator of a sexual assault or rape should not be offered any second chances or support. The policy must be immediate expulsion." Another stated, "Remove people from campus permanently who are sexual misconduct offenders."

Greater Separation Needed

Inadequate separation of the alleged perpetrator and victim was mentioned as a reason for judging the process as unfair for 13.1% of survey participants. Inadequate separation was mentioned significantly more often for those dissatisfied with the process than those who judged the process as fair (6.6%), χ^2 (1, N = 605) = 7.11, $p < .05$. As an example, one participant had this to say about separation needed in all areas of student life, "Again, I am not well-versed enough in the minutia of this issue to say specifically, but I definitely feel that anyone who comes forward to report assault shouldn't ever have to encounter their assailant during the investigation or after. I know the school isn't in complete control of that, but I feel that housing and class schedules should be immediately amended to protect the survivor." Others were more specifically concerned about separation of victims and alleged perpetrators during conduct hearings. For example, "Do not conduct trials with the accused/accuser as those tend to cause more tension." Still others were concerned about the effect of enduring encounters with alleged perpetrators. For example, "The college does not do a good enough job separating attackers and victims which allow the attackers to continue life as normal while victims suffer socially, mentally, and academically which is obviously unfair." Similarly, another stated, "Provide a better support system for victims — do more to protect them from retaliation. Somehow, we need to make it easier for victims to approach authority figures and feel comfortable sharing what happened to them. They should not have to live in fear that the offender will assault/touch/harrass/stalk them again."

Inadequate Support for Victims

Nearly 21.4% of participants reported a need for more support for victims both during and after the process. While the majority of these same individuals mentioned better need for separation of victims and alleged perpetrators both during and after the conduct process, others saw a need for more general support with academics and mental health. For example, one stated, "Several of my friends have experienced sexual assault or violence within the context of their relationships, and the responsibility for the maintenance of their own safety and mental/emotional health seems to fall to them instead of the proper measures being taken to control the behavior of the individual who committed these acts against them. It is sad to me that at a college that places so much priority on equality and self-governance, that societal values, which prioritize the well-being of the perpetrator and minimize the experience of the victim, have still managed to infiltrate campus in a way that negatively effects victims." Another had this to say, "The system needs to support the students who need help/ have been harmed. The validity of any particular accusation is not as important as the health and well being of the victim (regardless of the accused is ever tried or convicted). This is not a priority right now, and it must be."

Inadequate Support for Those Accused

A smaller proportion (5.4%) provided answers indicating that support for the accused are inadequate. The majority of these participants reported that more needed to be done for both victims and those accused. For example, "provide both the accuser and the accused with the same respect and resources throughout the entire process." Another mentioned, "Ideally there would be protection for both the accuser and the accused." Still another stated, "I feel as though not enough is done to protect the respondent in situations. I've been in friend circles where there were real and false accusations. Whether or not they were real, the respondents continued to

suffer during their time at the college. However, whenever this type of talk is brought on, some students accuse of the respondent not being sensitive to the abuse." Finally, another participant more bluntly stated, "no protections for the accused."

Biases

Just over 15% of survey participants mentioned bias inherent in the reporting or conduct process. Of these, 50.7% reported there was some bias against victims. For example, some noted the extra burden on the victim (e.g., "I think that, similar to society, there is more pressure put upon the victim instead of the offender. Due to the extent the victim has to go through to make the report and make themselves feel comfortable while the offender walks around campus, it takes a toll. This needs to be respected, especially academically"). Some also described feeling like the process leads to feeling minimized or marginalized (e.g., "I think that it trys to maintain fairness but I have heard from a number of women who have come forward that they felt as though there experiences were minimized and that they were interrogated unfairly"). Still others noted that the bias stems from inadequate protections or inaction (e.g., "It does not provide enough protection and support for people bringing allegations, and they seem to be punished by the college's inactions, which should not be the case").

Several other participants contended that the process was biased against those who are accused of sexual misconduct, many of whom also noted bias against males and athletes. As an example, of perceptions of bias against those who are accused, one participant had this to say, "The accuser seemingly always wins the case and the accused always has to deal with the punishment given out to them. If it is a serious matter, they do no[t] collect all the facts and simply let the accused deal with the harsh outcome handed out to them." Another had this to say about bias against males who are accused, "Women are instantly believed and men have no allies on this campus. The accuser is always right and the offender is immediately deemed guilty without any evidence. Men on this campus should feel extremely scared to have sexual relations with women because there is no way to protect themselves from false accusations." Regarding bias against athletes, one added, "Students assume that, if you are on a sports team, you are a sex offender. I think this is an overly general approach to sexual assault/harassment and is not fair."

Perceived bias in the conduct process against other groups was also noted. For example, "I feel that the way that the college conducts processes are extremely inequitable, particularly in the ways that it deals with issues relating to class, disability, and mental illness." Another stated, "It is not fair because it does not judge people based on action but rather on their sex, race, sport, etc identity."

Several participants specifically describe the role of race and ethnicity as a source of bias influencing the conduct process. As one participant noted, "It depends on race, and whether it was a male abusing a female or vice versa." Another had this to say, "If a white woman accused a minority male of sexual misconduct she will win, regardless if she is telling the truth or not. The college's conduct policy is very unfair to athletes and minorities. I feel if I'm not white and giving the school a lot of money I am guilty until proven innocent in the college's eyes."

A few participants also commented on perceptions of sexism and heteronormativity influencing the conduct process. One participant commented, "Stop the systemic sexism inherent in the

college's carrying out of sexual misconduct policy." Another participant stated that because the process "upholds many social beliefs about the sexual interactions between men and women it is unfair. Title XIV [sic] is a powerful tool to protect women from men, but not women from women, men from men, or men from women. To that extent, Grinnell's policy is unfair."

Speed of Process

Approximately 3% of participants commented on the speed of the conduct process as being unfair, noting that it often took too long. One noted the need for a process that is "less drawn out, more comfort and support needs to be supplied to all parties." Some noted that the length of the process might have negative effects on complainants (e.g., "Eliminate the burden of bureaucratic processes for the person that has reported sexual misconduct. The amount of effort that a student often needs to put into making a complaint or leveling a charge often exceeds the amount of willpower that they possess. Moreover, the chance of any meaningful change or justice being achieved by going through the process is slim."). Still others worried the length of the process would deter future reporting (e.g., "A shorter process? Many are discouraged from pressing charge because of how long processes take").

Institutional Transparency

Finally, 6.5% of participants reported wanting more transparency about policies and procedures and the outcomes of conduct cases. The vast majority of these responses indicated a perception that the process contains a conflict of interest between the College's external image and its value for student safety, and these perceptions have led to skepticism in the validity of the process. For example, "Actual transparency would be lovely and it'd be even better if the college actually followed it's own policies instead of picking and choosing when to follow the rules." Another stated, "It seems as though the college is concerned with efficiency and reputation more than supporting victim/survivors."

Many of these same participants suggested an increased need for transparency in several areas. For example, "Make the procedures for reporting, investigating, and addressing/correcting way, way more transparent (we should all know what to do if it happens to us, what to do if we commit or are accused of sexual misconduct, and what the consequences we should expect for a confirmed case, on the part of the college's actions, are). I think this will help to figure out whether student dissatisfaction with the college's handling is due to the actual process on a case by case basis (the mis-execution of procedure), or whether student dissatisfaction is due to the college's idea of an appropriate procedure for handling sexual misconduct cases." Many reported also wanting a better understanding of the types of outcomes that accompany specific types of misconduct, "Have clearer consequences for those who are found responsible for "sexual misconduct" (aka sexual assault) and have that information be published. If someone does [x], they should NOT think they can get away with it, as I would think I could get away with it were I to commit sexual misconduct. Have suspension (until the survivor is graduated) and expulsion be among those designated outcomes." A few reported wanting to know the outcomes of misconduct proceedings. For example, "Publish a list of outcomes of all sexual misconduct cases (not with names, of course, but with what the person was charged with and what the disciplinary outcome was, if anything) in a report that is exclusively reporting on that, have it come out every semester and be sent to the entire campus community"

EXPERIENCES OF VICTIMS

Additional analyses were conducted on the responses of the 16 individuals who stated they reported a sexual assault to campus officials. Of those participants, four stated that the process was fair, three indicated that it was somewhat fair, seven described the process as unfair, and two provided responses that did not comment on the process fairness.

One victim who reported the experience as fair had this to say, "I think the college does a very good job of providing resources and making sure the student knows their options. As a survivor, I felt completely supported, my privacy was respected, and I wasn't forced to name the person who assaulted me or do anything that made me uncomfortable. I feel they are trying to be as fair as they can in a place this small, even though for some students it might not feel like it." Another added, "People who are accused of sexual misconduct get believed the same as people who are accusing them."

Those who stated that the process was somewhat fair provided little context for their assessment. However, those who reported that process as unfair provided more explanation. Here are three of their comments. First, "Not at all, the process is flawed and the outcomes are horrendous. It destroys students when they are most vulnerable and leaves the student body at the mercy of criminals. The system is broken and already marginalized and suffering students pay the price." Second, "My experience with the college conduct process did not feel particularly 'fair.' I was misled about the nature of the steps I was prompted to take (I was nudged towards an informal resolution, despite my lack of desire for any resolution, and was not at any point informed that informal resolution apparently rules out the possibility of subsequent formal resolution). I was told that, until an accused assaulter is found responsible, an assaulter who lives with a victim cannot be compelled to leave their housing, even temporarily. I suppose the part of the process that most reflected 'fairness' was my informal resolution, when both my assaulter and I were ordered to undergo alcohol training because neither of us could be found more responsible than the other for my sexual assault. I guess that's 'fair' in the sense that we both received equal punishment for her raping me." Third, "Fair in the sense of innocent until proven guilty, but unfair in the sense that it seems that [investigators] don't believe your case if you have no proof, and it's hard to have proof if there was no explicit marks (bruises, cuts) and no one was around. Victims don't lie. Remember that."

A third of these victims stated that they thought harsher punishments were needed for the perpetrator of their assault. The other two-thirds did not mention their perpetrator's punishment in their qualitative response. One quarter called for additional support, such as better enforcement of contact orders. One participant stated these sentiments this way, "1. Stronger outcomes for students found responsible for sexual misconduct, especially nonconsensual intercourse. 2. Better resources in place for survivors, including better academic accommodations, access to a professional advocate, and access to adequate trauma-informed mental health care. With better resources, survivors are better able to explain their stories and to stay on campus during the conduct process. 3. Eliminate the need for student survivors to give their statements to security. Significant student experience over multiple years shows that many security officers are completely unequipped to take these statements professionally and responsibly. Reporting to security should be an option, not a requirement. 4. Hire outside

investigators for all sexual misconduct cases. The investigator(s) hired should be qualified, and the student body should have input into the hiring decisions."

One participant requested additional transparency. That person stated, "It'd be even better if the college actually followed it's own policies instead of picking and choosing when to follow the rules."

PARTICIPANT PROPOSED SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Victim Support

Approximately one-quarter of participants made suggestions for increased support for victims before, during, or after the conduct process, as well as in the event that a victim chooses not to engage in that process. The recommendations about support were somewhat general and nonspecific as to actionable recommendations. For example: "Support victim-survivors more, especially in sexual misconduct trials." "Seriously commit to protecting victims, making them feel comfortable." "The college needs to ensure that those who have experienced sexual misconduct can be completely comfortable and feel safe in completing their course work at Grinnell." or "Give victims/survivors ACTUAL academic and mental health support not just a useless no-contact order." At the same time, these comments conveyed a more pervasive sentiment expressed across this section of the survey, that there is a perception that victims or survivors do not receive adequate support.

Some offered more specific suggestions about needed victim resources. A few described wanting more specific trauma-related mental health services available on campus. For example, one participant described it this way, "Or a counselor that specializes in dealing with sexual trauma. I was molested as a child and all the talk of sexual assault on campus raised a lot of questions for me. I found one counselor at SHACS that was helpful, but she left. I also have a friend that filed a no contact order against another student, and I think it would be helpful for her to talk about things she can do for self healing." Others commented, "Providing adequate mental health care is the first priority." Another participant recommended employing a sexual assault nurse examiner at Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS).

As mentioned previously, consistent enforcement of separation between victims and perpetrators through contact orders and other mechanisms seemed a common request. "Currently, the no contact order is a piece of paper and nothing more. I know students who have been left in classes with the person who assaulted them. When they complained, they were told to drop the class. This is backwards from what should happen. If someone is found actionable, they should be forced to drop the class if they are in the same class as the complainant. In short, the college needs to handle the post-verdict process better."

A few of participants mentioned restorative justice, specifically. However, in the spirit of that approach, one participant recognized the need for this approach to be granted only when desired by the victim, "The college might consider offering restorative justice with a well-trained facilitator, though only with the informed consent of the survivor."

Finally, a strong theme was repeated across several responses regarding the listening to and hearing of the experiences and wishes of victims. “I would say, listen to the victim's wishes with regards to privacy, and help make their living environment as good as it can.”

Support for Those Accused

Just over 5% of participants mentioned the need for more support for or attention to the experiences of those accused of sexual misconduct. As with support for victims, many of these comments were nospecific regarding their suggestions and acknowledged a need for better support for both the victim and the person accused (e.g., “I think more should be done to support both parties, both the alleged and the accused”).

Others more specifically recommended concerns about the due-process rights and the need for adjudicators to carefully consider the version of events by the accused. For example, “I would recommend that the college takes into account all sides of the story and not make any assumptions about the case.” Others recommended keeping in place procedural protections to avoid or detect false accusations or claims. For example, “I would urge the college to show some caution in removing all rights for the accused. While the trend across the nation and for most of history has favored the defendant, and made light of the serious crime of sexual assault, totally removing rights for the defendant can be dangerous in the case of rare, but existent, false accusations, and is counter to the interest of receiving a just outcome for both parties. I think this is currently the case, but there seems to be some movement away from it.” Another stated, “I would listen to both parties of each sexual assault case to see if consent was fully given, not just falsely accuse men who are convicted.”

Yet others described situations of harassment by others and the need to protect the accused from such situations. For example, “Make online harassment of the accused punishable as well. This college frequently witch hunts innocent people on social media/in person after someone regrets a mutually consenting hookup. Additionally, males are seen as untrustworthy and have their opinions discriminated against by the culture as a whole, allowing for false rumors about men/ex-boyfriends to spread.”

Dialogue and Education

Nearly one in five participants (18.4%) who answered these questions recommended a strong need for education in several areas related to the conduct process. Several of these participants called for a constructive dialogue on campus about the nature of sexual misconduct, more generally, and the need for students to participate broadly in driving those dialogues. One participant stated, “We need a campus-wide discussion in which students actually participate. From the few discussions I've had, there are a variety of opinions among even a small group of people, and without agreement upon what sexual misconduct means, the issues cannot be addressed.” Another added, “I think that involving the students and reaching out to the general student body to make them involved in changes made to this process is also very important.” Others contended that College officials need to better attend to the suggestions that come out of these dialogues. For example, “Continue to be involved with and attentive of student discourse on the subject. One of the reasons our misconduct and reporting policies are effective is because Grinnellians constantly critique them and call for their improvement.”

A sizable number of participants reported more education was needed about what happens from when a victim files a report to the end of the conduct process, as well as how specific sexual misconduct acts lead to specific outcomes. Many expressed uncertainty about multiple elements of that process. One had this to say, “I think Grinnell's conduct process policies are well thought-out and are backed by only the best of intentions; however, the conduct process is not well understood by the campus at large, and myths prevail. More people would likely report issues if the conduct process was better understood on a larger scale. As it stands, many people fear the invasion of privacy and don’t realize that — in cases of sexual misconduct — sensitive knowledge is sequestered and delivered only on a need-to-know basis.” Another added, “Make the procedures for reporting, investigating, and addressing/correcting way, way more transparent (we should all know what to do if it happens to us, what to do if we commit or are accused of sexual misconduct, and what the consequences we should expect for a confirmed case, on the part of the college’s actions, are).” Regarding outcomes, one had this to say, “It needs to be clear to all students what exactly the process looks like and what potential outcomes would be for certain offenses. The range of outcome for different offenses right now is too broad and vague to suggest to students in need of support that their attacker would actually be punished in some way.”

Others participants noted that they were unclear about their legal rights. For example, one participant stated, “Students should go to the police with their cases and the school could provide more clear resources and services as well as educate students on their rights.” Another stated, “Fully inform the student accused of their rights and consequences.”

Several participants mentioned that more education was needed about reporting options (e.g., “Maybe a bit more education on who one should go to regarding sexual misconduct.”). Another added, “students should be aware of resources (Deanna Shorb or other chaplains) who can help students write their reports.”

Some reported confusion over definitions used throughout the process. For example, “It would be better if information, in simple clear terms, was given to students about the process and whether the process will be anonymous.” Some were confused by the specific term “sexual misconduct” (e.g., “I'm not sure that the college does an adequate job of defining 'sexual misconduct'. I feel that there are too many misconceptions and an overall lack of understanding regarding the entire scope of the topic.”). Some suggested that education about definitions needs to occur using alternative methods (e.g., “I also think it is important for people to realize that not everybody has the same understanding of sexual misconduct. Though we may agree with the definition, it gets tricky when trying to apply it to real world situations, actions, and behaviors … I am of the opinion that it takes more than just a couple of posters and an NSO session to get people on the same page.”).

The most common suggestion about where to deliver this education was New Student Orientation. However, many were skeptical of limiting education to that singular event. For example, “Talk about it more than just at NSO. It shouldn’t just be a funny skit. Do people actually take those seriously??? I don't think so.” Some suggested adding topics related to sexual misconduct to the tutorial class (e.g., “Prolonged (every year) and mandatory anti-violence, anti-

sexism, anti-racism, etc. training for all students. Honestly, just switch out tutorial, or make it an integrated part of tutorial, and then offer something comparable that students can take for credit each year."). Others offered that educational efforts need to be ongoing beyond the first year on campus (e.g., "Have regular, mandatory sessions about what consent is and why it is essential … for example, one every year for all students to attend — like during NSO but every year.").

Policy and Procedure Reform

A large number of participants made suggestions regarding reforms to current policy. Themes included, more generally, suggestions about the need for increased confidentiality of the process, more adequate investigations, and improved speed of the entire process. Regarding confidentiality, there appeared to be the perception that the confidentiality of proceedings and the identities of those involved as complainant and respondent were not well protected. Consequently, many suggested increased protections to avoid stigmatization. For example, one participant stated, "Ensure that all proceedings are completely private so someone who is accused and found innocent doesn't have a stigma attached to them." In addition to protecting against stigmatization, others worried about retaliation: "Protect the identity of the victims to prevent retaliation."

Many others provided suggestions to improve investigations and the conduct process. For some, they wanted investigations handled by the criminal justice system, believing that College officials are not capable of making such serious determinations. For example, "Forward serious criminal cases to the police IMMEDIATELY. The college should NOT have its own process, especially for sexual assault." Another stated, "Make it legal! If these are real assaults, where are the police? Sorry for the stress everybody, but a real assaulter should be dealt with by the police. Otherwise it is unfair to claimed victim and assaulter. Also where are the enforced counseling, discussions, conversations, etc.? There is no dialogue. The trials are ill-planned and done by the seat of people's pants." Still another stated, "Remove it, and send it to the courts. Either a high bar is set, leading to respondents always winning, or the bar is set too low and the complainant will always win. The college should not be trying to handle sexual assault cases and punishments, they can provide counseling for those involved, but sexual assault cases should be sent to the U.S. legal system."

Still others wanted the College to use external resources when investigating or adjudicating sexual misconduct. For example, "Sending cases to an outside reviewer would help mitigate some of the issues related to sexual misconduct charges being handled on campus." Noting that professors and students are no longer involved in the process, another mentioned, "Needs to be run by trained, third-party individuals, not some students and professors." Some were cautiously optimistic about recent changes of using retired judges as adjudicators. For example, "I think using outside sources more would be more helpful to minimize the impact of the Grinnell Bubble. Whether or not we like it, these cases are going to be susceptible to bias, and the new utilization of an adjudicator is a positive step in the right direction." Another mentioned, "I think the steps being taken, the hiring of the former judge to oversee these cases, is a good first step."

A few additionally mentioned that Campus Safety and Security needs better training when dealing with victims. Some perceived a lack of sensitivity on the part of security officers (e.g., "Get actual sensitivity training for security officers."). Others believed greater training should be

provided with specific investigation techniques. For example, “They are fully unprepared for such investigations and incompetent when it comes to such issues.”

Finally, several participants advocated for a shorter process. For example, “Having it move faster. It shouldn’t take over a semester for a victim/survivor’s case to be completed with the school.” Another stated, “The process should be streamlined so it is extremely easy to go through the process, with the least attention and harm to the person going through it.”

Perpetrator Punishment

A large number of participants (17.6%) called for more stringent and consistent punishment for perpetrators of sexual misconduct. Of these, 40.8% specifically called for suspension or expulsion of respondents found responsible for sexual misconduct. For example, “When an individual is found to have committed a form of sexual misconduct the school should take a stronger, zero-tolerance policy. Rapists should not be allowed to return to campus.” Another stated, “I think offending students guilty of sexual misconduct should be expelled if they are found guilty.” Similarly, “Please just expel rapists. It’s really that simple. … That needs to be the blanket policy.”

Others wanted stronger punishments but recognized that there are a variety of types of sexual misconduct and that the strength of the punishment should match the level of the offense. For example, “A person should be presumed innocent of sexual misconduct unless proven conclusively guilty. Also if someone is convicted of sexual assault, that person should be kicked of[f] campus. If its a minor offense a restraining order. Also not allow that person to enroll in the same classes as the victim.” Another mentioned, “Sufficiently punish people who commit sexual misconduct. In some cases, expulsion from the school is an appropriate and just punishment for perpetrators. It is the college’s responsibility to remove dangerous individuals from campus when necessary.”

Institutional Transparency and Leadership

Two themes emerged regarding the institution. First, several participants (3.6%) believed that the College needed to be more transparent with the process (also described above) and outcomes of conduct cases. For example, “The process should be more transparent. Students have a right to know what's happening on their campus, especially if they are at risk.” This quote was provided previously, but it conveys the sentiments of several other participants who commented on this topic, “Publish a list of outcomes of all sexual misconduct cases (not with names, of course, but with what the person was charged with and what the disciplinary outcome was, if anything) in a report that is exclusively reporting on that, have it come out every semester and be sent to the entire campus community. Have clearer consequences for those who are found responsible for “sexual misconduct” (aka sexual assault) and have that information be published. If someone does [x], they should NOT think they can get away with it, as I would think I could get away with it were I to commit sexual misconduct. Have suspension (until the survivor is graduated) and expulsion be among those designated outcomes.”

A small number perceived conflicts of interest by some members of campus leadership. Those participants specifically questioned whether or not the Title IX coordinator could be an unbiased

source while also serving the College in other ways. For example, "Have a title IX coordinator who isn't so closely tied to the image and standing of the college." Another stated, "An autonomous Title IX Coordinator who places the interests of survivors before those of the College's branding is necessary." Others observed that multiple roles might lead to becoming overstretched. For example, "Get a better Title IX coordinator whose SOLE job is dealing with Title IX issues rather than being head of so many departments and actually have the administration take more aggressive actions when it comes to dealing with perpetrators of sexual assault."

Social and Cultural Forces

Though not specifically related to the reporting and conduct process, about 9% of participants used this section to reflect on social and cultural factors that influence how sexual misconduct happens at Grinnell College. Some expressed a sense of hopelessness while recognizing sexual misconduct is influenced by larger social forces. For example, "Really, I think stopping sexual assault though will come from changes in the culture, changes in the judiciary process won't deter offenders." Another stated, "There are some institutional/structural issues beyond the scope of Grinnell College that make this sexual misconduct process unfair." Some made specific references to rape culture (e.g., "Stop supporting rape culture" or "Try and facilitate less of a rape culture").

Others describe elements of the campus culture that contribute to the problem. Some of these participants specifically noted the party culture. For example, "It's about a cultural change. In the party scene, somehow there's a mindset that certain behaviors are more acceptable." Others described the added role of alcohol. For example, "I think limiting the amount of drink most of the students can get at parties would probably help the most." Another added, "Honestly, people just need to change their attitude about sexual misconduct. This is a major problem on our campus and the root of it is alcohol and drug use. Students need to make smarter decisions and really self-gov the amount they drink." The failings of self-governance also was noted by others. For example, "While the process of self-government must be respected, problems of sexual misconduct require more institutional support and these actions need to have serious repercussions if they are to be stopped." Finally, one participant commented, "It is the students and members of this, or any, community that need to learn to respect each other."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Approximately half of survey respondents reported that they perceived the conduct process to be fair or somewhat fair, and that perception seems to have increased slightly from 2013 to 2015. Further, proportionally more participants in 2015 had an opinion about the fairness of the process than what was observed in 2013. However, perceptions of fairness were not stable across participant subgroups. For example, transgender or other gender participants were much more likely to rate the process as unfair than cisgender females, who were more likely to see the process as unfair than cisgender males.

Additional analyses were conducted on the responses of the 16 individuals who stated they reported a sexual assault to campus officials. Of those participants, four stated that the process

was fair, three indicated that it was somewhat fair, seven described the process as unfair, and two provided responses that did not comment on the process fairness.

Multiple reasons were offered to support participants' ratings of fairness. Sizable numbers based their ratings on their perception that punishments provided to those found responsible of sexual misconduct are inadequate. Others based their ratings on perceptions of the inadequacy of procedures meant to separate victims from alleged perpetrators, inadequate support provided to victims throughout and after the conduct process, and biases against people from various subpopulations on campus that some perceived to be inherent to the conduct system. Fewer contended that there were inadequate supports for those accused of misconduct, that the process was too slow, and that the institution needed greater transparency in several areas. Many of these themes were echoed by victims who had actually experienced the conduct process as a complainant.

Participants offered many suggestions for improving the process. These suggestions included enhanced supports for victims and the accused, ideas for dialogue and education, specific policy and procedure reforms, increased and consistent punishment for perpetrators of misconduct, and increased transparency and leadership by administers. Several other participants also used that section of the survey to describe problematic social and cultural forces both more globally and more locally that affect how sexual misconduct occurs.

Finally, every attempt was made to include comments that reflected themes that reoccurred across the responses. These comments and suggestions are a reflection of different participant experiences and may or may not be reflective of what the researchers believe. Some comments also included perceptions that might not be entirely accurate, and there are several instances described above where perceptions conflict. However, each comment is provided because it reflects common themes among participants' personal experiences or the experiences of others they know. Additionally, some suggestions for improvement may or may not be practical or feasible, though each area represents an area for increased dialogue and investigation for possible change.

PERCEPTIONS OF MISCONDUCT AS A PROBLEM

All survey participants were shown the definition for five types of sexual misconduct (stalking was only inquired about in 2015)) and were asked about their perception of each type as a major problem on the Grinnell College campus. Figure PMP1 displays the rate of responses for each type of misconduct across survey year. As observed there, no significant differences emerged in the proportion of participants identifying intimate partner abuse, unwanted sexual communication, and unwanted sexual touching as a major problem across survey administrations. However, significantly more participants identified sexual assault as a major problem at Grinnell College in 2015 than in 2013.

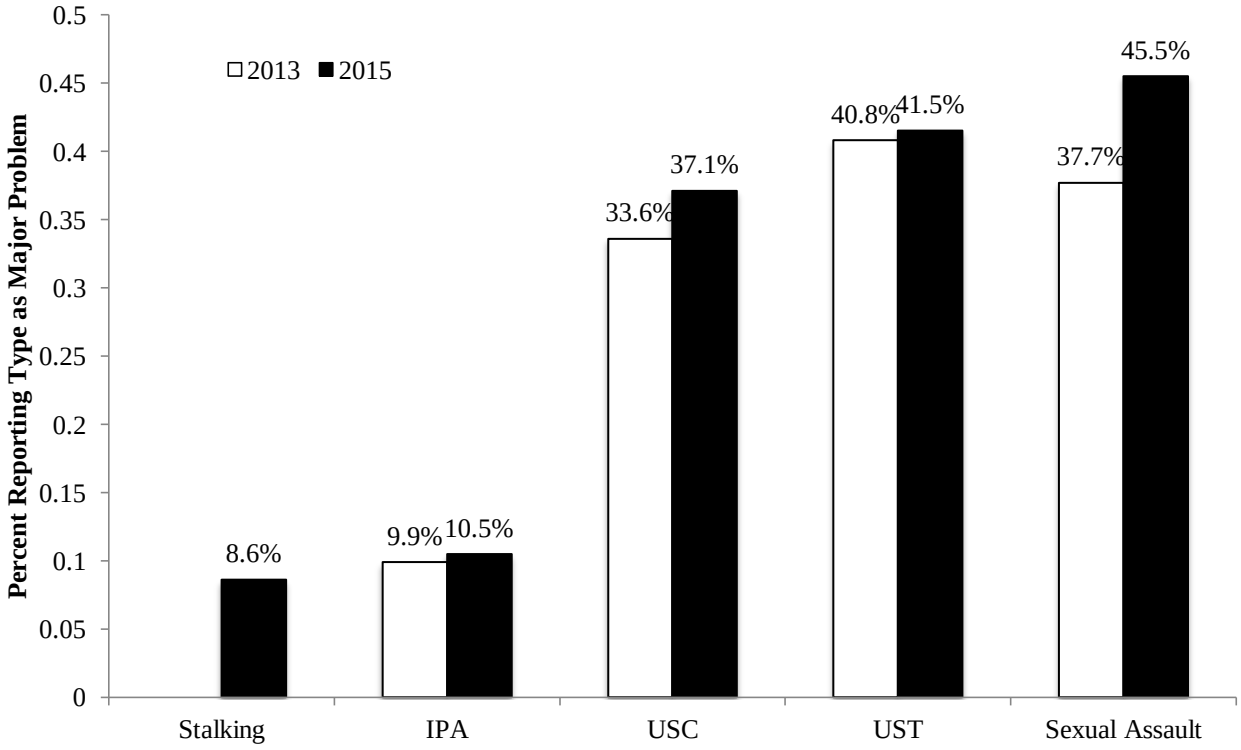

Figure PMP1. Percentage of participants reporting each type of sexual misconduct as a major problem by survey administration. IPA = Intimate Partner Abuse, USC = Unwanted Sexual Communication, UST = Unwanted Sexual Touching. Perceptions of stalking were only surveyed in 2015.

Perceptions of Stalking as a Major Problem

Perceptions that stalking is a major problem at Grinnell College in 2015 were stable across participants of different academic years, gender identities, and racial/ethnic backgrounds. However, non-heterosexual participants reported stalking as a major problem (14.2%) at a rate significantly greater than heterosexual participants (6.6%; χ^2 (1, N = 824) = 11.82, $p < .05$). Further, being the victim of stalking was associated with an increased perception that it is a major problem (15.5% vs. 8.1%; χ^2 (1, N = 909) = 3.80, $p = .05$).

Active bystander behavior and rape myth attitudes will be described in subsequent chapters. Briefly here, however, participants were asked about their engagement in and observation of others' engagement in many examples of active bystander behaviors, as well as their personal endorsement of several rape myth attitudes. For active bystander behavior, scores were calculated for categories of behavior. The first category included questions about behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help"). The remaining categories were; party safety (e.g., "Talked with friends about watching each other's drinks"), helping friends in distress (e.g., "Ask a friend who seems upset if they are okay or need help"), and confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes"). Category scores were calculated both for behaviors engaged in by the participant and for behaviors the participant observed in others. For rape myth attitudes, scores were created for endorsement of beliefs falling into one of five factors. The first factor — False Reporting — represented the belief that most reports of rape are false and due to revenge or regret after consensual sex. That factor included eight items. The second factor — Not Rape Unless Violent — represented the belief that in the absence of overt force, violence, injury, or forceful resistance, nonconsensual sex cannot be considered rape. That factor included four items. The third factor — Not Intentional/Overactive Sex Drive — represented the belief that perpetrators of rape could not be held accountable because the sexual behavior was often unintentional, because the perpetrator is intoxicated, gets carried away, or has an overactive sex drive. That factor contained four items. The fourth factor — Victim Blame — represented the belief that victims' behaviors were ultimately responsible for subsequent rapes. That factor included four items. The fifth factor — Intoxicated Sex Is Not Rape — represented the belief that intoxication is a legitimate excuse for rape.

Scores on the subscales representing personally engaged active bystander behaviors, observed active bystander behaviors, rape myth attitudes, and whether or not participants received active bystander training were entered into a logistic regression model predicting perception of stalking as a major problem on campus. Out of those variables, only the variable representing personal engagement in behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help") was positively and significantly related to perceptions of stalking as a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 13.02, Odds Ratio = 30.39). No other engaged or observed active bystander behavior variable, active bystander training, or rape myth attitude variable significantly predicted perception of stalking as a problem.

Perceptions of Intimate Partner Abuse as a Major Problem

In 2015, there were significant differences across academic years for those who viewed intimate partner abuse (IPA) as a major problem at Grinnell College (χ^2 (3, N = 832) = 18.12, $p < .05$). Second-year participants reported IPA as a major problem at a rate of 16.5%, while fourth- and fifth-year participants responded at a rate of 10.4%. First- and third-year students believed IPA is a major problem at the lowest rates (6.8% and 5.1%, respectively). Non-heterosexual participants reported IPA is a major problem (14.7%) at a rate significantly greater than heterosexual participants (8.3%; χ^2 (1, N = 822) = 7.31, $p < .05$). No significant differences in rates were observed across gender and racial/ethnic categories. Finally, while participants who had

experienced IPA reported that type of misconduct as a major problem at the same rate as those who had not experienced IPA, victims of sexual misconduct, more generally, reported IPA as a major problem significantly more often (13.6%) than those who had no experiences with sexual misconduct (8.8%; χ^2 (1, N = 907) = 4.96, $p < .05$).

As with stalking, scores on the subscales representing personally engaged active bystander behaviors, observed active bystander behaviors, rape myth attitudes, and whether or not participants received active bystander training were entered into a logistic regression model predicting perception of IPA as a major problem on campus. Like that previous analysis, only the variable representing personal engagement in behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help") was positively and significantly related to perceptions of IPA as a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 13.44, Odds Ratio = 23.58). No other engaged or observed active bystander behavior variable, active bystander training, or rape myth attitude variable significantly predicted perception of IPA as a problem.

Perceptions of Unwanted Sexual Communication as a Major Problem

Similar to the pattern observed for IPA, second- (42.9%) and fourth- and fifth-year students (39.0%) reported unwanted sexual communication (USC) as a major problem at rates higher than first- (30.4%) and third-year students (33.7%; χ^2 (3, N = 835) = 8.40, $p < .05$). Female-identifying participants reported USC as a major problem (42.1%) at a significantly higher rate than male-identifying participants (28.5%; χ^2 (1, N = 822) = 15.68, $p < .05$), and non-heterosexual participants also reported USC as a major problem (45.7%) significantly more often than heterosexual participants (33.5%; χ^2 (1, N = 825) = 10.24, $p < .05$). No effect was observed for racial/ethnic background. Finally, having experienced USC was associated with twice the rate of endorsing USC as a major problem, when compared to participants who had no such experience (59.5% vs. 29.2%; χ^2 (1, N = 907) = 68.04, $p < .05$). A similar identical pattern was observed for participants who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct more generally (46.7% vs. 31.9%; χ^2 (1, N = 909) = 19.56, $p < .05$).

Using personally engaged active bystander behaviors, observed active bystander behaviors, rape myth attitudes, and whether or not participants received active bystander training to predict perception of USC as a major problem on campus resulted in two significant predictors. The first was observing others engage in behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help") (Wald χ^2 (1) = 5.05, Odds Ratio = 2.57). The other predictive variable was personal engagement in confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes"), which was positively and significantly related to perceptions that USC is a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 5.90, Odds Ratio = 1.73). No other engaged or observed active bystander behavior variable, active bystander training, or rape myth attitude variable significantly predicted perception of USC as a problem.

Perceptions of Unwanted Sexual Touching as a Major Problem

Significant differences in the perception that unwanted sexual touching (UST) is a major problem at Grinnell College in 2015 emerged for academic year, gender identity, sexual

orientation, personal experience with UST, and personal experience with sexual misconduct more generally. No effect was observed for racial/ethnic background in the identification of UST as a major problem. As with IPA and USC, second- (45.2%) and fourth- and fifth-year students (46.7%) reported UST as a major problem at rates higher than first- (32.7%) and third-year students (39.6%; χ^2 (3, N = 834) = 10.47, $p < .05$). Female-identifying participants reported UST as a major problem (49.6%) at a rate greater than male-identifying participants (28%; χ^2 (1, N = 821) = 37.85, $p < .05$), and non-heterosexual participants had a higher rate (47.5%) than heterosexual participants (39.2%; χ^2 (1, N = 824) = 4.58, $p < .05$). Experiencing UST was associated with a 67.3% rate of believing it is a major problem, which was significantly higher than the rate associated with those who had not experienced UST (33.5%; χ^2 (1, N = 904) = 77.56, $p < .05$). A similar difference in perception that UST is a major problem existed between those who had any experience of sexual misconduct (53.5%) versus those who had no such experience (35.0%; χ^2 (1, N = 906) = 28.86, $p < .05$).

The perception that UST is a major problem at Grinnell College was regressed on subscale scores representing personally engaged active bystander behaviors, observed active bystander behaviors, rape myth attitudes, and whether or not participants received active bystander training. Three significant predictors emerged. Like with previous analysis, the variable representing personal engagement in behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help") was positively and significantly related to perceptions of UST as a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 7.20, Odds Ratio = 4.90). As well, engagement in confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes") also was positively and significantly associated with the belief that UST is a major problem (Wald χ^2 (1) = 6.03, Odds Ratio = 1.73). Finally, endorsement of victim blame-type rape myth attitudes (e.g., victims' behaviors were ultimately responsible for subsequent rapes) was negatively and significantly associated with the belief that UST is a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 5.17, Odds Ratio = 0.62). No other engaged or observed active bystander behavior variable, active bystander training, or rape myth attitude variable significantly predicted perception of UST as a problem.

Perceptions of Sexual Assault as a Major Problem

Significant differences in the perception that sexual assault (SA) is a major problem at Grinnell College in 2015 emerged for academic year, gender identity, sexual orientation, personal experience with SA, and personal experience with sexual misconduct more generally. No effect was observed for racial/ethnic background in the identification of SA as a major problem. Nearly half of second- (50.5%), third- (48.7%) and fourth- and fifth-year (46.2%) students reported SA as a major problem. First-year students reported SA as a major problem at a rate less than older students (35.9%; χ^2 (3, N = 833) = 10.67, $p < .05$). Female-identifying participants reported SA as a major problem (49.9%) at a rate greater than male-identifying participants (36.6%; χ^2 (1, N = 820) = 14.07, $p < .05$), and non-heterosexual participants had a higher rate (62.4%) than heterosexual participants (39.3%; χ^2 (1, N = 823) = 34.33, $p < .05$). Experiencing SA was associated with a 77.5% rate of believing it is a major problem, which was significantly higher than the rate associated with those who had not experienced SA (42.8%; χ^2 (1, N = 906) = 31.80, $p < .05$). Finally, the perception that SA is a major problem was significantly greater for those

who had any experience of sexual misconduct (50.3%) compared those who had no such experience (42.9%; χ^2 (1, N = 907) = 4.51, $p < .05$).

After regressing the perception that SA is a major problem at Grinnell College on active bystander training and subscales and rape myth attitude subscales, four significant predictors emerged. Similar to the prediction of UST, the variable representing personal engagement in behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help") positively and significantly predicted perception of UST as a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 4.06, Odds Ratio = 3.25), as was engagement in confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes") (Wald χ^2 (1) = 11.03, Odds Ratio = 2.07). As well, endorsement of victim blame-type rape myth attitudes (e.g., victims' behaviors were ultimately responsible for subsequent rapes) was negatively and significantly associated with the belief that SA is a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 5.08, Odds Ratio = 0.63). Finally, the rape myth attitude scores associated with the belief that most reports of rape are false and due to revenge or regret after consensual sex negatively predicted the perception that SA is a major problem at Grinnell College (Wald χ^2 (1) = 4.46, Odds Ratio = 0.71). No other engaged or observed active bystander behavior variable, active bystander training, or rape myth attitude variable significantly predicted perception of SA as a problem.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Perceptions that various forms of sexual misconduct are a major problem at Grinnell College varied considerably depending upon the type of misconduct. At the low end, relatively few survey participants reported stalking or intimate partner abuse as a major problem. Comparatively, between a third and a half of participants reported that unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and sexual assault are major problems at Grinnell College. These perceptions have remained relatively stable across time for all forms of sexual misconduct, except sexual assault. For that type, the proportion of participants who indicated it as a major problem increased from 37.7% in 2013 to 45.5% in 2015.

Predictors of who is most likely to view each form of sexual misconduct as a major problem were relatively stable across misconduct types. Generally, academic second- and fourth- of fifth-year, female-identifying, and non-heterosexual participants rated all forms of sexual misconduct as more of a problem than their counterparts. Additionally, the biggest predictor of perception of the problem for each type was any previous experience with that type of misconduct. Finally, it appeared that engagement in active bystander behaviors that directly address sexual misconduct was a predictor of problem perception for all types of misconduct. Presumably, stepping in to prevent or stop misconduct heightens personal awareness of such events on campus.

ACTIVE BYSTANDER BEHAVIOR

In both administrations of the survey, participants completed Banyard, Moynihan, and Plante's (2007) *Bystander Behaviors Scale*. That scale was modified slightly to make the questions less heteronormative and gender-specific and to allow for an assessment of whether or not participants engaged in different behaviors over the previous two months. An additional section was added to the 2015 survey to measure active bystander behavior participants observed others performing.

Active bystander behaviors measured in this survey were grouped into four categories that served as a guide for analysis. The first category included questions about behaviors intended to deal directly with sexual violence and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help"). The remaining categories included party safety (e.g., "Talked with friends about watching each other's drinks"), helping friends in distress (e.g., "Ask a friend who seems upset if they are okay or need help"), and confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes").

A series of factorial analysis of variance statistics were calculated to determine the effects of and interactions among various demographic variables and previous training in active bystander interventions on reported engagement in active bystander behaviors. Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference statistic were calculated to investigate significant main effects and interactions.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SURVEY YEAR

In general, cisgender female participants engaged in significantly more active bystander behaviors than cisgender male participants ($F(2, 1381) = 5.196$, $p < .05$); however, no significant differences were found between transgender or other gender participants' overall bystander behaviors and the number of behaviors engaged by either males or females. No other significant differences in mean active bystander behaviors were found for participants of different ethnic/racial backgrounds, sexual orientations, academic years, across survey year, or between those who had and had not received active bystander training. However, a significant interaction was observed between gender identity and sexual orientation ($F(2, 1381) = 9.624$, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure ABB1, heterosexual cisgender male participants performed approximately 80% as many active bystander behaviors as their non-heterosexual counterparts, while cisgender female participants, whether heterosexual or non-heterosexual, responded at about the same rate. This interaction was consistent across survey year.

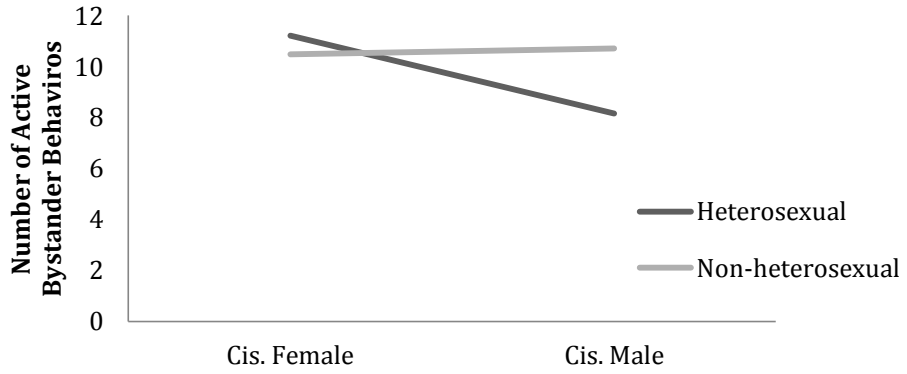

Figure ABB1. The effect of gender and sexual orientation on total number of active bystander behaviors within the past two months (p < .05). The maximum possible score was 25. Cis. = Cisgender.

The first subcategory of active bystander behavior included attempts to deal directly with sexual and intimate partner violence incidents (e.g., "Approach a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I'm here to help"). Significant main effects were observed for both gender identity and academic year variables. Consistent with results from overall participation in active bystander incidents, female-identified participants reported a higher mean participation in behaviors intended to directly address sexual or intimate partner violence than male-identified participants ($F(1, 1354) = 6.109$, $p < .05$). First-year students reported significantly fewer behaviors than both second- ($p < .05$) and fourth-year students ($p < .05$), while no significant difference was found between first- and third-year students. Furthermore no significant differences were observed between second- and third-year students or third- and fourth-year students. Notably, no differences in dealing with sexual and intimate partner violence incidents were found between individuals who had and had not received active bystander training and participation. Additionally, no main effects were observed for ethnic/racial background or sexual orientation. However, a marginally significant difference was found for survey year, with participants in 2015 reporting slightly higher rates of these behaviors than in 2013 ($p = .05$). No interactions among the demographic variables and training were observed for this subcategory of active bystander behavior.

An independent samples *t*-test was performed to examine whether or not a difference existed in bystander behavior for individuals who had experienced sexual misconduct and those who had not. A significant difference in engagement with these types of active bystander behaviors was observed ($t(1599)=-10.91$, $p < .05$). Individuals who had experienced sexual misconduct performed more behaviors intended to directly address sexual or intimate partner violence than those individuals who did not have such an experience.

Party safety (e.g., "Talked with friends about watching each other's drinks") was the second subcategory of active bystander behavior measured on the survey. For this category, significant differences in this type of behavior were observed for gender identity and ethnic/racial background. Female-identified participants reported having participated in significantly more party planning behaviors than male-identified participants ($F(1, 1349) = 15.652$, $p < .05$).

Domestic white or Caucasian participants reported significantly fewer party planning behaviors ($F(2,1349) = 3.839$, $p < .05$) than both domestic students of color ($p < .05$) and international students ($p < .05$). No main effects were observed for sexual orientation, academic year, whether or not an individual had received active bystander training, or by survey year. Further, a significant interaction was exposed between sexual orientation and gender identity ($F(1, 1349) = 17.38$, $p < .05$). Heterosexual female-identified participants reported more frequent party safety behaviors than heterosexual male-identified participants ($p < .05$), while non-heterosexual participants reported approximately equal amounts of party safety behavior regardless of gender identity (see Figure ABB2). No further interactions were found between other demographic categories. Additionally, an independent samples *t*-test revealed no significant difference in mean levels of engagement in this type of active bystander behavior between individuals who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct.

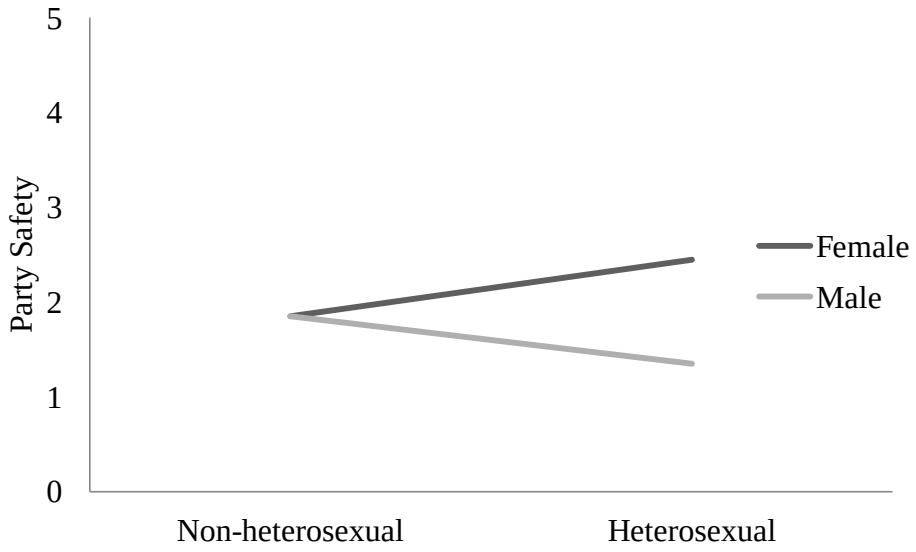

Figure ABB2. The effect of sexual orientation and gender on participation in party safety. The maximum possible score was 5.

The third subcategory of active bystander behavior included helping friends in distress (e.g., "Ask a friend who seems upset if they are okay or need help"). An analysis of this category found that female-identified participants reported a slightly higher participation in these behavior than male-identified participants; however, the effect was marginal ($F(1,1349) = 4.01$, $p = .05$). Although no other main effects were found for ethnic/racial background, sexual orientation, academic year, survey year, or previous active bystander training, two significant interactions emerged. As illustrated in Figure ABB3, sexual orientation interacted with gender identity ($F(1,1349) = 8.43$, $p < .05$). Heterosexual female-identified participants reported greater participation in helping friends in distress than heterosexual male-identified participants, while non-heterosexual male- and female-identified participants reported similar amounts of the behavior.

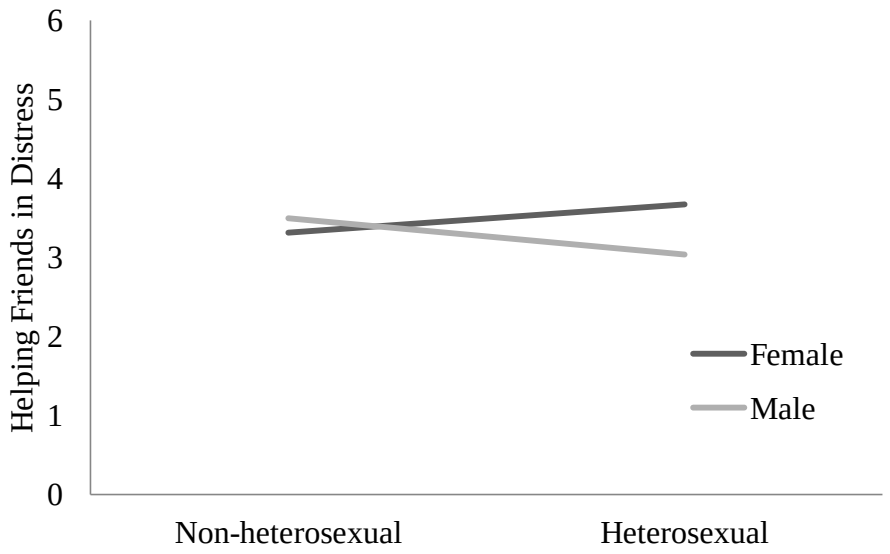

Figure ABB3. The effect of sexual orientation and gender on participation in helping friends in distress. The maximum possible score was 6.

Additionally, a marginally significant interaction was observed between sexual orientation and ethnic/racial background, illustrated in Figure ABB4 ($F(2,1349) = 2.99$, $p = .05$). Domestic students of color who identify as non-heterosexual reported higher levels of participation in helping friends in distress than did heterosexual-identified domestic students of color. However, international and domestic white or Caucasian students responded similarly, regardless of sexual orientation.

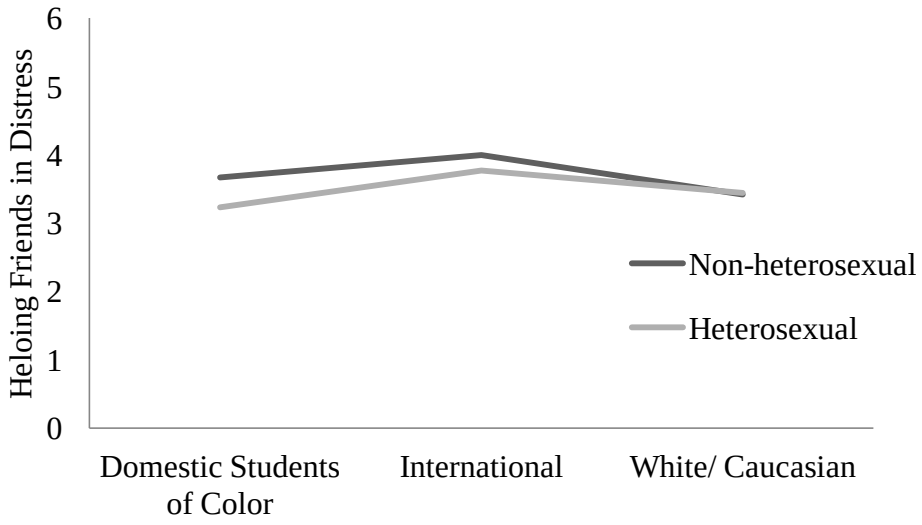

Figure ABB4. The effect of sexual orientation and ethnic/racial background on participation in helping friends in distress. The maximum possible score was 6.

An independent samples *t*-test was employed to investigate the effects of previous experience with sexual misconduct on helping friends in distress. A significant difference in these types of behaviors emerged. Participants who were victims of sexual misconduct engaged in significantly greater active bystander behaviors of this category than those who were not victims ($t(1591) = -6.94$, $p < .05$).

The fourth subcategory of active bystander behavior included confronting language (e.g., "Indicate my displeasure when I hear sexist jokes"). Significant main effects on these behaviors were observed for both gender identity and sexual orientation. Male-identified participants reported engaging in confronting language behaviors less often female-identified participants ($F(1, 1349) = 5.159$, $p < .05$). Non-heterosexual participants reported engaging in more confronting language behaviors than heterosexual participants ($F(1, 1349)= 11.12$, $p < .05$). No significant main effects emerged for ethnic/racial background, academic year, survey year, or previous active bystander training. However, multiple significant interactions also emerged from the analysis. As illustrated in Figure ABB5, sexual orientation interacted with gender identity. Heterosexual males reported less confronting language behaviors than non-heterosexual males, non-heterosexual, and heterosexual females, which all reported approximately the same amount of the behavior ($F(1, 1349) = 27.19$, $p < .05$).

Figure ABB5. The effect of sexual orientation and gender on average participation in confronting language. The maximum possible score was 2.

Additionally, Figure ABB6 conveys an interaction between academic year and survey year ($F(3, 1349) = 3.20$, $p < .05$). First year participants in 2015 reported that they confronted language more frequently than first-year participants in 2013, while second-, third-, and fourth- or fifth-year students reported similar rates of confronting language regardless of survey year.

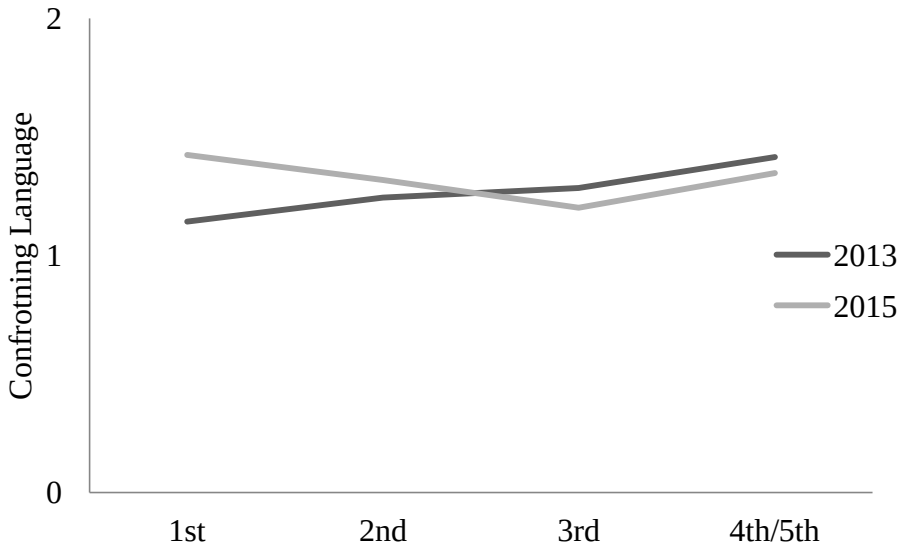

Figure ABB6. The effect of survey year and academic year on average participation in confronting language. The maximum possible score was 2.

An independent samples *t*-test was employed to investigate the effects of previous experience with sexual misconduct on confronting language. A significant difference in these types of behaviors emerged. Participants who were victims of sexual misconduct engaged in significantly greater active bystander behaviors in this category than those who were not victims ($t(1591) = -6.45$, $p < .05$).

In the 2015 survey iteration, participants also were asked about how often they saw others performing these behaviors. An analysis of how often someone observed another individual dealing with sexual or intimate partner violence, the first subcategory, revealed a significant main effect for gender identity. Female participants were significantly more likely to have observed another individual performing these behaviors than males ($F(1, 660) = 4.706$, $p < .05$). No other significant main effects or interactions were found for sexual orientation, ethnic/racial background, academic year, or previous active bystander training.

Similarly, observation of party safety behaviors, the second category, a significant main effect was observed for gender identity. Here, too, female participants reported observing more party safety behaviors than male participants ($F(1,651) = 4.886$, $p < .05$). There were no significant differences revealed for sexual orientation, ethnic/racial background, academic year, or previous active bystander training. No significant interactions were observed between any demographic variables or whether or not an individual had received active bystander training for Category 2 — Party Safety.

No main effects for any demographic or active bystander training were found for the subcategories relating to helping friends in distress and confronting language. However, a significant interaction between academic year and ethnic/racial background emerged for observations of confronting language as shown in Figure ABB7 ($F(6,651) = 2.45$, $p < .05$). First-year participants reported observing similar rates of confronting language, regardless of ethnic/racial background, while older class years had more variation in their reported observation

rates. Most notably, fourth- or fifth-year international students observed more behaviors than domestic white or Caucasian students, who observed more than domestic students of color.

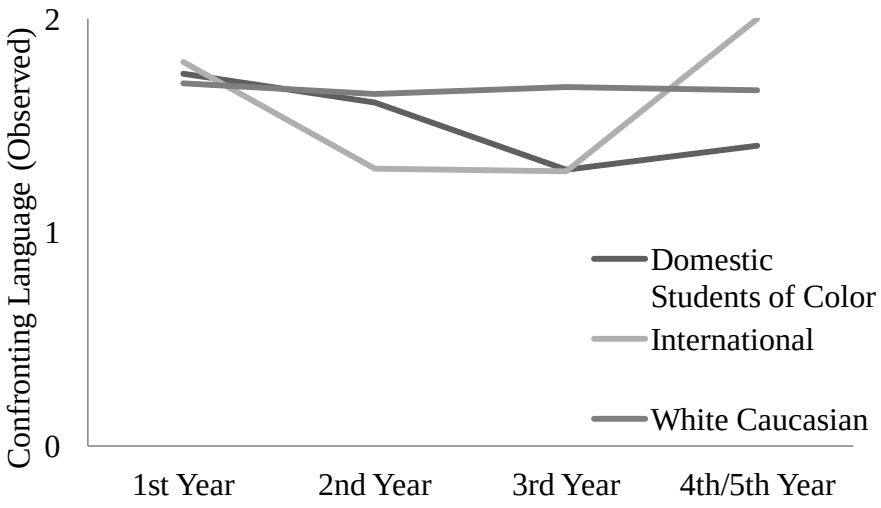

Figure ABB7. The effect of ethnic/racial background and academic year on observed confronting language behavior.

Finally, stepwise ordinary least squares regression analyses were conducted to identify the best predictors of each subcategory of personally engaged active bystander behavior. Predictors included all other subcategories of personally engaged active bystander behavior, subcategories of observed active bystander behavior, previous active bystander training, all five rape myth attitude subscale scores, and the total rape myth attitude score. [See chapter on Rape Myth Attitudes for full description of subscales.] The alpha criterion for inclusion into the equation was set conservatively to .001 to avoid overfitting the model. Bivariate correlations between personally engaged active bystander behavior subcategory scores with other personally engaged subcategory scores (Table ABB1), observed subcategory scores (Table ABB2), and rape myth attitude scores (Table ABB3) are presented below.

Table ABB1. Correlations between subcategories of personally engaged active bystander behaviors

		Personal			
		1	2	3	4
Personal	1 - Dealing with specific incidents	1.00	0.32	0.53	0.31
	2 - Party safety		1.00	0.46	0.19
	3 - Helping friends in distress			1.00	0.27
	4 - Confronting language				1.00

Table ABB2. Correlations between subcategories of personally engaged and observed active bystander behaviors

		Observed			
		1	2	3	4
Personal	1 - Dealing with specific incidents	0.61	0.31	0.32	0.21
	2 - Party safety	0.31	0.53	0.34	0.16
	3 - Helping friends in distress	0.45	0.54	0.53	0.21
	4 - Confronting language	0.21	0.14	0.16	0.43

Table ABB3. Correlations between subcategories of personally engaged active bystander behaviors and rape myth attitude factor score subscales

	Rape Myth Attitudes					
Personal AB Behaviors	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Total
1 - Dealing with specific incidents	-0.11	ns	-0.11	-0.15	ns	-0.11
2 - Party safety	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
3 - Helping friends in distress	ns	ns	ns	-0.11	ns	ns
4 - Confronting language	-0.28	-0.15	-0.13	-0.26	-0.18	-0.27

Note AB = active bystander. Rape myth attitude Factor 1 = false reporting; rape myth attitude Factor 2 = not rape unless violent; rape myth attitude Factor 3 = not intentional, overactive sex drive; rape myth attitude Factor 4 = victim at fault; rape myth attitude Factor 5 = intoxicated sex is not rape; Total = rape myth attitude total score

Subcategory 1 for dealing with specific incidents was predicted by a five-factor model that explained 50.4% of the variance in subcategory 1 scores. The predictors and standardized beta weights are presented in Table ABB4. As observed there, the strongest predictor of this subcategory was observing others dealing with specific incidents. However, caution should be advanced in the interpretation of observed predictors, as the temporal order from observation to personal engagement cannot be assumed. The second strongest predictor was personally helping a friend in distress. Interestingly, observing others engage in party safety practices was inversely related to personally dealing with specific incidents, despite the positive bivariate relation. This suggests a suppression effect, meaning that after accounting for the previous two variables, observation of party behavior was negatively correlated with the residual variance. The final two predictors in the equation represented a small explanatory value.

Table ABB4. Significant predictors of personally engaged active bystander behaviors for dealing with specific incidents

	Standardized Beta
Observed - Dealing with specific incidents	0.54
Personal - Helping friends in distress	0.35
Observed - Party safety	-0.26
Personal - Party Safety	0.12
Personal - Confronting language	0.10

Subcategory 2 for party safety was predicted by a three-factor model that explained 36.6% of the variance in subcategory 1 scores. The predictors and standardized beta weights are presented in Table ABB5. The two strongest predictors of personally engaging in party safety behaviors were observing others engage in party safety behaviors and personally helping friends in distress. As with the previous model, temporal order of observed and personally engaged behaviors cannot be assumed. Observing others helping friends in distress predicted party safety negative, possibly signaling a suppression effect, but the explanatory value of that variable was small.

Table ABB5. Significant predictors of personally engaged active bystander behaviors for party safety

	Standardized Beta
Observed - Party safety	0.48
Personal - Helping friends in distress	0.33
Observed - Helping friends in distress	-0.17

Subcategory 3 for helping friends in distress was predicted by a four-factor model that explained 50.4% of the variance in subcategory 1 scores. The predictors and standardized beta weights are presented in Table ABB6. Unlike the previous two analyses where observing others engage in a particular behavior was most highly predictive of that same behavior, the strongest predictor for helping friends in distress was one's previous personal engagement in dealing with specific incidents. This was followed by personally engaging in party safety and observing others helping others in distress. A very small effect also was observed for observing others engage in party safety behaviors.

Table ABB6. Significant predictors of personally engaged active bystander behaviors for helping friends in distress

	Standardized Beta
Personal - Dealing with specific incidents	0.33
Personal - Party safety	0.22
Observed - Helping friends in distress	0.22
Observed - Party safety	0.18

Subcategory 4 for confronting language was predicted by a three-factor model that explained 30.2% of the variance in subcategory 1 scores. The predictors and standardized beta weights are presented in Table ABB7. The strongest predictor of personally confronting others' language was observing others confront language. Like in the previous models, the temporal order of personally confronting versus observing others confront cannot be assumed. The second largest predictor of confronting language scores was rape myth attitude representing the belief that most reports of rape are often false reports. The stronger this belief, the less likely that one engaged in confronting language behaviors. Finally, personally dealing with specific incidents predicted a small amount of the variance in confronting language.

Table ABB7. Significant predictors of personally engaged active bystander behaviors for confronting language

	Standardized Beta
Observed - Confronting language	0.41
Rape myth attitude - False reporting	-0.22
Personal - Dealing with specific incidents	0.17

Across all four subcategories of active bystander behavior, observation of others engaging in the behavior was linearly and moderately to strongly related with actual engagement in that same behavior. Though it is possible that engaging in a behavior will lead some to see that behavior more frequently in others, a stronger possibility based on social learning theory would suggest that observing others engaging in a behavior will increase the likelihood of engaging in that same behavior.

Interestingly, rape myth attitudes were largely unassociated with actual engagement in active bystander behavior. The one exception was the negative association between the belief that most reports of rape are false and confronting the language of others. This suggests that changing rape myth attitudes may not be necessary to increase most types of active bystander behavior.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The results of the analyses on active bystander behavior engagement are highlighted by several common themes. The most common theme was that female-identified participants engaged in significantly more active bystander behaviors than male-identified participants. Another layer of this theme is that heterosexual male-identified participants report fewer active bystander behaviors than non-heterosexual male-identified participants and both heterosexual and non-heterosexual female participants. This may indicate that programming to male-identified individuals may need to be restructured in order to have a more impactful result. Perhaps surprisingly, having received active bystander training was not significantly related to engagement in any of those behaviors. Further, observation of others engaging in an active bystander behavior was linearly and moderately to strongly related with actual engagement in that same behavior. This result suggests that in order to be more impactful, current active bystander programming should include opportunities to observe example behaviors or

encouragement to observe others engaging in these behaviors in other settings. These strategies may produce a more impactful effect on participation in bystander scenarios.

RAPE MYTH ATTITUDES

A modified version of the *Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance — Short Form* (IRMA; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) scale was used to ask participants about their personal rape myth attitudes. The original IRMA assumes a heteronormative bias, and all statements within the scale portray a man as the aggressor or perpetrator and a woman as the victim or participant. In order to make the scale more applicable to Grinnell College, items were modified to be more gender-inclusive and to not assume heteronormativity (e.g. "When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex" was changed to "When people rape it is usually because of their strong desire for sex"). The final modified IRMA scale contained 22 items.

An exploratory principle axis factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation with promax rotation was employed to determine the factor structure underlying rape myth attitude items. A five-factor structure emerged from the analysis. The first factor — False Reporting — represented the belief that most reports of rape are false and due to revenge or regret after consensual sex. That factor included eight items. The second factor — Not Rape Unless Violent — represented the belief that in the absence of overt force, violence, injury, or forceful resistance, nonconsensual sex cannot be considered rape. That factor included four items. The third factor — Not Intentional/Overactive Sex Drive — representated the belief that perpetrators of rape could not be held accountable because the sexual behavior was often unintentional, because the perpetrator is intoxicated, gets carried away, or has an overactive sex drive. That factor contained four items. The fourth factor — Victim Blame — represented the belief that victims' behaviors were ultimately responsible for subsequent rapes. That factor included four items. The fifth factor — Intoxicated Sex Is Not Rape — represented the belief that intoxication is a legitimate excuse for rape. That factor contained two items. A list of the factors and the corresponding factors and items is displayed in Table RMA1.

A series of factorial analysis of variance statistics were calculated to determine the effects of and interactions among various demographic variables and previous training in active bystander interventions on reported agreement with different forms of rape myth attitudes. Post-hoc analyses using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference statistic were calculated to investigate significant main effects and interactions.

In general the average level of rape myth acceptance within the sample is low ($M = 1.63$, $sd = 0.50$; where 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, and 5 = strongly agree). In total, 94.3% of participants' average endorsement of items represented at least some disagreement, as defined as an average item agreement of less than 3 (i.e., neutral). When examining the results further and more specifically by factors, participants' level of agreement with rape myths remained low: Factor 1 — False Reporting (90.3%, at least some disagreement); Factor 2 — Not Rape Unless Violent (98.8%, at least some disagreement); Factor 3 — Not Intentional/Overactive Sex Drive (76.9%, at least some disagreement); Factor 4 — Victim Blame (96.2%, at least some disagreement); and Factor 5 — Intoxicated Sex Is Not Rape (92.5%, at least some disagreement).

Table RMA1. Rape myth attitudes factor analysis item distribution

	Factor 1 — False Reporting
1	A lot of times, people who say they were raped often led the other person on and then had regrets.
2	A lot of times, people who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.
3	Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at people.
4	A lot of times, people who claim they were raped had emotional problems.
5	People who are caught cheating on their significant other sometimes claim it was rape.
6	If someone doesn't say "no," they can't claim rape.
7	If someone initiates kissing or hooking up, that person should not be surprised if someone else assumes they want to have sex.
8	When someone gets raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.
	Factor 2 — Not Rape Unless Violent
9	A rape probably doesn't happen if that person doesn't have any bruises or marks.
10	If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.
11	If someone doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.
12	If someone doesn't physically resist sex — even if protesting verbally — it can't be considered rape.
	Factor 3 — Not Intentional/Overactive Sex Drive
13	Rape happens when a person's sex drive goes out of control.
14	When people rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.
15	People don't usually intend to force sex on another person, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
16	If a person is drunk, they might rape someone unintentionally.
	Factor 4 — Victim Blame
17	When someone goes to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.
18	If someone acts like a slut, eventually that person is going to get into trouble.
19	If someone goes to a room alone with a person at a party, it is their own fault if they are raped.
20	If someone is raped while drunk, that person is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.
	Factor 5 — Intoxicated Sex Is Not Rape
21	It shouldn't be considered rape if a person is drunk and didn't realize what they were doing.
22	If both people are drunk, it can't be rape.

Significant differences in participants' average rape myth acceptance emerged when dividing participants by both gender identify ($F(1, 659) = 15.492$, $p < .05$) and ethnic/racial background/racial background($F(2, 659) = 4.364$, $p < .05$). Male-identified participants expressed less disagreement with rape myth attitudes overall ($M = 1.81$, $sd = 0.52$) than female-identified participants ($M = 1.51$, $sd = 0.44$; $p < .05$). Additionally, international students

expressed less disagreement on average (M = 1.94, sd = 0.75) than both domestic students of color (M = 1.69, sd = 0.50), and domestic white or Caucasian students (M = 1.59, sd = 0.46; p < .05), and domestic students of color reported less disagreement than domestic white or Caucasian students (p < .05). No significant main effects were found for sexual orientation, academic year, or active bystander training.

Caution should be advanced when interpreting these group-level differences. All means for these subgroups indicate disagreement to strong disagreement with rape myth attitudes. Thus, the differences reflect relative strength in disagreement, as opposed to endorsement of such beliefs. Further, many of the differences reported here and below reflect very small effect sizes, where the significant difference may be more a function of sample size (i.e., high statistical power) than meaningful difference between groups.

FACTOR 1 — FALSE REPORTING

An analysis of Factor 1 — False Reporting, exposed a significant main effect for gender identity (F(1,659) = 7.801, p < .05). Participants who identified as male reported significantly less disagreement with false reporting items (M = 2.11, sd = 0.79) than those who identified as female (M = 1.63, sd = 0.65; p < .05). No significant main effects were found based on sexual orientation, ethnic/racial background, academic year, or previous active bystander training. Finally an independent samples t-test revealed no significant difference between individuals who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct. In other words, disagreement with the belief that most reports of rape are false reports was stable across most demographic subgroups and across sexual misconduct experience.

FACTOR 2 — NOT RAPE UNLESS VIOLENT

Significant main effects were found for gender identity (F(1, 659) = 8.634, p < .05), ethnic/racial background (F(2, 659) = 10.139, p < .05), and previous active bystander training(F(2, 659) = 7.095, p < .05). Male-identified participants reported significantly lower disagreement (M = 1.24, sd = 0.47) with these statements than female-identified participants (M = 1.10, sd = 0.33; p < .05). Domestic white or Caucasian participants reported significantly more disagreement with Factor 2 statements (M = 1.11, sd = 0.32) than domestic students of color (M = 1.22, sd = 0.43) who reported significantly more disagreement than international participants (M = 1.47, sd = 0.91; p < .05). Individuals who reported receiving active bystander training in high school reported less disagreement (M = 1.22, sd = 0.43) than those who had no active bystander training (M = 1.13, sd = 0.43) or those who had training since entering college (M = 1.17, sd = 0.39); p < .05). No significant main effects were discovered for sexual orientation or academic year. Additionally an independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference for those who had an experience of sexual misconduct (M = 1.12, sd = .33) and those who had not (M = 1.17, sd = .43); (t(768)=1.83, p < .05).

The analysis of Factor 2 also exposed multiple significant interactions. Sexual orientation and ethnic/racial background interacted significantly (F(2, 659) = 4.99, p < .05). Non-heterosexual international students (M = 1.67, sd = 1.23) reported less disagreement than heterosexual international students (M = 1.37, sd = 0.69) while both heterosexual and non-heterosexual

participants for both domestic students of color and domestic white or Caucasian participants reported similar levels of disagreement (see Figure RMA1).

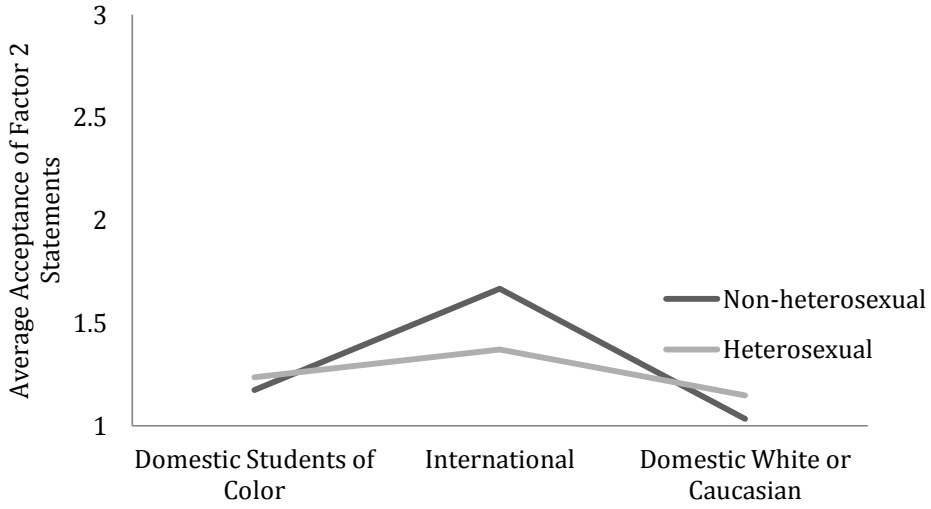

Figure RMA1. The effect of ethnic/racial background and sexual orientation on acceptance of Factor 2 – Not Rape Unless Violent. Scores of 1 are equivalent to strong disagreement, scores of 3 are equivalent to a neutral response, and scores 5 are equivalent to strong agreement.

For Factor 2, ethnic/racial background and academic year interacted significantly ($F(6, 659) = 3.45$, $p < .05$). First- ($M = 1.71$, $sd = 1.22$) and second-year ($M = 1.53$, $sd = 0.71$) international students reported significantly less disagreement than third- ($M = 1.25$, $sd = 0.56$) and fourth-year international students ($M = 1.00$, $sd = 0.00$). They also expressed less disagreement than both first- ($M = 1.24$, $sd = 0.51$) and second-year domestic students of color ($M = 1.22$, $sd = 0.39$) and white or Caucasian students (first year, $M = 1.13$, $sd = 0.39$; second year, $M = 1.10$, $sd = 0.39$). This interaction is displayed in Figure RMA2.

Finally, academic year and active bystander trainings significantly interacted for Factor 2 scores ($F(6, 659) = 2.36$, $p < .05$). Third-year students who received active bystander training before matriculating to college reported significantly less disagreement levels ($M = 1.48$, $sd = 0.66$) than both third-year students with no active bystander training ($M = 1.11$, $sd = 0.29$) and those who received training while in college ($M = 1.15$, $sd = 0.34$). First-, second-, and fourth- or fifth-year students responded similarly to each other no matter the level of active bystander training (see Figure RMA3).

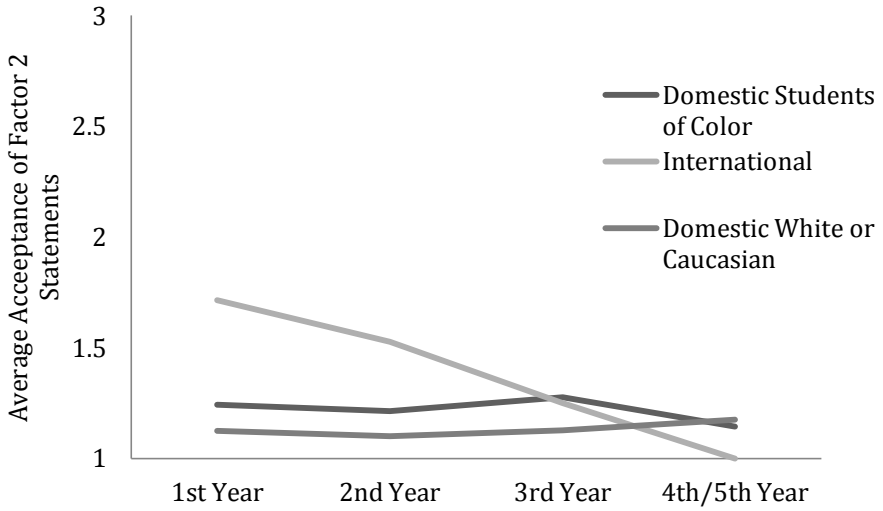

Figure RMA2. The effect of ethnic/racial background and academic year on acceptance of Factor 2 – Not Rape Unless Violent. Scores of 1 are equivalent to strong disagreement, scores of 3 are equivalent to a neutral response, and scores 5 are equivalent to strong agreement.

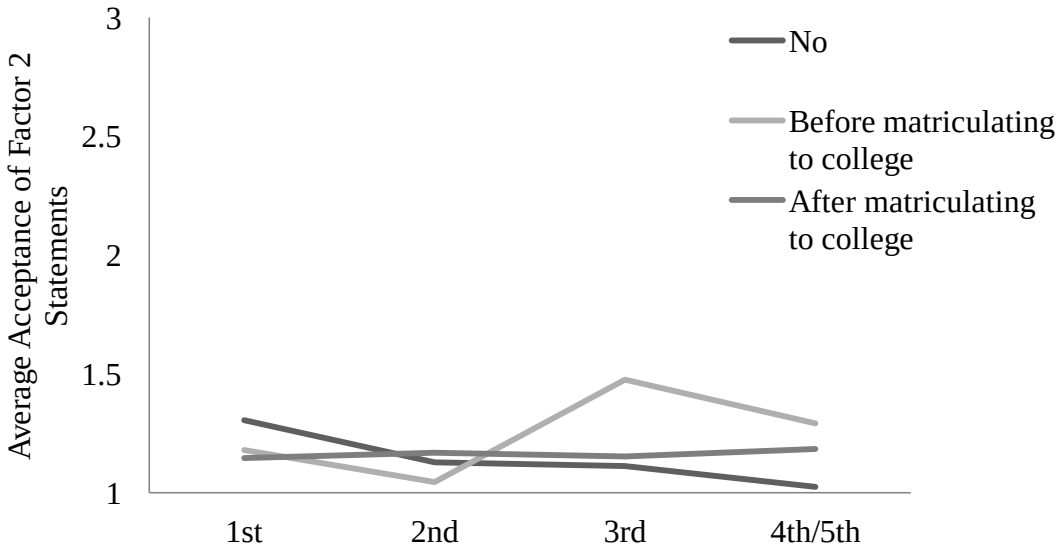

Figure RMA3. The effect of academic year and active bystander training on acceptance of Factor 2 – Not Rape Unless Violent. Scores of 1 are equivalent to strong disagreement, scores of 3 are equivalent to a neutral response, and scores 5 are equivalent to strong agreement.

FACTOR 3 — NOT INTENTIONAL/ OVERACTIVE SEX DRIVE

An analysis of Factor 3 — Not Intentional/Overactive Sex Drive exposed significant main effects for both gender identity ($F(1, 659) = 8.13$, $p < .05$) and academic year ($F(3, 659) = 2.848$, $p < .05$). Male-identified participants ($M = 2.48$, $sd = 0.79$) reported less disagreement with Factor 3 statements than female-identified participants ($M = 2.07$, $sd = 0.77$; $p < .05$). First- (M

= 2.39, *sd* = 0.83) and third-year (*M* = 2.27, *sd* = 0.76) participants reported having less disagreement with Factor 3 statements than fourth-year students (*M* = 2.06, *sd* = 0.78: $p < .05$); however, second-year students (*M* = 2.19, *sd* = 0.82) were not significantly different from any other year. No significant main effects were found for sexual orientation, ethnic/racial background, or previous active bystander training. Additionally, an independent samples *t*-test revealed no significant difference in mean Factor 3 scores between individuals who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct.

FACTOR 4 — VICTIM BLAME

For Factor 4 — Victim Blame, significant main effects emerged for gender identity ($F(1,659) = 5.48$, $p < .05$) and ethnic/racial background ($F(2,659) = 5.63$, $p < .05$). Consistent with previous factors, male-identified participants (*M* = 1.55, *sd* = .63) reported a significantly less disagreement than female-identified participants (*M* = 1.27, *sd* = .49, $p < .05$). All three ethnic/racial background categories were significantly different from one another, with domestic white or Caucasian (*M* = 1.34, *sd* = .53) and domestic students of color (*M* = 1.51, *sd* = .64) reporting the greatest disagreement, followed international students (*M* = 1.81, *sd* = .93), who reported the least disagreement with Factor 4 statements. An independent samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference for those who had an experience of sexual misconduct (*M* = 1.43, *sd* = .63) and those who had not (*M* = 1.34, *sd* = .55); ($t(769) = 2.12$, $p < .05$). Unlike previous differences observed between those who had and those who had not experienced sexual misconduct, disagreement with victim-blaming statements was stronger for those who had not experienced such misconduct. No significant main effects were found for sexual orientation or academic year. However, ethnic/racial background and active bystander training significantly interacted ($F(4,659) = 3.76$, $p < .05$) for Factor 4 scores. For that interaction, disagreement with Factor 4 statements were not significantly different for domestic students of color and domestic white or Caucasian students, regardless of active bystander training. International students with active bystander training since arriving at college had similarly high levels of disagreement; however, international students who had received training before arriving at college or who had not received training had significantly lower levels of disagreement with Factor 4 statements.

FACTOR 5 — INTOXICATED SEX IS NOT RAPE

An analysis of Factor 5 – Intoxicated Sex is Not Rape exposed significant main effects for both gender identity ($F(1, 659) = 12.835$, $p < .05$) and ethnic/racial background ($F(2, 659) = 4.178$, $p < .05$). Male-identified participants (*M* = 1.67, *sd* = .76) reported less disagreement with Factor 5 statements than did female-identified participants (*M* = 1.46, *sd* = .64; $p < .05$). International students (*M* = 1.79, *sd* = .89) reported less disagreement with Factor 5 statements than domestic white or Caucasian students (*M* = 1.51, *sd* = .67; $p < .05$), but no difference was discovered between international and domestic students of color (*M* = 1.61, *sd* = .71) or between white or Caucasian students and domestic students of color. No significant main effects were found for sexual orientation, class year, or previous active bystander training. Additionally, an independent samples *t*-test revealed no significant difference between individuals who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct.

Multiple significant interactions emerged for Factor 5 scores. Sexual orientation interacted significantly with ethnic/racial background ($F(2, 659) = 3.19$, $p < .05$). Non-heterosexual

international participants (*M* = 2.04, *sd* = 1.14) reported less disagreement with Factor 5 statements than heterosexual international participants (*M* = 1.65, *sd* = .71), while domestic students of color and domestic white or Caucasian students responded similarly regardless of sexual orientation (see Figure RMA4).

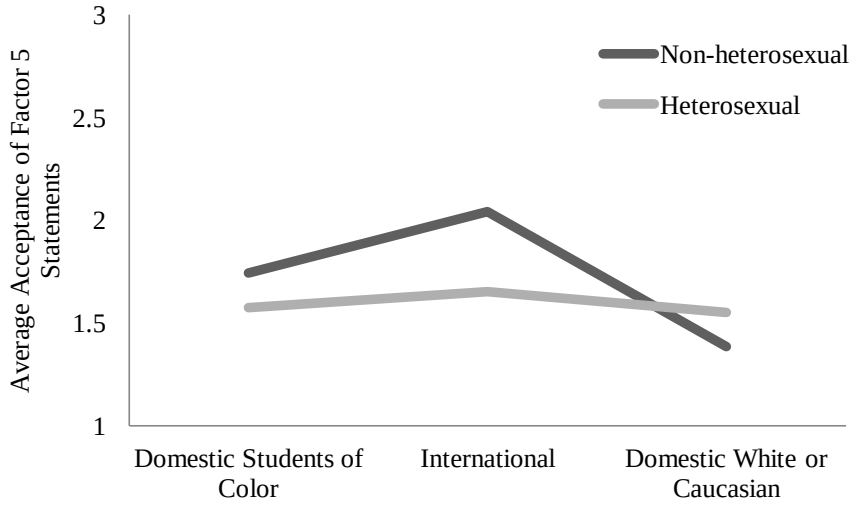

Figure RMA4. The effect of ethnic/racial background and sexual orientation on acceptance of Factor 5 – Intoxicated Sex is Not Rape. Scores of 1 are equivalent to strong disagreement, scores of 3 are equivalent to a neutral response, and scores 5 are equivalent to strong agreement.

Academic year interacted with active bystander training ($F(6,659) = 3.18$, $p < .05$). Fourth- and fifth-year students who received active bystander training before matriculating to college (*M* = 2.08, *sd* = 1.42) reported less disagreement with Factor 5, as compared to other fourth- or fifth-year students who received training while in college (*M* = 1.58, *sd* = 0.69) or who never received training (*M* = 1.46, *sd* = 0.68). Those who received training in college or who have not received trainings levels of acceptance remain relatively constant across class year (see Figure RMA5).

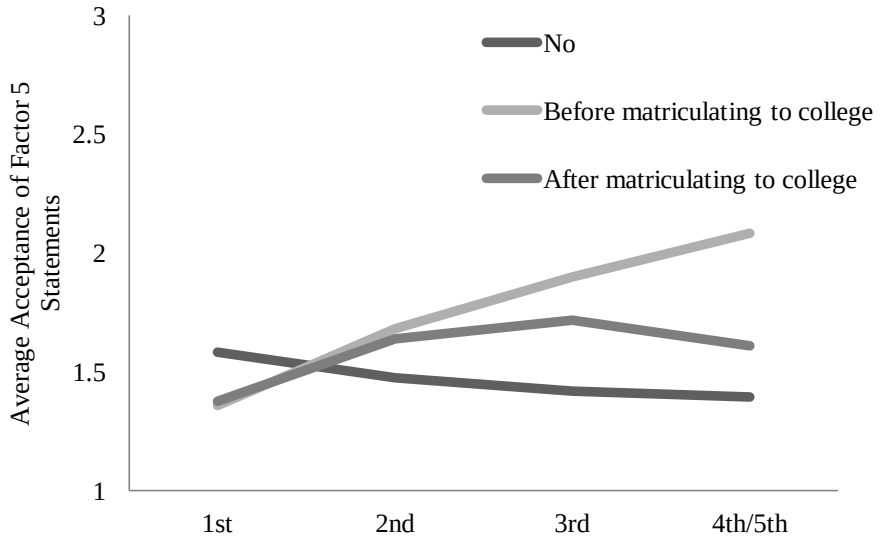

Figure RMA5. The effect of academic year and active bystander training on acceptance of Factor 5 – Intoxicated Sex is Not Rape. Scores of 1 are equivalent to strong disagreement, scores of 3 are equivalent to a neutral response, and scores 5 are equivalent to strong agreement.

SUMMARY CONCLUSION

In general, the acceptance of rape myth attitudes was rare. These general disagreement with rape myths persisted across a variety of demographic subgroups, active bystander training experiences, and experiences with sexual misconduct. However, both male-identified participants and international students reported less disagreement with rape myths than did other subgroups. It is important to note, however, that these differences commonly represent a difference between "mostly disagree" and "strongly disagree" types of responses to rape myth attitude questions. Additionally, only a relatively small number of international students responded to the survey. Therefore, the generalizability of the results for international students, and particularly subgroups of international students, may be questionable. Moving forward, it may be beneficial to tailor rape myth attitude messaging towards male-identified students on campus. Additionally, a section on rape myths included in the sexual respect portion of the International Pre-Orientation Program could also prove to be beneficial.

CONSENT

In the fall of 2013, Grinnell College implemented its current affirmative consent policy related to sexual consent. A shortened version of the policy states:

> Consent to engage in sexual activity must be given knowingly, voluntarily, and affirmatively. Consent to engage in sexual activity must exist from the beginning to end of each instance of sexual activity, and for each form of sexual contact. Consent is demonstrated through mutually understandable words and/or clear, unambiguous actions that indicate a willingness to engage freely in sexual activity. Consent is active, not passive. (Grinnell College, 2013)

The current survey asked participants three open-ended questions related to consent:

1) How do you know when you have obtained consent in a sexual encounter?
2) Where or from what sources did you learn about consent for sexual encounters?
3) Do you believe two people who have been drinking or using other recreational drugs can have consensual sex?

The first and third questions were asked in both 2013 and 2015, while the second question was added in 2015 to help identify which consent education practices currently in place were working better than others.

CONSENT DEFINITIONS

Domains for Consent

Qualitative analyses of these questions were performed using two judges and one auditor using a modified Consensual Qualitative Research design (Hill, Thompson, & Williams, 1997; Hill, Knox, Thompson, Williams, Hess, & Ladany, 2005). The judges read through approximately 100 responses and then created domains and categories for each question. After creating the domains, the judges separately coded all responses and then compared coding to assess inter-rater reliability.

In order to effectively analyze the definitions of consent provided by participants, 14 different domains were created to analyze the definitions. The domains included: verbal, yes, asking, affirmative, clear and enthusiastic, sober, continuous, mutual, nonverbal, of sound mind, partner-initiated, noncoercive, relationship, and other; they are defined under each domain section below. Each domain's definition is provided below.

- *Verbal:* Cited verbal consent as necessary. Examples: "I ask and they say yes." "They respond verbally …"
- *Yes:* Provided a "yes means yes" definition of consent. Examples: "Yes." "Verbal yes." "They say yes."
- *Asking:* Consent was defined by asking partners. Examples: "I ask." "I ask if they want to …"

- *Affirmative:* Engagement from the partner was needed for consent. Words like "desire", "want," "actively engaged," "agreed," and "respond positively" were all coded as affirmative.
- *Clear and Enthusiastic:* Cited enthusiasm, clarity, or explicitness of intention in the definition. Examples: "They clearly indicate their interest." "They explicitly say yes."
- *Sober:* No drugs or alcohol could be involved in the encounter. Example: "Both parties must be sober in order to have consent."
- *Continuous:* Consent was necessary for every sexual act and was needed throughout the entire encounter. Examples: "Before every new activity, I ask again." "A yes one time does not mean a yes for the entire night."
- *Mutual:* Defined consent as a discussion that included both partners. Used words like "mutual," "we," "both."
- *Nonverbal:* Defined consent by body language and nonverbal cues. Examples: "I look at their response …" "They nod their head and give nonverbal agreement."
- *Noncoercive:* Consent must be willingly given; pressure, force, and manipulation do not equate to consent. Example: "My partner actively gives consent without any pressure from me; I stop if they feel uncomfortable."
- *Of Sound Mind:* Similar to sober, the participant must be able to rationally make decisions; however, he partner did not have to be totally sober. Example: "They cannot be too drunk and must be emotionally/physically able to consent."
- *Partner-initiated:* Cited the partner as the agent instead of themselves. Example: "I wait for my partner to initiate any sexual activity."
- *Relationship:* Cited a relationship with the person as a need for different definitions of consent. Example: "After being in a relationship with someone you just know when they want to have sex; you don't have to ask for consent every time, but you should in the beginning."

Inter-rater Reliability

In order to assess the level of agreement between judges for qualitative coding of the participants' definition of consent, ratings from both judges were cross-tabulated and individual kappa statistics were calculated for each individual domain. When kappa values were below .7, the judges returned to those responses where disagreements were made, discussed the disagreements, and arrived at a consensus for that rating. Most disagreements were solved through discussion or corrections of errors due to misreading the response. Final kappa values for each consent domain are listed in Table CD1.

Table CD1. Inter-rater reliability by consent domain

Domains for Consent	Kappa Score
Verbal	1.00
Yes	0.93
Asking	0.89
Affirmative	1.00
Clear/Enthusiastic	0.82
Sober	0.88
Continuous	0.82
Mutual	0.78
Nonverbal	0.82
Of Sound Mind	0.78
Partner-initiated	0.79
Noncoercive	0.83
Relationship	0.79

Domains of Consent by Survey Year

The most commonly cited definition by participants, from both survey years (2013 and 2015), was verbal consent (77.7%) followed by a "yes means yes" definition of consent (50.3%). Consistent with Grinnell's affirmative consent policy, the most common definitions provided by participants include elements aligned with the definition outlined by the school. Table CD2 contains all the responses from 2013, 2015, and the total for both survey years.

Table CD2. Commonly cited themes from participants' definitions of consent

	2013	2015	Total	Difference	
Verbal	76.8%	78.4%	77.7%	1.6%	
Yes	46.8%	53.1%	50.3%	6.3%	*
Asking	28.1%	24.4%	26.0%	-3.7%	*
Clear/Enthusiastic	19.4%	29.6%	25.1%	10.2%	*
Affirmative	21.4%	24.8%	23.3%	3.4%	*
Continuous	12.4%	15.8%	14.3%	3.4%	*
Sober	15.4%	11.2%	13.0%	-4.2%	*
Nonverbal	12.2%	13.6%	13.0%	1.4%	
Mutual	12.2%	7.4%	9.5%	-4.8%	*
Of Sound Mind	8.2%	8.7%	8.5%	0.5%	
Noncoercive	3.8%	4.6%	4.3%	0.8%	
Partner-Initiated	4.7%	1.6%	2.9%	-3.1%	
Relationship	3.7%	1.4%	2.4%	-2.3%	

*Note Percentage*s do not sum up to 100% because consent definitions could contain multiple domains. * = Significant change from 2013 to 2015.

After the top two domains, there were notable differences in the pattern and strength of the proportions of participants including different domains in their personal consent definitions

across the two survey years. Between the survey years there was a significant increase in definitions containing Clear and Enthusiastic domain elements, with participants in 2015 including that domain at a higher rate (29.6% vs. 19.4%). Other domains that increased significantly included Affirmative and Continuous. All three are consistent with the College's definition of consent. Significant decreases were observed for the Asking, Sober, and Mutual Domains. Similar but not statistically significant drops were observed for Partner-Initiated and Relationship domains. Combined, none of these domains are specifically mentioned in the College's consent policy. Further, the College's policy encourages individuals to avoid passive sexual consent, so the decline in Partner-Initiated and Relationship domains, along with the increase in Clear and Enthusiastic domains, suggests participants in 2015 are more likely to endorse active consent than in the past.

The rates of participant definition domains were examined across a variety of demographic variables to determine if different patterns of definitions occur for demographic subgroups.

Verbal Domain

Definition: Cited verbal consent as necessary. Examples: "I ask and they say yes." "They respond verbally …"

The Verbal domain was included in 76.8% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 78.4% of definitions in 2015. That difference was not statistically significant. A comparison was made using the Verbal domain across participants of different gender identities and across survey administration. For that comparison, a statistically significant difference in the use of Verbal domain elements emerged. Transgender/other gender participants (83.3% in 2013 and 75.9% in 2015) and cisgender male participants (75.9% in 2013 and 73.3% in 2015) provided fewer definitions under the Verbal domain in 2015 than in 2013. Meanwhile, cisgender women provided more definitions in the Verbal domain in 2015 than in 2013 (82.6% vs. 77.3%). There were no other statistically significant differences within any other demographic subgroup for this domain.

The proportion of participants who used the Verbal domain was also examined for participants who had experienced sexual misconduct against those who had not. Those who experienced sexual misconduct were significantly more likely to report Verbal domain elements in their definitions of consent than those who had no such experience.

Yes Domain

Definition: Provided a "yes means yes" definition of consent. Examples: "Yes." "Verbal yes." "They say yes."

The Yes domain was included in 46.8% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 53.1% of definitions in 2015. That increase was statistically significant. The proportion of participants including the Yes domain in their definitions of consent was consistent across all demographic subgroups. However, participants who experienced sexual misconduct included Yes domain elements at a rate significantly higher than those who had no sexual misconduct experience.

Asking Domain

Definition: Consent was defined by asking the partners. Examples: "I ask." "I ask if they want to …"

The Asking domain was included in 28.1% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 24.4% of definitions in 2015. The change in rates represented a statistically significant decrease in the domains use from 2013 to 2015. There were no significant differences in the proportion of participants of different academic years, gender identities, or racial/ethnic backgrounds who included the Asking domain in their definitions of consent. However, there were significant differences in the use of the Asking domain across participants of different sexual orientation subgroups and across survey year. For both non-heterosexual (37.4% in 2013 and 28.5% in 2015) and heterosexual participants (25.6% in 2013 and 23.2% in 2015), there was a decrease in the proportion whose consent definition included the Asking domain from 2013 to 2015. Yet, across both years, non-heterosexual participants used that domain more often in their definitions.

Clear and Enthusiastic Domain

Definition: Cited enthusiasm, clarity, or explicitness of intention by partner in their definition. Examples: "They clearly indicate their interest." "They explicitly say yes."

The Clear and Enthusiastic domain was included in 19.4% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 29.6% of definitions in 2015, representing the largest increase of any domain across survey administrations. That increase was statistically significant. The use of the Clear and Enthusiastic domain was less stable across a variety of demographic subgroups. For example, while there were no significant differences in the rates that domain was used across academic years in both 2013 and 2015, the proportion of second-year, third-year, and fourth- or fifth-year students who used elements of the Clear and Enthusiastic domain increased significantly from 2013 to 2015 (see Table CD3). The increase observed for first-year students was not statistically significant.

Table CD3. Proportion of participants using the Clear and Enthusiastic consent domain across academic year and

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th/5th Year
2013	24.3%	16.9%	16.0%	13.7%
2015	29.1%	31.3%	28.7%	24.6%

Gender identity differences by survey year also emerged for the use of the Clear and Enthusiastic domain. For transgender or other gender participants, there was a very small decline in the use of Clear and Enthusiastic elements in consent definitions from 2013 to 2015 (50.0% to 48.3%). While still using the domain less frequently, the opposite was true for cisgender women (18.3% to 29.1%) and men (19.3% to 28.5%), who both increased use from 2013 to 2015. The proportionally higher use of Clear and Enthusiastic consent elements by transgender and other gender participants than that by cisgender women and men was statistically significant.

Responses utilizing Clear and Enthusiastic domain elements in consent definitions were unstable across sexual orientation subgroups by survey year. In 2015, heterosexual participants provided

fewer definitions under the domain than non-heterosexual participants (25.4% vs. 37.2%). The differences between heterosexual and non-heterosexual consent definitions for Clear and Enthusiastic domains was not significantly different (17.4% vs. 20.1%). However, there was a significant increase in the domain's use from 2013 to 2015 for both sexual orientation groups.

While proportionally more international students used the Clear and Enthusiastic consent domain in 2013 and proportionally fewer of those students used the domain in 2015, no significant differences in rates of Clear and Enthusiastic emerged across racial or ethnic background groups for either survey year (see Table CST4). However, significant increases were observed for both domestic students of color and domestic white or Caucasian participants. The difference observed for international students across survey years was not statistically significant.

Table CD4. Proportion of participants using the Clear and Enthusiastic consent domain by ethnic/racial background and survey year

	2013	2015
Domestic Students of Color	17.1%	28.9%
International Students	23.1%	12.1%
Domestic White / Caucasian	19.8%	31.6%

Affirmative Domain

Definition: Engagement from the partner was needed for consent. Words like "desire", "want," "actively engaged," "agreed," and "respond positively" were all coded as affirmative.

The Affirmative domain was included in 21.4% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 24.8% of definitions in 2015. The change represented a statistically significant increase. The proportion of participants who employed elements of the Affirmative domain in their definitions of consent was statistically consistent across all demographic subgroups and across survey administration. However, different proportions of the use of the Affirmative domain emerged between those who had and those who had not experienced sexual misconduct. Participants with no experience of sexual misconduct provided more definitions using the Affirmative domain than participants with experience in 2013 (23.6% vs. 18.3%). Both groups' use of the Affirmative domain increased from 2013 to 2015, but the difference in rates was smaller (27.5% vs. 23.3%).

Continuous Domain

Definition: Consent was necessary for every sexual act and was needed throughout the entire encounter. Examples: "Before every new activity, I ask again." "A yes one time does not mean a yes for the entire night."

The Continuous domain was included in 12.4% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 15.9% of definitions in 2015. The change represented a statistically significant increase. Definitions with the Continuous domain were also employed differentially across academic and survey year. While in 2013, no significant differences were observed for the use of the Continuous domain across academic years, in 2015, fourth- and fifth-year participants employed

that domain at a rate significantly higher than those in younger academic years. Further, only fourth- or fifth-year students exhibited a statistically significant change in the rate of the use of the Continuous domain from 2013 to 2015.

Table CD5. Proportion of participants using the Continuous consent domain across academic year and survey year

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th/5th Year
2013	12.1%	16.3%	12.7%	12.1%
2015	15.6%	14.6%	13.3%	23.5%

Participants of different gender identities also used the Continuous domain at different rates. Transgender or other gender participants included Continuous elements in 29.3% of consent definitions, while Continuous elements were included in 15.1% of the definitions of cisgender women and 14.4% of cisgender men. No significant changes were observed for any gender identity group across survey years.

Overall, non-heterosexual participants included the Continuous domain in their consent definitions at a significantly higher rate than did heterosexual participants. However, when separated by survey year, the difference was only apparent in 2015, where 23.6% of non-heterosexual and 14.0% of heterosexual participants included Continuous domain elements. The change in rates from 2013 to 2015 was only marginally significant for non-heterosexual participants (15.8% to 23.6%). There were no significant differences in the use of Continuous domain use for participants of different ethnic or racial backgrounds or for participants who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct.

Sober Domain

Definition: No drugs or alcohol could be involved in the encounter. Example: "Both parties must be sober in order to have consent."

The Sober domain was included in 15.4% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 11.2% of definitions in 2015. The change represents a statistically significant decrease from 2013 to 2015. This drop is largely attributable to the change from 2013 to 2015 in first- and second-year students' use of the Sober domain (see Table CST6). While changes in rates for third- and fourth- or fifth-year participants were not significant, both first- and second-year participants in 2015 referenced Sober domain elements in their consent definition less often than their 2013 counterparts. There were no significant differences in the use of Sober domain use within subgroups of gender identity, sexual orientation, race or ethnicity, and those who had and had not experienced sexual misconduct.

Table CD6. Proportion of participants using the Sober consent domain across academic year and survey year

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th/5th Year
2013	22.9%	16.3%	10.0%	8.9%
2015	13.4%	9.1%	12.2%	10.7%

Nonverbal Domain

Definition: Defined consent by body language and nonverbal cues. Examples: "I look at their response …" "They nod their head and give nonverbal agreement."

The Nonverbal domain was included in 12.2% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 13.6% of definitions in 2015. The difference was not statistically significant. There were no statistically significant differences in the use of the Nonverbal domain across any demographic subcategories or across survey administration.

Mutual Domain

Definition: Defined consent as a discussion that included both partners. Used words like "mutual," "we," "both."

The Mutual domain was included in 12.2% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 7.4% of definitions in 2015, representing the largest decrease in any single domain's use across survey administrations. The change represents a statistically significant decrease from 2013 to 2015. Though no significant differences were observed in the use of Mutual domain elements across members of different academic years, statistically significant decreases in the use of that domain from 2013 to 2015 was observed for both second- (12.8% to 4.5%) and third-year students (14.0% to 6.1%). Further, although rates of including Mutual domain elements were consistent across gender identity groups, both cisgender female (12.3% to 8.1%) and cisgender male participants (10.8% to 4.2%) used that domain significantly less often in 2015 in their definitions of consent than in 2013. Transgender or other gender participants used that domain equivalently across survey years. There were no statistically significant differences in the use of the Nonverbal domain across the remaining demographic subcategories or across survey administration.

Of Sound Mind Domain

Definition: Similar to sober, participants must be able to rationally make decisions; however, they did not have to be totally sober. Example: "They cannot be too drunk and must be emotionally/physically able to consent."

The Sound Mind domain was included in 8.2% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 8.7% of definitions in 2015. The observed difference was not statistically significant. There were no statistically significant differences for any demographic categories within the Sound Mind domain. However, different patterns of using that domain in consent definitions where observed across survey year for those who had experienced sexual misconduct and those who had not. Specifically, while there were no significant differences in the use of the Sound mind across survey years for those who had not experienced sexual misconduct (9.5% to 8.2%), the proportion of victims including elements of the Sound Mind domain in their consent definitions significantly increased from 4.0% in 2013 to 8.3% in 2015. This increase resulted in the rates observed for these two groups being statistically equivalent in 2015.

Noncoercive Domain

Definition: Consent must be willingly given; pressure, force, and manipulation do not equate to consent. Example: "My partner actively gives consent without any pressure from me; I stop if they feel uncomfortable."

The Noncoercive domain was included in 3.8% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 4.6% of definitions in 2015. The difference was not statistically significant. There were no statistically significant differences in the use of the Noncoercive domain across any demographic subcategories or across survey administration.

Partner-Initiated Domain

Definition: Cited their partners as the agent instead of themselves. Example: "I wait for my partner to initiate any sexual activity."

The Partner-Initiated domain was included in 4.7% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 1.6% of definitions in 2015. The difference was not statistically significant. No differences were observed across demographic subgroups for rates of using the Partner-Initiated domain, and declines in its use from 2013 to 2015 were observed consistently across all demographic subgroups.

Relationship Domain

Definition: Cited a relationship with the person as a need for different definitions of consent. Example: "After being in a relationship with someone you just know when they want to have sex; you don't have to ask for consent every time, but you should in the beginning."

The Relationship domain was included in 3.7% of participant consent definitions in 2013 and 1.4% of definitions in 2015. The difference was not statistically significant. Similar to the previous domain, no differences were observed across demographic subgroups for rates of using the Relationship domain, and declines in its use from 2013 to 2015 were observed consistently across all demographic subgroups.

INTOXICATION AND CONSENT

Participants were asked the open-response question, "Do you believe two people who have been drinking or using other recreational drugs can have consensual sex?" Judges independently reviewed the first 100 responses to identify candidate domains and after discussion coded those responses and the remaining responses into one or more of seven domains: Absolutely Yes, Depends on Intoxication Level, Depends on Other Factors, If There Was Previous Agreement, Absolutely No, Unsure or I Don't Know, and Other. Because so few participants provided responses that fit the Unsure or I Don't Know and Other domain, those responses were not analyzed further. Definitions of domains are provided below.

- *Absolutely Yes*: Responses indicated a firm yes that sex could be consensual when both individuals had been drinking or doing drugs. Examples: "Yes." "Yes. I know a lot of people who drink to make hooking up easier."

- *Depends on Intoxication Level*: Responses in this category indicated that consent was contingent on the level of intoxication of one or both parties. Example: "Only if they have had one or two drinks."
- *Depends on Other Factors*: Responses indicated that consent depended on other elements of the situation. Example: "In certain situations. It's a judgment call."
- *If There Was Previous Agreement*: Responses indicated that sex was consensual if the partners had consented to sex before initiating drinking or the nature of their relationship dictated it was okay. Example: "Yes, with an agreement before the time of inebriation or drug."
- *Absolutely No*: Response indicated that sex could not be consensual in any situation if both parties had been drinking or doing recreational drugs. Example: "No, their thinking has been compromised."

Inter-rater Reliability

In order to assess the level of agreement between judges for qualitative coding, the kappa statistic was calculated for each domain. When kappa values were below 0.70, the judges returned to the original items for that domain, discussed discrepancies, and arrived at a consensus decision about how to code those statements. Final kappa values for each domain are listed in Table CD7.

Domains by Survey Year

The most common response domain across survey years was Absolutely Yes (38.1%). This was followed by Depends on Intoxication Level (24.8%) and Absolutely No (23.4%). Less frequent domains included Depends on Other Factors (11.0%) and If There Was Previous Agreement (9.3%). The proportion advancing these different responses in total and by survey year is presented in Table CD7.

Significant differences emerged for the expression of three types of responses across survey years. Significantly fewer (-6.2%) participants in 2015 provided an Absolutely Yes response than in 2013. Alternatively, there was a significant increase in the proportion of participants who acknowledged that consent in such situations Depends on Intoxication Level between 2013 and 2015 (+6.1%). A significant decrease in endorsement of Previous Agreements being sufficient for consent after intoxication occurred from 2013 to 2015 (-3.6%).

The Grinnell College consent policy states, regarding intoxication, "An individual who is physically incapacitated from alcohol and/or other drug consumption (voluntarily or involuntarily), or is unconscious, unaware, or otherwise physically helpless is considered unable to give consent." The policy does not rule out the possibility that consent for sexual activity can be given when one or both members are mildly or even moderately intoxicated. It disallows, however, sexual conduct when one or more partners are incapacitated. After the implementation of these changes to the consent policy in 2013, it appears that significantly more participants in 2015 recognize that intoxication level can and should be considered when identifying fully informed consent.

Table CD7. Inter-rater reliability and proportion of domain endorsement

	Kappa	2013	2015	Total	Difference	
Absolutely Yes	0.97	41.5%	35.3%	38.1%	-6.2%	*
Depends on Intoxication Level	0.93	21.4%	27.5%	24.8%	6.1%	*
Absolutely No	0.97	22.9%	23.8%	23.4%	0.9%	
Depends on Other Factors	1.00	10.8%	11.2%	11.0%	0.4%	
If Previous Agreement	0.95	11.2%	7.6%	9.3%	-3.6%	*
Unsure/I Don't Know	0.89	1.3%	0.7%	1.0%	-0.6%	

Note Percentages do not add up to 100% because participant could specify a response that included more than one domain. * = Difference is significant.

Absolutely Yes Domain

Definition: Responses indicated a firm yes that sex could be consensual when both individuals had been drinking or doing drugs. Examples: "Yes." "Yes. I know a lot of people who drink to make hooking up easier."

In 2013, 41.5% of participants provided a response consistent with the Absolutely Yes domain. That proportion was significantly smaller in 2015 (38.1%). The rates of providing a response consistent with this domain were examined across several demographic subgroups to identify if groups tend to hold different definitions of content, as it relates to intoxication.

A significant difference emerged in the proportion of participants whose responses fit the Absolutely Yes domain among participants of different academic years. First-year participants reported that consensual sex was acceptable in this situation (31.2%) less often than second- (39.8%), third- (38.3%), and fourth- or fifth-year participants (41.4%). Additionally, endorsement differences were observed by survey year for both second-year participants and total participants, as participants in 2013 reported yes more frequently than in 2015 (second years, 45.3% vs. 34.7%; total, 41.2% vs. 34.8%).

Significant differences in the proportion providing responses that fit the Absolutely Yes domain emerged between participants of different gender identities in 2015 and in total. Cisgender male participants reported that consensual sex could happen in this situation more often in 2015 (45.2%) and in total (45.9%) than both transgender/other gender participants (2015, 34.5%; total, 33.3%) and cisgender female participants (2015, 28.3%; total, 33.1%). Additionally differences by survey year emerged for cisgender female participants. Cisgender female participants in 2013 gave responses more frequently that indicated that consensual sex could be had under the influence of alcohol or other drugs than cisgender female participants in 2015 (38.6% vs. 28.3%).

There were also significant differences in the use of the Absolutely Yes domain between participants of different sexual orientations in 2015, as well as in total. Heterosexual participants responded that consensual sex could be had when the parties had been drinking or doing other recreational drugs more frequently than non-heterosexual participants in both 2015 (37.5% vs. 29.3%) and in total (39.9% vs. 33%).

No significant differences in providing Absolutely Yes responses were observed across participants of different racial or ethnic background. However, significant differences were observed across survey year for international students. International students in 2013 more frequently responded with an answer of Absolutely Yes than in 2015 (56.7% vs. 30.8%).

No significant differences in the proportion providing Absolutely Yes types of responses were observed between those who had and those who had not experienced sexual misconduct.

Depends on Intoxication Level Domain

Definition: Responses in this category indicated that consent was contingent on the level of intoxication of one or both parties. Example: "Only if they have had one or two drinks."

In 2013, 21.4% of participants provided a response consistent with the Depends on Intoxication Level domain. That proportion was significantly higher in 2015 (27.5%). The analysis of the Depends on Intoxication Level domain exposed several significant differences in endorsement patterns across demographic subgroups. For example, the proportion endorsing this domain was not consistent across participants of different academic years. Across both survey administrations, third-year participants had the highest rate of reporting that intoxication level was a factor. In 2013, third-year participants reported that their responses depended on the level of intoxication more frequently (27.4%) than all other academic class years (24.1% for first year; 15.5% for second year; 22.3% for fourth and fifth year). In 2015, second- (33.3%) and third-year participants (33.0%) reported that intoxication level was a factor more frequently than first- (24.8%) and fourth- or fifth-year participants (20.2%).

No significant differences in the proportion of participants providing Depends on Intoxication Level responses were observed across members of different gender identities. However, cisgender female participants endorsed these types of responses more significantly more often in 2015 than in 2013 (28.1% vs. 20.6%). Patterns of endorsement were stable for transgender or other gender participants and cisgender male participants across survey years.

Statistically significant differences in the use of the Depends on Intoxication Level domain were observed for participants of different sexual orientations. In both 2013 and 2015, more non-heterosexual participants endorsed this domain (30.6% in 2013 and 34.1% in 2015) than heterosexual participants (19.2% in 2013 and 24.9% in 2015). However the increase in use from 2013 to 2015 was only significant for heterosexual participants.

Significant differences in endorsement patterns for the Depends on Intoxication Level domain emerged for participants of different racial or ethnic backgrounds. Domestic white or Caucasian participants reported that consent depended on intoxication level the most frequently in 2013 (24.1%) and 2015 (30.8%) than did domestic students of color (15.7% and 18.6%) and international students (6.7% and 20.5%). Further, the only significant increase in endorsement of this domain occurred for domestic white or Caucasian students. The other observed increases were not statistically significant.

The patterns of endorsing the Depends on Intoxication Level domain were not stable across participants who had and who had not experienced sexual misconduct and across survey year. While experience with sexual misconduct was not related to the use of this domain in 2015 (27.4% with no experience and 27.6% for those who experienced misconduct), a significant difference emerged in 2013. Of those with no experience of sexual misconduct, 24.5% provided responses consistent with the Depends on Intoxication Level domain. That rate was higher than the rate observed for those who had experienced sexual misconduct (17.1%). Further, the change in rates of endorsement from 2013 to 2015 for those who experienced sexual misconduct was statistically significant.

Absolutely No Domain

Definition: Response indicated that sex could not be consensual in any situation if both parties had been drinking or doing recreational drugs. Example: "No, their thinking has been compromised."

In 2013, 22.9% of participants provided a response consistent with the Absolutely No domain. That proportion was not statistically different from the proportion observed in 2015 (23.8%).

Across academic years, statistically significant differences emerged in patterns of providing responses consistent with the Absolutely No domain. In both 2013 and 2015, first-year participants were more likely to provide an Absolutely No response (30.2% in 2013 and 34.5% in 2015) than second- (24.2% and 18.3%), third- (15.9% and 20.2%) and fourth- or fifth-year participants (18.5% and 22.2%). The differences in rates of endorsement between survey years were not significantly different for participants of any single academic year.

Cisgender female participants were significantly more likely to provide a response consistent with the Absolutely No domain in both 2013 (26.0%) and 2015 (29.6%) than cisgender male (18.9% and 16.1%) and transgender or other gender participants (7.5% and 17.2%). Despite the apparent differences in rates across survey years for participants of the three gender identity categories, none of the differences were statistically significant.

While no significant difference in the provision of Absolutely No types of responses were observed between non-heterosexual and heterosexual participants in 2015 (23.1% and 24.2%, respectively), significant differences emerged between the two groups in 2013. In that year, heterosexual participants reported Absolutely No types of responses (24.1%) more frequently than did non-heterosexual participants (15.0%). Further, the increase in use of Absolutely No types of responses from 2013 to 2015 for non-heterosexual participants was marginally significant.

No significant differences in the rates of providing an Absolutely No type of response emerged across members of different racial or ethnic groups in 2013. However, statistically significant differences were observed among these groups in 2015. Specifically, domestic students of color endorsed Absolutely No types of responses at a higher rate (37.2%) than both international students (28.2% and domestic white or Caucasian participants (20.2%). No significant differences were found for the use of Absolutely No responses for any single racial or ethnic group across survey year.

An analysis of the use of the Absolutely No domain across sexual misconduct experience revealed no significant differences in the use of that domain across groups or across survey years.

Depends on Other Factors Domain

Definition: Response indicated that consent depended on other elements of the situation.
Example: "In certain situations. It's a judgment call."

In 2013, 10.8% of participants provided a response consistent with the Depends on Other Factors domain. That proportion was not statistically different from the one observed in 2015 (11.2%).

Unlike previous domains, there were no significant differences in the proportions of participants who provided responses citing this factor across academic years, and rates did not change across survey year for any individual academic year. Alternatively, responses reflecting the Depends on Other Factors domain remained stable across gender identity groups in 2015, but in 2013, transgender or other gender participants provided such responses at rates significantly higher (30.8%) than cicsgender females (10.8%) and cisgender males (9.3%). Additionally, the rate of providing Depends on Other Factors types of responses decreased significantly for transgender or other gender participants from 2013 (30.8%) to 2015 (6.9%). The rates for the other two gender identity groups were stable across survey administration.

There were also significant differences between participants of different sexual orientations in the use of the Depends on Other Factors domains in 2013, but not in 2015. In 2013, a greater proportion of non-heterosexual participants indicated that consent Depends on Other Factors (15.6%) than heterosexual participants (9.1%), while in 2015 the rates were 13.9% and 10.5%, respectively. The changes in rates across survey administration were not statistically significant for either group.

Similarly, while rates of providing responses consistent with the Depends on Other Factors differed significantly across groups from different racial or ethnic backgrounds in 2013, no rate differences were observed in 2015 across those groups. In 2013, domestic white or Caucasian participants responded with that domain at higher rates (12.7%) than both domestic students of color (4.5%) and international students (3.3%). While rates increased from 2013 to 2015 for the use of this domain for domestic students of color (9.0%) and international students (12.8%), these differences were not statistically significant. The rate of domestic white or Caucasian participants using this domain in 2015 (12.0%) also was not significantly different from the rate observed in 2013.

When examining responses using the Depends on Other Factors domain by whether or not they had experienced sexual misconduct, no statistically significant differences emerged across groups or across survey administration for either group.

If There Was Previous Agreement Domain

Definition: Response indicated that sex was consensual if the partners had consented to sex before initiating drinking or the nature of their relationship dictated it was okay. Example: "Yes, with an agreement before the time of inebriation or drug."

In 2013, 11.2% of participants provided a response consistent with the If There Was Previous Agreement domain. That proportion was significantly higher than the proportion observed in 2015 (7.6%). The decrease across time potentially signals the greater recognition that willingness to consent may change over time, particularly after intoxication.

There were no significant differences in the use of the Previous Agreement domain across participants of different academic years in both 2013 and 2015. Also, rates of the use of this domain decreased for participants of all academic years across survey administrations, but the rate drop was statistically significant only for first-year participants (13.6% to 6.7%). No significant differences in the use of the Previous Agreement domain were observed for participants of different gender identity groups in either survey year or across survey year for any single gender identity group.

A significant difference in the use of the Previous Agreement domain emerged across participants of different sexual orientations in 2013 but not in 2015. In 2013, non-heterosexual participants responded in ways consistent with this domain more significantly frequently than heterosexual participants in both 2013 (17.0% and 9.3%, respectively). Both groups provided fewer Previous Agreement responses in 2015 (10.1% and 6.9%, respectively), but the rate drop was only statistically significant for non-heterosexual participants.

No significant differences emerged for the use of the Previous Agreement domain across participants of different racial or ethnic backgrounds in 2013 and 2015. Although the frequency of this domain's use dropped for all racial or ethnic background groups from 2013 to 2015, the rate drop was statistically significant only for domestic white or Caucasian participants (12.9% to 9.2%).

Marginally significant differences in the use of the Previous Agreement domain emerged between those who had and those who had not experienced sexual misconduct in both survey administration years. In 2013, those participants who had experienced sexual misconduct more frequently responded consistent with this domain (13.8%) than those who had no sexual misconduct experience (9.4%). The pattern reversed in 2015 (5.3% and 8.9%, respectively). Further, the change in rates from 2013 to 2015 was statistically significant only for those who had experienced sexual misconduct.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

After changing the consent definition in 2013, there was a marked increase in participant definitions that align with Grinnell College's new affirmative consent policy. In particular, participants provided proportionally more definitions related to active consent processes, such as the need for verbal, clear and enthusiastic, and/or continuous consent. Generally, participants provided definitions similar to Grinnell College's affirmative consent; and though some

significant differences did emerge, these definitions were largely stable across demographic subgroups.

The Grinnell College consent policy states: "An individual who is physically incapacitated from alcohol and/or other drug consumption (voluntarily or involuntarily), or is unconscious, unaware, or otherwise physically helpless is considered unable to give consent." The policy does not rule out the possibility that consent for sexual activity can be given when one or both members are mildly or even moderately intoxicated. It disallows, however, sexual conduct when one or more partners are incapacitated. After the implementation of these changes to the consent policy in 2013, it appears that significantly more participants in 2015 recognize that intoxication level can and should be considered when identifying fully informed consent. Fewer students in 2015 reported that it was absolutely okay for people who have been drinking or doing other recreational drugs to consent to having sex than in 2013. A similar decline was observed for participants reporting that consent while sober extends to consent after intoxication. Additionally, proportionally more students in 2015 reported that the ability to give consent depended on the level of intoxication. These findings taken together indicate that students are becoming aware of the gray area that alcohol and other drugs play in the consent process. More in 2015 than in 2013, they understood that just the presence of alcohol or other drugs does not inhibit one's ability to give or obtain consent, but that intoxication level in an important variable to consider.

PARTICIPANTS' PREVENTION RECOMMENDATIONS

The survey concluded with the open-ended question, "What advice do you have for reducing sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse on campus?" A total of 700 participants responded to this question (n = 340 in 2013; n = 360 in 2015).

Qualitative analyses of these questions were performed using two judges and one auditor using a modified Consensual Qualitative Research (CQR) design (Hill et al., 1997; Hill et al., 2005). Participant responses were coded into four broad of domains: suggestions for different types of education, recommendations for changes to cultural elements around parties and sex, suggestions for changes to administrative structure and policy, and other reactions that could not be categorized in the previous three. Within each domain, several subdomains emerged and are described below.

In general, participants in 2013 provided longer and more diverse responses to these questions than participants in 2015. For example, the median length of responses to the question about advice for reducing sexual misconduct was 168 characters in 2013 and 150 in 2015. Despite similar median response lengths, and owing to the highly positive skew of the frequency distributions, the mean response length was significantly longer in 2013 (M = 268.1, SD = 315.6) than in 2015 (M = 216.8, SD = 252.9; $t(564.9) = 3.81$, $p < .05$). Similarly, participants in 2013 provided responses that were coded more often into more than one subdomain (M = 2.2, SD 1.6) than participants in 2015 (M = 1.7, SD = 1.6; $t(692.1) = 3.95$, $p < .05$).

What follows is description of the each domain and subdomain with frequency data and example responses taken from participants to illustrate each domain and subdomain. Please note that spelling and grammar errors were not corrected in the provided example participant responses (except where noted with brackets). Also note that the presentation of recommendations below does not constitute the support of the authors of this report. Instead, they are provided to illustrate student ideas for change. Finally, all efforts were made to illustrate domains and subdomains with quotations from participants in 2015 to provide the more current student perspective.

EDUCATION

A majority of all participants in both survey years (58.0%) requested more education to aid in the prevention of instances of sexual misconduct. However, the percentage of participants who requested more education decreased from 2013 (67.6%) to 2015 (48.9%). This decrease might suggest that a greater proportion of students in 2015 were more satisfied with educational efforts on sexual misconduct topics than in 2013. Yet, a substantial number of participants continue to want more education.

Specific areas of education and corresponding proportion of participants who requested those types of education are listed in Table PRP1.

Table PRP1. Proportion of participants who requested specific education categories by survey year.

Type of Education	2013	2015	Total	
Any Mention of Education	67.6%	48.9%	58.0%	*
General Education	25.9%	16.9%	21.3%	*
Consent	19.1%	12.2%	16.5%	*
Increased Dialogue	16.2%	8.6%	12.3%	*
Target Potential Perpetrators	8.8%	8.3%	8.6%	
Active Bystander Training	7.6%	9.2%	8.4%	
Target First-Year Students	9.7%	4.7%	7.1%	*
Clarify Definitions	9.4%	4.4%	6.9%	*
Target Potential Victims	7.9%	3.9%	5.9%	*

Note The denominator used to calculate percentages was the total number of participants who responded to this question. Sorted by total sample endorsement percentage. The sum of percentages for all specific categories does not equal the value for any mention because participants could signal a desire multiple types of specific education.
* Statistically significant difference between participant endorsement rates from 2013 to 2015 ($p < .05$).

General Education

Definition: Participant expressed a desire for education, but did not make any specific request. These responses included requests like "more education" and "teach people." For all participants, 21.3% of participants requested general education. The proportion of these types of requests dropped significantly from 25.9% in 2013 to 16.9% in 2015.

The nature of these requests was less specific and provided little guidance about the types of education that participants believed would be most effective to preventing future incidents of sexual misconduct. For example, several limited their response to "more education" or "educating people." Another type of common response in this category was "Increased awareness of these issues is essential."

Consent Training

Definition: Participants mentioned consent in their response in the context of enhancing education, the difficulty of definitional nuance, or the lack of clear definition from the college. These responses often included participants' desire to learn 1) what consent is and who can give it and when, 2) how to ask for consent, and 3) how to say "no" to unwanted sexual encounters.

In total, 16.5% of participants mentioned wanting education on one or more topics related to consent. The proportion of participants who identified this need in 2015 (12.2%) was significantly lower than those in 2013 (19.1%).

Generally, a strong theme emerged throughout consent-training responses about the need for more mandatory training, beyond what students receive during New Student Orientation. For example, one participant stated, "Require more mandatory sessions about sexual assault and consent. We need to change people's conceptions of what is acceptable and what is not when it

comes to sex." Another added, "Teach consent to all students throughout the year and each year. Teach transfer students who do not go through orientation what consent is." A third added the need to provide variety in the types of trainings and discussions offered: "I really think making consent and violence prevention education a mandatory part of a Grinnell College degree is the way to go. Mandatory, so that we can create a culture that says 'violence prevention is the norm here. There is institutional support and reward for students educating themselves and keeping care of the community.' Students could get credit for these classes (like a short course or something), but also would have an ongoing opportunity to watch and reflect upon how their own thoughts about consent and violence, and those of their peers, change over the course of their time here. As a senior, I can say that this sort of education and discussion got increasingly lackluster with each year; again, shout out to all the students and staff doing that, but there's only so many times that I can listen to what ever it is 'affirmative consent' means."

Some expressed confusion about the nature of consent and wanted educational efforts to give greater clarity to what consent looks like, particularly around intoxication. For example, one participant stated, "CONSENT WORKSHOPS!!!!!! I didn't even know about consent until I got to college." Another expressed confusion this way, "I devote a lot of my own time to thinking about consent and sexual health in general, and some questions still puzzle me. I think so many students think they know it all when it comes to consent, but this is clearly not the case." Some described needing greater clarity about the consent definition, such as: "Definition of consent needs to be more clear, and people need to understand that others can't give official consent when their judgement is impaired by alcohol/drugs." Still others added that additional attention during consent education needs to focus on people already in intimate or dating relationships. For example, "Educate the guys, especially. I had a hard time convincing my boyfriend that there is a need for a verbal consent. He thinks that unless the girl stops him, he is free to do whatever. Everyone needs to know that the lack of 'no' doesn't mean 'yes.'"

Many specifically identified that consent education needs to focus on who can give consent and under what circumstances when drugs or alcohol are involved. For example, one participant asked, "Discussing the blurry line of when two people have sex when intoxicated — at what point can they not consent?" Another stated, "I can't magically tell when my best friend is blacked out, how can i tell when a potential partner is." A third participant added, "I think that sexual assault can be accidental when people are intoxicated because the lines of consent are blurred. For example, one person may not know the other person is blackout drunk and think that it is okay to have sex (perhaps because the two people are dating). I think there needs to be more discussion on consent and spefically, that consent is still important in exclusive or monogomous relationships." Another more generally stated, "PROVIDE and ENCOURAGE NUANCED understandings of sexual misconduct, what does it look like to actually have consensual sex."

Some expressed a need for educational efforts to provide examples of what consent looks like. For example, "Teach people what enthusiastic consent looks like, teach people to respect the wishes of their partners." Still others wanted educational efforts to equip them with the tools for saying "no" to unwanted sexual encounters. One had this to say, "Also, give people tools to learn how to say no — that's not victim-blaming, it's teaching people self-confidence and how to stand up for themselves. We've been teaching how to ask for consent for years, but we haven't taught anyone how to say no, we've just identified what an enthusiastic yes looks like." Another

added, "Teach prevention, active bystanderism, and how to effectively say no or how to extricate yourself or someone else from an uncomfortable situation, more regularly."

Campus Dialogue

Definition: Participant expressed a desire for more campus dialogue surrounding sexual misconduct. Some participants requested dialogue and information sessions for specific groups on campus (clubs and athletic teams were common requests), whereas others called for a campuswide discussion. Some requested one single meeting, some requested awareness weeks, and some requested continued open dialogues year-round.

Requests for campus dialogue decreased from 2013 (16.2%) to 2015 (8.6%), but in 2015 these requests still accounted for 17.6% of all education requests. Even through there was a decrease, in the 2015 survey there was still numerous specific mentions to increase dialogue, such as, there need to be "clear and honest in our discourse about responsibility."

There was a trend in the responses to this question that suggested the dialogue about sexual assault should be looked at on a wider scale and in a greater variety of contexts than what currently happens through New Student Orientation (NSO) programing, bystander training, or in groups that specifically focus on topics related to sex and sexuality. One student recommended "have more serious self gov talks and talk about hook up culture. About respect, diversity, and treatment of peers on individual levels. And maybe more serious talks about consequences. Not just active bystanderism and talks about sexual assault policy." This opinion was seconded in another response that mentioned discussions "really need to address the many issues that intersect with sexual misconduct on this campus, especially the widespread sense of entitlement to women's bodies, alcohol consumption, the culture of athletic teams, mental health, student stress, etc. I also think the college community needs to do a better job taking ownership of sexual misconduct as a major problem with our campus culture."

Others recommended that alternative formats might generate better dialogue. For example, "I think that there is a huge disparity in understanding of the issues of sexual misconduct and consent on this campus that make large forums, like those held in JRC 101 etc, less effective. Smaller discussions at a variety of entry levels leading up to large discussions could improve overall effectiveness of education. By improving this campus's baseline of understanding, better communication will be had by all." Another student gave a specific example of creating more intimate discussions through "offering more time to talk about these issues with floor meetings."

Target Potential Perpetrators

Definition: Participant requested preventative education efforts focused on targeting those most at risk of perpetrating sexual misconduct. Responses in this category ranged from statements of teaching people to be more respectful of others to targeting specific groups of people on campus (e.g., men, athletes).

In total, 8.6% of participants across both years provided recommendations related to this domain. The proportion of participants who made such recommendations was not significantly different across survey year.

A number of respondents focused on enhanced education relating to respect. For example, "Teach people how to be more respectful," "People need to have common decency, be respectful of other people," and "Mentors, advisors, and coaches need to be explicit on expectations of being a respectable and appropriate human being if they want to be a part of this community."

Other respondents acknowledged a lack of interest and engagement from those individuals who may be more likely to perpetrate sexual misconduct in participating in campus dialogue, as demonstrated in responses like, "Offenders don't attend talks about 'moving forward' or about strategies to reduce violence." Though ideas for bringing potential perpetrators to campus dialogue were rare, several expressed sentiments like, "We have so many great student-group led discussions/presentations on misconduct/dating abuse and have had some great speakers come to campus and talk about sexual assault and other forms of domestic violence, but so many of these events are attended almost exclusively by women and gay/bisexual men. In order to have productive conversations, we really need to find a way to bring heterosexual men to the table. I think that this population might avoid these kinds of conversations for fear of being implicated, and we need to frame discussions on misconduct as ways for us all to learn from each other's experiences in order to change our behavior in a way that is respectful to other people on campus."

Additionally, some respondents requested education targeted specifically at men, "Focus on training and programs like Real Men to deter rapists." Another stated, "EDUCATE THE BOYS my understanding of misconduct and abuse comes from years of voluntary consumption of feminist media, and from female relatives and friends, and self defense classes, etc. most boys do not have these resources provided to them." Some wanted education targeted specifically at athletic teams. For example, here are some representative comments related to beliefs that student-athletes perpetrate sexual misconduct at greater rates than non-student-athletes: "Admit less athletes," "Educate the men, particularly the sports teams about violence and sexual misconduct," and "Teach teams — especially sports teams, as I've come to find through my time here — about all forms of sexual misconduct, including sexual harassment, something that goes unnoticed a lot of the time."

Finally one participant responded with a request for a combination of respectability education and male-targeted education: "A community effort to combat the idea, mostly prevalent among men, of sex and emotional/romantic contact as a conquest or an achievement, something to measure one's virility or self-worth by (i.e., the very idea of getting laid). Communicate to men in particular that this attitude is founded upon a deep lack of concern for the other person's well-being and desires, insofar as this attitude presupposes a view of one's own sexual partner or romantic interest as primarily an opportunity to boost one's own ego and procure sexual satisfaction and only secondarily as a person whose wishes and mental states in general carry just as much importance as one's own. In short I would recommend a community-wide protest against the elements of callousness and appropriation which are deeply-ingrained in a certain version of the concept of masculinity which is all-too prevalent, even at Grinnell College."

Active Bystander Training

Definition: Respondent requested more active bystander training or asked campus officials to teach students to engage in similar types of behaviors, such as "watch out for your friends at parties" and "step in if you see it." Active bystander programing focuses on training students to intervene when they observe situations that might escalate toward sexual misconduct or other harmful behaviors.

In total, 8.4% of participants made recommendations related to this domain, and there were no significant differences in the proportions of participants making those recommendations in 2013 and 2015. Participants continued to express a desire to keep the active bystander efforts on campus going. As one student stated, "I think active bystanderism is one important way to reduce these problems. Although the majority of the students here would say that they are against sexual misconduct and dating abuse, we need to promote a campus culture that confronts these problems directly and does not leave room or any type of acceptance for this type of behavior."

A trend in responses also outlined active bystander training as a tool to reach accused perpetrators that may not participate in other means of education: "Keep promoting active bystander policy. Many rapists are multiple offenders, and aren't very reachable with dialogue and education programs. Its a better use of resources to focus on the vast majority of sensible people, teaching them to intervene." One participant took this a step further, saying that there is a need for "more active bystander training, a greater focus on teaching those who commit these misconducts, and less on how people can protect themselves."

There was also a strong theme to increase the current active bystander training methods and target a wider audience. For example, one participant stated that the college should "integrate more information into NSO, have active bystander training for all students." One student outlined a very specific method where "EVERYBODY must go through intensive active bystander training (like a class) as a graduation requirement." Another noteworthy suggestion, which included the role of security, was to have "yearly active bystander training. More campus security (even if this is just student security) doing rounds on campus at night. It might be a better idea if it is student security as we are more likely to go to our peers."

Education for First-Year Students

Definition: Participant requested alterations of materials taught in New Student Orientation (NSO), tutorial, or other first year-geared experiences. Some examples of such requests: enhanced programming during NSO, special tutorial mentors who have been trained as advocates, mandatory gender, women's, and sexuality studies courses, mandatory readings during first year, etc.

Although 7.1% of all participants supplied such recommendations, the rates of these recommendations were significantly different by survey year. In 2013, 9.7% of participants mentioned a need for more or different education for first-year students, while only 4.7% of participants made such requests in 2015. This decrease potentially signals greater satisfaction with such programing in more recent years.

Some participants referenced their discontent with AlcoholEdu, an online program required of all incoming students that teaches safe drinking habits. These responses included, "Make active bystander training part of the NSO/introductory materials (like Alcohol.Edu). Encourage drinking responsibly with a less cheesy program than Alcohol.Edu. I know my year, a lot of people just walked away while videos were playing because the quizzes and information were laughably easy," and "You can't try to limit drinking in order to combat this. It's college. What you need is to address it at NSO in PERSON. Not over the internet."

Some students requested changes to the live events that occur during NSO, such as "Please provide better consent education during NSO and for existing students." Another wanted "more scenarios provided during NSO." A third stated, "Improve the sexual assault information sessions doing NSO and have continued workshops past NSO." This participant stated, "Incorporate a mandatory lecture series for fi[r]st years given by GWSS professors that address gender inequality and rape culture. These lectures should be discussed in tutorial. Or just make Intro GWSS a requirement." Others requested more specific changes in NSO programming, like "I think it's extremely important to use positive-enforcer programs for incoming freshmen to create a culture that prevents rape … I think that would be a huge step to curbing rape culture on our campus," and "Make sure that all incoming students know where they would go in situations when themselves or a friend were to have any type of problem on campus with another individual."

Definition Awareness

Definition: Participant expressed a desire for more concise or more readily accessible definitions of sexual misconduct. Some participants focused on definitions for specific types (e.g., intimate partner abuse, touching, stalking, etc.), whereas others focused on the dissemination of such definitions and their inclusion in the College's educational efforts.

In 2013, 9.3% of participants requested definition awareness. This rate significantly was higher than the proportion of participants who made such requests in 2015 (4.4%). However, combined, a total of 6.9% of all students requested clarity about definitions.

Some participants requested more general clarity on definitions. For example, "more education about definitions and full disclosure about what happens and how doeskins [sic] are made after report." Similarly, "there should be more education about what entails sexual misconduct, and teach people to respect each other." Another student expressed the opinion that "it's about changing a cultural mindset and establishing static definitions for what is and is not a violation." Lastly, "people need to understand that it is a problem on the campus and know the definition."

There was also a trend to include specific definitions of types of misconduct in the awareness programs. One common area mentioned was the definition of dating abuse. As an example, "Inform people of what exactly these are, and bring dating abuse into discussions more often" and "continue education [on] the campus about what constitutes sexual misconduct, consent, and dating abuse."

One student outlined a specific method to bring about definition awareness. "A reminder poster posted on the doors going into/out of Harris would go a long way (à la the 'wash your hands'

notifications on the dorm bathroom mirrors), notifying students on key elements of appropriate sexual conduct … However, the trick is to stress more how to behave appropriately. This is not to suggest that we eliminate advice, tips, reminders, or awareness concerning safety, but to make long-lasting reductions I think it would help to focus on increasing awareness. I think a lot of people don't talk about this because they are afraid; afraid of being ridiculed or afraid of offending someone, which perpetuates the lack of conversation and thus the ignorance that lends itself to sexual misconduct. By making sure everyone has an understanding on what qualifies as sexual misconduct (or what a situation that could lead to sexual misconduct looks like) and encouraging appropriate behavior we can enable students to have a more public dialogue that would reduce misconduct and create an atmosphere that is safe and consistent with Grinnell's Self-Gov policy."

Alternatively, some participants asked to limit the definition of sexual misconduct. As one example, "We need to redefine it, because even though I definitely know people, have spoken with people, and would consider myself to have been either placed in an uncomfortable situation, been sexually advanced upon without consent, or been a sexual assault survivor, I think people at this college may over-appropriate the term 'sexual assault.' Walking through the crowd at Harris and being 'touched', or dancing in the middle of a big, physically close together group and being rubbed against or touched, MAY be an accident … For some, going to a club means that you may accidentally be groped by someone passing by the 'clump' in the middle of the room, and I DO mean accidentally. If we are thinking that this is all problematic, then we would have to train people how to be the same. Doesn't this go against the values of Diversity on campus and against the ideology of asserting a specific mindset on people saying what is right and what is wrong. Now do not get me wrong, I DO believe everyone has a right to safety, mentally and physically. However, instead of taking a 'THIS IS WRONG' approach, a 'These are seen as problems' approach need to be made, and it can start with NSO."

A couple noted that false accusations could be a product of poor definition awareness. For example, "I think the grey area needs to be talked about more seriously. Maybe this is against popular opinion but as seen with the rolling stones article false accusations are made and while one should always trust the victim/survivor these instances can't be ignored. Accusations can destroy a person's life and I think really their needs to be a societal shift to yes means yes and if their is no yes than their is no sexual engagement … Also more education that giving people unwanted hugs/ touching in anyway is not appropriate. I think these are the more common actions that lead to feeling uncomfortable. I think we need more education on signs of dating abuse. I think this is another think we don't talk a lot about on campus because while we accept that rape happens I don't think we often realize, think about, or discuss dating abuse."

Target Potential Victims

Definition: Participant requested preventative education efforts focused on targeting those most at risk for becoming the victim of sexual misconduct. These requests often focused on promoting safe drinking habits, instructing students to stay with friends at parties, educating people on "self-respect" and that "it's OK to say no," and accessible self-defense courses. A small minority used this space to make more outright statements of victim blame.

In total, 5.9% of participants across both survey years requested educational efforts to reduce the risk of becoming a victim. However, a statistically significant difference in the proportion of participants making this request was observed between 2013 (7.9%) and 2015 (3.9%).

Some participants requested education instructing potential victims that it is okay to say "no" to unwelcomed sexual advances. For example, one participant stated, "Make sure people are aware what constitutes sexual misconduct, that it is okay to say no, what services are available." Another stated, "Also, give people tools to learn how to say no — that's not victim-blaming, it's teaching people self-confidence and how to stand up for themselves. We've been teaching how to ask for consent for years, but we haven't taught anyone how to say no, we've just identified what an enthusiastic yes looks like." A third stated, "I don't want this to sound like I'm blaming the victim, but I think we need to empower more people to say 'no.' I think a lot of the reason I was a assaulted several times my first year was because I was afraid if I said no to things people would get angry at me. I think if we teach more people to reject sexual encounters they don't want, they will happen less often. I can't guarantee this of course, but at least it will make the blurred lines between rape and regretted sex more clear. I realize it's hard to say no, and that's why I think its so important to empower people to know that they can and SHOULD say no when they don't want something."

Some participants made requests for specific types of victim-targeted preventative education, such as self-defense courses, legal information, and education geared toward empowerment and high self-esteem. For example, "Providing self-defense classes. These would help with confidence, ability to prevent unwanted abuse, and community support." Another stated, "I would really like to see womens wellness classes, things that could be taught could include self defense, how to watch out for an abusive relationship with yourself or your friends, safety tips such as the classic stay with friends, make it known to friends how you want a part to go, ect. I think that a lot of the people I know who get in hurt have low self-esteem as well, so that could be an element. I think for men there could be a similar program but from a different angle, like how to watch out for your lady friends, how to respect the answer, and how to show support." A third stated, "Hold workshops teaching students how to respect themselves and boost self-esteem. Also, improve mental health services on campus!!! People who are emotional secure are much less likely to tolerate an abusive relationship." Another added, "Information on Rape Kits and proper use for protection, just like they have sex talks at NSO,"

Some participants stressed the significance of alcohol consumption, party culture, and active bystanderism. For example, "Just because it is not your fault if you experience misconduct after getting drunk in a dangerous place, it doesn't mean it is a good idea. Just use common sense for safety. Stick with friends." Another stated, "Sometimes people need to learn how to drink alcohol. If you can't handle a few beers and you're going to make bad decisions or be in bad situations, then you probably shouldn't drink that much. That goes for both the aggressor and the victim." A third suggested "Trying to educate people on behaviors to reduce sexual misconduct (Stopping unwanted touching, drinking is not consent) and how to prevent it from happening (Watching how much you or your friends are drinking, Going home with friends, keeping an eye out for friends)."

CAMPUS CULTURE

Many participants responded to the final two open-ended questions to express concern about various elements of campus culture and their role in promoting sexual misconduct. In total 31.7% of all participant responses referenced one or more of these elements. However, a statistically significant difference in the proportion of participant responses describing campus culture elements emerged between participants in 2013 (39.7%) and in 2015 (24.2%).

Alcohol/Drugs

The use of alcohol and other drugs before and during campus parties was referenced as an underlying factor to sexual misconduct by 18.4% of participants in both years. These concerns were mentioned significantly more often in 2013 (23.8%) than in 2015 (13.3%).

There was a trend for participants to discuss the role of alcohol in consent. For example, "the grey area when both people are intoxicated/ using drug worries me." Another added, "Talk more about consent and the risks of having sex while drunk/high in terms of being able to give affirmative consent." Another participant more strongly stated "the elephant in the room is alcohol use. Technically no one can consent when both parties are intoxicated. That means that nearly everyone on campus has experienced rape, even if they enjoyed it and were fine with it."

There was also a cluster of participants who mentioned alcohol as an element of the overarching Grinnell culture. One participant stated that "the party culture on weekends is often a way for students to let off steam. Some do it [in] unproductive and harmful ways. My impression is that most assaults happen when either one or both of the people involved had been drinking." The idea of letting off steam was also mentioned in another response, "I think there is a correlation between the amount of work and stress on campus and depression/anxiety etc. and heavy drinking and drug use to get away from these problems. I think these can snowball and sometimes spiral into sexual misconduct and dating abuse. So I think continuing to reduce stress and promote well-being and healthy relationships will go a long way for a better campus and reducing these things."

Many participants mentioned the need for campuswide discussions about the role of alcohol in sexual misconduct. One student stated that, "Grinnell is a substance positive and sex positive campus. There are huge problems with sexual assault here. It needs to be talked about." Another student added that they "think it's odd how the link between alcohol and sexual assault is not highlighted more. I mean, students are going to drink regardless; so, I don't think tougher alcohol policies are the solution. It just seems like the majority of sexual assault cases arise because of alcohol. I'm really pessimistic about the situation and do not think there are any clear, easy ways to mitigate or prevent the issue. I think alcohol use is a really big problem. Really, all that can be done prevention-wise is education and awareness, which I think Grinnell does a good job at implementing." However another student mentioned a barrier to this, which was that "people don't want to talk about how alcohol interacts with sexual misconduct, which is a real problem."

Some participants attempted to convey that victim-survivors' choice to use alcohol or other drugs conferred some responsibility for sexual misconduct to the victim-survivor. The opinion of one student was that, "alcohol never excuses rape and it should never be used to incriminate a victim, but it's true that there are important interactions between alcohol and sexual misconduct

issues that should not go unaddressed." This was echoed by another student who said "many people on campus think it is 'fun' to get drunk and 'hook up', and don't want to acknowledge that this type of behavior is irresponsible and contributes to the sexual misconduct that happens on campus. It is not EVER your fault if you get raped. However, if you made the choice to drink and get drunk, then being drunk was an irresponsible choice you made." The last line portrayed the subtle notes of victim-blaming that occur when a victim did consume alcohol before the misconduct occurred.

Meanwhile other participants called for action in their responses. For example, one student suggested a change in the alcohol and other drug culture, "I think the drinking/drunk culture needs to be revised. From the sexual misconduct cases from stories of my friends and other people, people involved were misusing alcohol or drugs." Another student echoed this request, by saying that "the relationship between drinking and sexual misconduct must be considered. This does not mean banning drinking on campus, but rather seeking ways to make drinking safer for all involved."

One student expressed a fear of accidently sexually assaulting someone because of the blurred lines of consent when alcohol is involved. That student stated, "When I drink … my greatest fear is that I'll rape someone. Now I've never raped someone, and I don't think it 'likely' by any stretch of the word that I will but that's the fear that's at the back of my brain. Much of that fear comes from the knowledge that miscommunication does happen and, because of insecurity and discomfort people don't always protest. My worst thought is that I rape someone and while 'feelin' good' myself I'm causing so much pain, and that it could all have stopped because of a soft no (possibly not heard, possibly construed as playful). Slap me, punch me, kick me — Do *some*thing. That's my greatest fear."

Social Climate

Social climate was coded when participants mentioned one or more elements of the social climate, beyond the use of alcohol or other drugs and "hook-up culture" (described below), that either encourage sexual misconduct or place students at risk for being the victim of sexual misconduct. Across all participants in both survey years, 11.4% identified problematic elements of the social climate that needed to be addressed. In 2013, that proportion was 13.5%, which was not significantly higher than the rate observed in 2015 (9.4%).

Many of these participants referenced sexism, objectification, and rape culture in their responses. As one example, "Sense of male entitlement to the female body, objectification and dehumanization (which can be exacerbated by hookup culture)." Another stated, "I have no clue. Stop rape culture, I guess. Smash the patriarchy. I'm not being sarcastic; I really don't know how to fix this without fundamentally changing our culture." Still another participant stated, "There are interesting studies on Hypermasculine groups and how this creates a community which does not value women. Rape seems to largely involve a disregard for the value of the victim's life. Allowing for the creation of these communities and the lack of response against rapists creates a greater Grinnell community which enables rape."

Other participants referenced racism, homophobia, and/or transphobia. For example, "You need to talk about racism and homophobia in this survey — a lot of it is intra-community issues for

the queer community, and quite possibly for the communities of color here. and a lot of the problems come from other interactions of racism and homophobia and transphobia." Still another stated, "Also, never forget that men of color are accused of sexual misconduct far more than their white counterparts, not because they are worse offenders. This NEEDS to be remembered by the college during disciplinary hearings."

Finally, others gave responses relating to society more broadly. For example, "Unfortunately, we're waiting for society to figure out how not to rape, and until we teach it consistently with sex education, it probably won't get much better." Another stated, "I want the conversation to veer from a moral evaluation of a person's character. At the end of the day we have all been raised by the discriminatory system that is patriarchal and capitalistic. Questioning morals rather than trying to understand why people are the way they are does not seem to me the most sustainable or effective way to go about this. This is on the college, this is on the students, this is on the faculty and staff to change the narrative so that the conduct process can run with less heartache, hurt, and anger."

Hook-up Culture

The prevalence of a "hook-up culture" around campus parties was referenced as an underlying factor to sexual misconduct by 6.1% of participants in both years. These concerns were mentioned marginally more often in 2013 (7.9%) than in 2015 (4.4%).

There was a trend in responses that revolved around "hook-up culture" being engrained in Grinnell's social culture and different from cultures at other places. For example, "The hook-up culture is huge. I've met other students from other campuses and a majority understand hook up as making out with someone but to most grinnellians hooking up is having sex." Another participant made reference to the hook-up culture in general, saying that it "leads to a lot of sad people who feel pressured to 'get laid.' Mixing in binge drinking and adolescent hormones and you got a dangerous cocktail. Hook-up culture is not 'rape-culture'… It truly is On Us here because we choose our campus culture that exists independent of school sanctioned activities, but that doesn't mean we cannot get help."

Some participants conveyed confusion about the blurred lines between "a romantic relationship" and "a hookup." One student phrased it by saying that "people find themselves unsure about where they stand relationship-wise after 'hooking up'. A lot of the clarity can be brought to sexual relationships and sexual misconduct on campus if people discuss the nature of their sexual relationship before 'hooking up'. Facilitating this norm will eliminate any confusion concerning the sexual nature of relationships. Hopefully, reducing sexual misconduct."

One student hypothesized that there was a lack of responsibility for the other person because communication after a hookup is rare. "I think a lot has to do with our hook up culture and rape culture. Hook up culture can be healthy, but ours is not at grinnell. Once someone hooks up with another, we usually don't talk to that person again and try to ignore them. This prevents any check ups the next couple of days like 'hey was that alright for you?' Which detaches any sense of responsibility during the act and a lot of people are only out for their pleasure, which leads to assaults. Also because grinnell is so progressive many people don't think that we have a rape culture but we definitely do. The fact that we hide under progressiveness and don't talk about it

makes it worse. The way many people talk about sexual assault on campus is very victim-blaming and reflects national rape culture. Most Grinnellians just don't do it in such obvious ways or language."

The only trend of recommendations for changing the perceived role of the "hook-up culture" in sexual misconduct revolved around dialogue. One student said, "have an open dialogue about the way that people on campus feel about drunken hook-ups. I see so many of them on a regular basis and I think that it is a huge contributor to many acts of sexual misconduct." Additionally, another stated, "I think the campus should discuss the hook-up/dating culture more. Is it healthy? What is the prevalence of STDs on campus?" Another student mentioned that it is a tricky balance to strike. The student stated that "honestly, I think that the drinking and hook-up culture is partially to blame. Personally, I drink and smoke, and think that everyone should have a right to if they feel inclined. However, I realize, and have struggled with the fact, that often sexual assault occurs because people are intoxicated. It's hard to strike a balance, because I don't think punishing students for drinking or smoking responsibly is the answer, but also, how do you then prevent the emergence of a hook-up culture?"

Party Alternatives

The party alternatives domain was coded whenever participants requested changes to be made to current campus parties or when requests were made to create more substance-free substitutes for parties. In total, 6.3% of participants made such suggestions, while significantly more participants in 2013 (9.1%) requested party alternatives than participants in 2015 (3.6%).

Some participants requested the addition of new events, as demonstrated in the following responses. One participant requested, "Creating on-campus weekend events that promote fun and culture at the same time. For example, concerts, where people are occupied with listening and appreciating music, have a much lower rate of sexual assault than Harris parties. Also promoting peer support. If everyone kept an eye on their friends (their drinking, their whereabouts), this would make a huge difference." Another participant stated, "The campus needs healthier and positive events that don't involve alcohol. I also believe that professors should talk about these issues in class once in a while." One student was more forceful, stating, "Maybe this college could give a shit about increasing substance free activities. This campus is completely 'work hard, play hard.' When all most people do is talk about drinking, how they drank in the past, or how they are going to go out and drink this weekend/tonight, you have an alcohol problem. It's easy to pick the drinking option, when the only other option is [weekend]s five year old oriented activities. I've decorated to many fucking cookies and gingerbread houses and played too many elementary school board games." Another participant wanted more events where alcohol is involved, "More all campus events that we can drink at that aren't just like normal parties. I don't really only blame alcohol for these kinds of things, but I do think that when there is alcohol and like not really anything else to do, then that is when people try to do stuff like this."

Other participants commented on alterations to existing parties. For example, "Bright lights at Harris was a solid idea." Another added, "I think the steps that have been taking regarding the management of Harris parties is extremely important." Still others said Harris Center parties continue to pose problems, such as, "I think Harris is problematic. I believe that the focus at Harris, for some individuals, lies far too much on going home with someone at the end of the

night, and this can lead to pressure or unwelcome advances." Another participant added, "Stronger monitoring of behavior at Harris/parties. People leave without really wanting to. Friends don't stop them. If ACESS was there more strongly at the end of the party that could be helpful." Increased security was called for by others, such as, "A way to help would be to have more security workers at parties. Also campus security is all student-run/has student workers, so often times it is awkward to approach them for help (like if they are friends with whoever is making you uncomfortable)." Still others contended that stricter enforcement of college alcohol and other drug policies might be key. For example, "reducing budge/alcohol provided for '10-10' and also making campus security more strict in enforcing laws against smoking pot because there are an insane number of students that smoke pot on campus and that is also another factor that increases the likeliness of a student getting sexually assaulted."

ADMINISTRATIVE AND POLICY REFORM

Though rarely related to recommendations for prevention of future sexual misconduct, a number of participants used the final question to provide recommendations for administrative and policy reform at the College. In total, 25.1% provided some recommendation for administrative or policy change. The rate of participants providing these recommendations was significantly higher in 2015 (30.0%) than in 2013 (20.0%) A summary of the frequency of each type of recommendation is presented in Table PRP2.

Administrative Change

A total of 11.4% of participants in 2015 made a recommendation for some administrative change, and that rate was significantly higher than the rate observed in 2013 (7.4%). Because many concerns related to administrative change were described in the chapter on the conduct process and because many comments made in response to the final section were not relevant to prevention, readers are referred to the chapter on the conduct process for a fuller description of suggested changes. In this section, representative comments are briefly summarized.

Table PRP2. Rates of requests for administrative change and policy reform by survey year

	2013	2015	Total	
Administrative Changes	7.4%	11.4%	9.4%	*
General Administration	3.2%	3.6%	3.4%	
Health Services	1.8%	2.8%	2.3%	
Conduct Process	1.2%	2.5%	1.9%	
Reporting Process	1.2%	1.9%	1.6%	
Campus Security	0.9%	2.2%	1.6%	*
Title IX Coordinator	0.3%	0.6%	0.4%	
Other	0.4%	0.3%	0.4%	
Transparency	9.1%	9.2%	9.1%	
Harsher Punishment	5.3%	12.5%	9.0%	*
Legal	0.6%	3.9%	2.3%	*

Note Areas of suggested change are sorted by the percentage of participants providing suggested change across survey administration.
* Statistically significant change from 2013 to 2015 ($\alpha = .05$).

General Administration

This subdomain included general references to "the college" or "the administration" and represented 3.4% of all responses. Most responses under this domain concerned perceptions that members of the College or administrators not taking concerns of students and survivors seriously.

Within this group of responses, college administrators' support for victim-survivors and activist groups emerged as most common. As one student put it, "administrative support of student activism would do a world of good, not only for the image that said administration is so invested in, but also for the more important issues of student support/confidence and education of people within administration as to the experiences and principles that victims and advocates of sexual operate on and want to see reflected within the administration." Furthermore, "Showing that the administration ACTUALLY cares — not just when there are articles shedding light on the mess they've made. Training the appropriate people to provide support, creating an effective conduct system, adequately addressing alcohol and drug use, providing proper mental health resources, etc. The list can go on forever because campus is basically doing absolutely nothing right." The perceptions of support the administration gives victim-survivors by these participants is depicted by the following response: "I do not know much, but I've heard that the administration can be highly unsupportive of survivors."

Participant responses in this subdomain also included a desire for administrators to convey the importance of these issues. One participant stated, "I feel like victim/survivors need affirmation from the administration that they will be protected and looked out for 100%." Another added, "folks need to feel safe and need to feel like there is a benefit to coming forward with their story or no one will. Like I said before, this means that the administration needs to treat charges of sexual misconduct SERIOUSLY by levying punishments that befit the crimes of perpetrators." Another student took this a step further and mentioned that administrators, faculty, and staff should be actively seeking to protect students from different kinds of abuse. In their words: "I

was in an abusive relationship … for a year and a half here and found it very, VERY difficult to extract myself. It would have been really helpful if the school and my professors reached out to ask what's wrong. I wanted to speak up but didn't feel like I could … I think my situation would have been helped a lot quicker if I felt like the school was looking out for me actively by reaching out and checking in, but that's really hard to do and somewhat invasive. So idk."

There also was a trend toward criticizing the self-governance system that the administration advocates. One student stated that, "self-gov is this ridiculous administration's way of saying 'not our problem'. Students need a smart institution that places heavy disincentives to rape and other malicious actions. I'm embarrassed to go to such a terribly irresponsible school that obviously doesn't care about the basic human rights of its students. Its despicable. The president intentionally misguided us in his letter. Are you kidding me? Listen to Dissenting Voices closely and carefully. Also listen to anyone who wants a private talk and with consent release those conversations (with personal details omitted) to the school. We need the school to be accountable to the students."

Many participant responses in this subdomain expressed negative feelings toward the general administration; however, there were some responses that were hopeful and held positive regard for the administration. For example, one student outlined his satisfaction with the administration in his response: "I know the administration has been under fire recently, but I do hope that you (the administration) are proud of the strides you have taken to stop sexual violence so far because they are important achievements. I am proud of our institution." Another student seconded this by stating that, "we should all show more faith in the administration's efforts to deal with the issue and all the work that they have put in the last couple of years to make the school and its processes better."

Health Services

The health services subdomain was coded when participants referenced a desire to change existing physical and mental health services on campus. In 2013, 1.8% of respondents requested increased health services, and that number increased slightly to 2.8% in 2015.

Some of responses referencing health services included requests for increased mental health services, specifically Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS). For example, "HAVE MORE SHACS COUNSELORS ASAP," and "More access to mental health care as a PREVENTATIVE as well as healing measure." Another added a need for more information to come from SHACS about resources for victim-survivors and insurance applicability for those services, "please fix SHACS and give victims more information regarding their insurance and more options based on their ability to afford it."

Finally, one of the most specific requests in this domain contained multiple direct requests for increased health services. That participant requested, "3. Better medical care in the community, like the SANE nurses for survivors (from what I understand, survivors have to wait hours for the nearest SANE nurse who is trained to do rape kits.) 4. Women's Center on Campus (It's really weird that we don't have this) 5. Educate the campus on what survivors can do immediately after being raped/assaulted besides just contacting a campus resource. For example, how to preserve evidence if you later want to prosecute."

Conduct Process

Across both survey years, 1.9% of respondents referenced changes that need to be made to the conduct process. The specific changes, and trends are described below, but readers are also directed to the chapter on perceptions of the conduct process for a broader discussion of participants' suggestions.

The following student response encapsulates the overall trend of participants toward the current conduct process in this subdomain. "People need to know (somehow) that if they are sexually abused and come forward, their cases will be handled in a concise, fair, manner. I think right now there's a big perception of the system being useless and ineffective, and that needs to change." Another added that the consequence of not changing the conduct systems will only add more pain to the victims; "several of my close friends and many other people I know or know of have experienced sexual assault or rape on this campus and the college has somehow botched the investigation in a way that extended their trauma or continued to endanger the rest of the community in every single case."

A few offered complaints about a perceived unfair or biased nature of the conduct process. One response outlined that cases where faculty/staff were involved were not treated appropriately. That participant stated, "There is a bias and discrepancy in the policy system when students are accused and 'charged' with misconduct and have their mental health, personal perceptions and social lives severely impacted. Yet, issues of misconduct and abuse from the staff or faculty at Grinnell are not treated as serious situations with serious consequences and the adult is allowed to continue working on the campus." Additionally, the following student addressed issues of ethnicity in their response, stating, "Also, never forget that men of color are accused of sexual misconduct far more than their white counterparts, not because they are worse offenders. This NEEDS to be remembered by the college during disciplinary hearings."

Other participants gave specific recommendations to help make the conduct process more effective and fair. One participant, staying on the bias theme, stated that administrators need "to look into each case without being bias, or unfair to both parties." One other recommendation was that the College "needs an independent review board!" Furthermore, the following two responses show the balance between having "less drawn out processes for addressing sexual misconduct" yet still "taking into account every piece of evidence and not being biased based on categorization that the person might be associated with." In conjunction, these participants perceived that the College has yet to achieve a method that is perceived as both efficient enough and thorough enough to serve the needs of victim-survivors and respondents.

Reporting Process

The reporting process subdomain was coded when respondents referenced the College's official process of reporting instances of sexual misconduct. In total, 1.6% of all respondents referenced the college's reporting process. Though participant reporting process themes expressed by participants in this section are described below, readers are also directed to the chapter on perceptions of the reporting process for a more thorough examination of the topic.

Some participants acknowledged that sexual misconduct is underreported, and attributed this to their perceptions about how college administrators handle reports of sexual misconduct. For example, one stated, "I believe it is still under reported because of the way cases are handled." Another added, "I think that a lot of the sexual misconduct that happens on campus is not reported because of the presumed way that the college handles reports of sexual misconduct." A third more forcefully stated, "Take everything seriously and foster an open environment."

A few mentioned factors that might inhibit reporting. For example, "We need to have easier ways for students to report the problems. I know that there are always people been sexually harassed or being abused by others but afraid to speak up. They think that just because they were drunk, it's their own fault that they get rape (not sure if it's a correct term)."

Campus Security

The campus security subdomain was coded whenever participants mentioned in their responses the role of the campus security or student-hired security. Across both survey years 1.6% of the respondents mentioned security.

Among these participants, there was a general desire for a greater security presence. As one participant put it, "increase the role of campus security, make sure students know that they have options." Other students specified that there should be an increase in student security, in particular. For example, "beef up student security and train them to keep an eye out for warning signs at parties." Another added, "more campus security (even if this is just student security) doing rounds on campus at night. It might be a better idea if it is student security as we are more likely to go to our peers."

Other participants wanted security to intervene prior to misconduct. As one participant stated, "Security needs to do their job and help women who are clearly trying to get away from men grinding on them at parties." Other respondents were less confident in the role of security and suggested alternatives. For example, "maybe having a system in place besides Security that looks out for individuals at parties who appear too drunk to consent or uncomfortable. Where I'm from, sometimes they have these guys outside the bars who ask to make sure you're with someone you want to be with, since not everyone has friends who will do this for them and sometimes it is hard to get away from someone you don't want to be with."

Finally, some wanted greater police involvement, instead of campus security, in sexual misconduct cases. One participant voiced that "people are not encouraged to report it [sexual misconduct] to the police and I do not think that is okay."

Title IX Coordinator

Three people commented on the need for a new Title IX coordinator, two in 2015 and one in 2013. One commented, "HIRE A TITLE IX COORDINATOR WHO IS ACTUALLY QUALIFIED AND HAVE THEIR OFFICE BE SEPARATE FROM THE OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT." The other respondent commented with, "Find qualified Title IX coordinators and rebuild from there."

Transparency

Across both survey years, 9.1% of the participants who responded mentioned wanting transparency in campus policy in some form. The proportion of participants referencing transparency was not significantly different across survey years. There were two driving themes in the responses pertaining to transparency: policies/processes and outcomes.

Several participants wanted transparency about college policies and processes. For example, "there needs to be more transparency about how the college handles sexual misconduct." This was elaborated further by additional responses, such as desires for "increased education about sexual conduct policies, including the affirmative consent rule." A student suggested that this could be obtained by putting up "lots of basic (not overwhelming/overly technical) information about accusation proceedings and college policy — in res halls, academic buildings, etc. Anything to combat speculation, guessing and rumor on the part of students about college policy and administrators." Another stated, "people need to know (somehow) that if they are sexually abused and come forward, their cases will be handled in a concise, fair, manner. I think right now there's a big perception of the system being useless and ineffective, and that needs to change." The hope would be that this transparency would reduce the "rumors and bad talk about how the school handles sexual misconduct cases."

Other participants mentioned the repercussions that occur when there is a poor, nontransparent conduct process. One student commented that "sexual and dating violence are often enabled by the perpetrators' (frankly accurate) belief that they will probably be able to 'get away with it.' Many cases of sexual misconduct, dating abuse, and violence against women or minorities are very high profile. When these cases are not handled appropriately, survivors feel that they can't trust the administration. And perpetrators learn that the worst they can expect for raping, abusing, or assaulting their fellow students is probation or a couple semesters' suspension."

Another theme throughout the responses was the desire for transparency in incidence statistics. One student suggested that "sexual misconducts should be made much more public without disclosing the reporter or the alleged offender. I have no idea how often it happens on campus, and that unknown can be frightening." In other responses, students mentioned the role of the Sexual Climate survey as a tool for creating more awareness around these statistics.

Harsher Punishment

The harsher punishment domain was coded when participants referenced a desire for stronger punishment (from the administration or from legal entities) for accused perpetrators of sexual misconduct. In total, 5.3% of responses were coded with harsher punishment in 2013, and this percentage increased significantly to 12.5% in 2015.

Many responses consisted of short phrases, like, "Expel rapists." Because these answers were short, it is unclear as to what preventative value respondents ascribed to these statements. Perhaps some believe that by expelling or otherwise removing those found responsible for sexual misconduct that others might be deterred or that there might be a secondary prevention of future misconduct by means of removing known perpetrators from campus.

Alternatively, these responses may have been given for retribution purposes rather than prevention purposes. This was the case with many responses in this domain, such as "Give

people a clear idea of the rules when they come in. Punish willful violators without mercy. Most people ought to have enough common decency never to do anything of the sort." Another added a need for "better punishments for wrongdoing, being suspended for a semester is fucking dumb. rape is rape. these people need to go to jail if they date rape people." A third added, "Once again, dont be afraid to publish the names of offenders, but only of those who were convicted or who admitted it."

Other participants neither mentioned prevention or retribution, but they did mention the consequences for victims/survivors of inadequate consequences for those found responsible. For example, "There's no real consequences for sexual misconduct or dating abuse so abusers know they can get away with it and victims know there's nothing they can do." Another added, "Educate people on ways they can minimize risk; implement a policy of mandatory expulsion for anybody caught engaging in such behavior. In the event there is insufficient evidence to expel an individual, ensure that they have as little contact with the survivor of the assault as possible, possibly through suspension."

Legal

The legal domain was coded when participants made mention of the role of authorities beyond Grinnell College. In 2015, there were significantly more such responses (3.9%) than there in 2013 (0.6%).

Among those participants who provided such responses, there was a strong desire for the college to employ external agencies when dealing with such cases of sexual misconduct. For example, "it should be encouraged to report sexual assault to legal authorities." However, most of the responses were on the other side of the spectrum, such as "if the student doesn't want to involve the police, I don't know how that could be considered serious or legitimate. Rape/sexual misconduct is a serious offense. It is a crime. This is a school. The law should handle it." Another stated, "go to the police after reporting." Still another added, "Expel the aggressors, follow laws, not school policies, and survivors should not have to have the aggressor in their classes — the aggressor should be kicked out."

Other participants wanted greater adherence to Federal policy, rules, and regulations, as it pertained to notifying the student body and the conduct process. One student wrote, "follow title ix guidelines by reporting all reports of sexual misconduct to the campus. Without this notification, students will not be aware of the severity of the issue, the prevalence of attack, the number of students on this campus who do not feel — who are not — safe. Raise consciousness, as is required by the title." Another added, "enforcing Title XI [sic] policies better by actually making complaints important to the campus end properly processing these complaints."

OTHER REACTIONS

No Knowledge or Understanding

The result that most clearly suggested an improvement from 2013 is the increase in awareness of both the presence of and issues related to sexual misconduct at Grinnell College. A lack of awareness was coded when a participant stated they did not know that sexual misconduct

occurred on campus, explicitly stated they were unaware of how sexual misconduct happens on campus, or explicitly denied that sexual misconduct occurred at Grinnell College. We acknowledge that limited understanding or knowledge was also possible for some participants who provided responses to these questions that did not fit these criteria (e.g., factual inaccuracies). Despite this, the rate of those expressing no knowledge or understanding fell significantly from 6.5% of the responses in 2013 to 3.1% in 2015. Cisgender men were significantly more likely make such statements (7.2%) than cisgender women (2.6%). However, cisgender men were only significantly higher than cisgender women on this domain in 2013, with rates of 10.9% and 3.3% respectively. This is because the rate of unawareness among cisgender men decreased from 2013 (10.9%) to 2015 (4.7%).

Victim Blame

Responses that evidenced a desire for victims to take greater responsibility for becoming a victim deceased in a statistically significant manner from 2013 to 2015. In 2013, 3.5% of responses evidenced some victim-blaming types of responses (e.g., "It's the girls fault"), while in 2015, that rate dropped to 1.1%. Participants who responded in such a way more frequently requested that prevention education focus on the victim. These participants also discussed the role of alcohol and drugs as it related to the sexual misconduct significantly more frequently than participants who did not respond in such a way, and they were significantly more likely to state that false allegations occur very frequently on Grinnell College's campus.

Anger

Perception of participants' anger was coded for in a couple ways. For example, anger was coded when participants used profanity, "People should take responsibility for their actions. Think you might end up doing something you'll regret? Don't get shit-faced drunk. It's not that fucking hard." Anger also was coded when participants used all capitalization (beyond emphasis of single words). For example, "IRON DISCIPLINE - SUMMARY EXECUTION OF ALL RAPISTS." The use or multiple exclamation points also was coded for anger. For example, "punish people found responsible!!!!!!!!!!" Anger was also coded when responses conveyed substantial dissatisfaction with the some target or the target's behavior. For example, "Self-gov is this ridiculous administration's way of saying 'not our problem'. Students need a smart institution that places heavy disincentives to rape and other malicious actions. I'm embarrassed to go to such a terribly irresponsible school that obviously doesn't care about the basic human rights of its students. Its despicable. The president intentionally misguided us in his letter. Are you kidding me? Listen to Dissenting Voices closely and carefully. Also listen to anyone who wants a private talk and with consent release those conversations (with personal details omitted) to the school. We need the school to be accountable to the students."
In total, 9.6% of responses were coded as expressing anger, and the rates of responses expressing anger were not significantly different in 2013 (8.8%) and 2015 (10.3%).

Hopelessness

Another experience that was coded was "hopelessness." This domain was coded when the respondent revealed a pessimistic outlook on whether the problem of sexual misconduct can be changed in the future. For example, one student expressed hopelessness this way, "I think that

the larger issues are too complicated for any college administration to deal with." Another stated, "Frankly I'm very pessimistic about the chances of reducing sexual misconduct."

The number of cases coded as expressing hopelessness was small, which is a positive finding. In 2013, 1.5% of participants provided such a response; however, that number increased to 3.6% in 2015, a marginally significant increase.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The survey concluded with the open-ended question, "What advice do you have for reducing sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse on campus?" A total of 700 participants provided responses (n = 340 in 2013; n = 360 in 2015). Qualitative analyses of these questions were performed and participant responses were coded into four broad domains: suggestions for different types of education, changes to cultural elements around parties and sex, suggestions for changes to administrative structure and policy, and other reactions.

The majority of participants requested additional education. Areas of requested education included definitions of consent and how to obtain consent, active bystander training, and programing to clarify definitions related to sexual misconduct and both the reporting and conduct process. Others specifically requested education for specific groups, such as first-year students and potential perpetrators. Still others wanted more general campus dialogue about topics, such as the role of self-governance and the "hook-up culture" in shaping sexual misconduct on campus. Specific suggestions are quoted in that section.

About one-fifth of participants stated that prevention efforts will require campus culture change. Specific areas of campus culture that participants identified, included the use and misuse of alcohol and other drugs, "hook-up culture," racism, homophobia, transphobia, hypermasculinism, heteronormativity, patriarchy, and entitlement, among others. Some of these participants also made specific suggestions to increase attractive party alternatives where drugs and alcohol are not central to those experiences. Specific suggestions are quoted in that section.

About 25% of participants responded to these questions with suggested changes to administrative structure and policy. Most of these suggestions overlapped with comments made in other sections (e.g., Conduct Process Perceptions, Reporting Misconduct) and did not seem directly relevant to prevention. Those responses were, however, reported in this section to capture participants' final opportunity to express their experiences and concerns. For example, several used this section to express their anger or dissatisfaction with how past sexual misconduct cases were handled. Several also called for campus policy to change to allow for greater transparency in misconduct cases, including the publication of outcomes, and another sizable group used this opportunity to call for harsher punishments. Others provided suggestions for improvement to the sexual misconduct conduct and reporting processes, while some participants used this section to advocate for improvements to health and counseling resources. Finally, a few used this section to specifically call for a new Title IX coordinator. Like the previous section, example quotations are provided to illustrate each theme.

Finally, a fourth domain was coded to capture less frequent reactions. For example, about 5% of participants commented that they had no knowledge or understanding of issues related to sexual

misconduct to provide suggestions; and this percentage fell from 2013 to 2015, particularly for cisgender male participants. About 2% of participants provided responses that explicitly blamed victims for sexual misconduct. Another 10% of responses were coded as expressing strong anger about the state of sexual misconduct and the processes for dealing with sexual misconduct on campus. Finally, about 3% of participants expressed a sense of hopelessness about the College's or society's ability to effectively combat sexual misconduct.

CONCLUSIONS

In any given year, more than one-third of all Grinnell College students experienced at least one form of sexual misconduct. Also, across a college career, that proportion rises to nearly half, with just over one-quarter experiencing a physical form of sexual misconduct. Though the overall rate of sexual misconduct fell from 2015 to 2013, the rates remain unacceptably high.

Experiences with stalking constituted a new area of area of assessment in the 2015 survey. Seemingly, the rates of stalking at Grinnell College are equivalent to or slightly higher than other national benchmarks, particularly for cisgender women. Stalking was most often perpetrated by friends or acquaintances and occurred in multiple public locations, as well as via electronic means (e.g., social media). The majority of stalking victims had experiences that lasted greater than one month. Because stalking experiences were not surveyed in 2013, we cannot state whether or not the 2014–15 academic year was typical or atypical of rates for stalking at Grinnell College, nor can we comment on trends in how rates of stalking have changed over time. Given, however, that there has been limited focus on preventing stalking over the past couple of years, it is likely that the rates observed from the 2015 survey have remained stable.

Intimate partner abuse is a form of misconduct that has received little prevention and educational attention at Grinnell College over the past few years. Consequently, the rates for intimate partner abuse have remained stable from 2013 to 2015. Because of methodological differences across benchmarking studies, the rates of intimate partner abuse at Grinnell College are difficult to contextualize. The local rates are higher than that observed in some studies, equivalent to some, and still lower than others. Of those who experienced intimate partner abuse, controlling types of behaviors are most common, followed by pressuring behaviors, and with physical or sexual violence in about one-tenth of dating relationships. Rates of intimate partner abuse appear stable across academic years, with a slight increase noted for younger students. Also, while cisgender males experienced intimate partner abuse at rates higher than most other forms of sexual misconduct, cisgender female and transgender or other gender students experienced such abuse at nearly twice the rate of cisgender males. As well, non-heterosexual students also experienced intimate partner abuse at a higher rate than heterosexual students, though the gap in rates has shrunk from 2013 to 2015. When asked about reasons for not leaving an abusive relationship, a substantial number of participants cited a general lack of awareness about what constitutes abuse in a relationship. Given this, educational efforts are warranted to raise awareness of what constitutes abuse, as well as resources for how to leave such a relationship.

One positive finding from the survey was that the rates of unwanted sexual communication decreased significantly from 2013 to 2015. Yet, a quarter of students experienced such communication at least once while at college, and of those, more than half experience unwanted sexual communication on more than one occasion. The most common mode for such experiences is hearing the communication in person, but such communication by electronic means also was common. Unwanted sexual communication occurred most frequently at parties, especially college-sponsored parties at the Harris Center and Gardner Lounge, and the perpetrator was reported as intoxicated in approximately two-thirds of incidents. Surprisingly, physical force co-occurred in just over one-fifth of incidents. Students at greatest risk for experiencing unwanted

sexual communication included first-year, heterosexual female, non-heterosexual male participants, and both nondomestic and nonwhite participants.

Another positive finding pertained to the significant drop in rates of unwanted sexual touching from 2013 to 2015. However, this positive finding is tempered by the observation that nearly a quarter of participants experienced this type of misconduct since entering college. Further, while the rate of unwanted sexual touching was similar to the rate found in one benchmark study, it was significantly higher than two others, particularly for cisgender women and transgender or other gender participants. In addition, of those who experienced unwanted sexual touching, four in 10 experienced that misconduct by more than one perpetrator and on more than one occasion. These types of experiences were most commonly perpetrated by people deemed strangers, though just over a quarter of participants experienced this misconduct from friends and another quarter from acquaintances. Over two-thirds of these misconduct experiences occurred at parties, with the most frequent parties cited including those at the Harris Center or Gardner Lounge. Relatedly, the perpetrator was judged intoxicated in over two-thirds of unwanted sexual touching experiences. Those student groups most at risk for experiencing sexual misconduct were first-year students, cisgender female and transgender or other gender participants, non-heterosexual males, and both nondomestic and nonwhite students.

The interpretation of how Grinnell College's rates of attempted or completed sexual assault compares to those found in other national benchmark studies is complicated. In some cases, the rates of sexual assault at Grinnell College are lower than the rates found with some nationally representative samples. In other cases, the rates are approximately the same, and still in other cases, the Grinnell College rates are significantly higher. Some of these differences can be explained by the use of different methodologies. Groups that were most at risk for attempted or completed sexual assault included cisgender female, transgender or other gender, and non-heterosexual male participants. The majority of perpetrators were characterized as friends or acquaintances and were predominantly male. Moderate or severe intoxication by either the victim/survivor or perpetrator occurred in a substantial number of cases; and in nearly four in 10 cases, the victim/survivor was severely intoxicated or incapacitated. At nearly the same rate, victims/survivors experienced physical force before or during the sexual assault. The majority of sexual assaults occurred in dorm rooms but were preceded by attending a party in nearly three-quarters of cases. Probably most importantly, however, half of victims/survivors reported that there was a missed opportunity for a bystander intervention that could have prevented their assaults.

Regarding the experience of any form of sexual misconduct, participants in 2015 reported significantly fewer experiences than participants in 2013. This drop in rates is largely attributable to the reductions in experiences of unwanted sexual communication and touching across survey years, and even with the drop, over one-third of participants reported some sexual misconduct experience in 2015. That rate climbed to nearly 50% when participants were asked to consider experiences since entering college. Shockingly, for some groups, experiences of sexual misconduct since entering college are normative. For example, nearly two out of every three of fourth-year female participants reported experiencing one or more incidents of sexual misconduct since arriving at Grinnell College. When considering only physical forms of sexual misconduct, the rates remain high, with nearly one in six participants experiencing physical

sexual misconduct in the previous year and just over one in four having such an experience since entering college. Further, even with the reduced rates in 2015, approximately nearly three in 10 first-year female students and just over four in 10 fourth-year female students experienced a physical form of sexual misconduct since entering college. These are rates that significantly exceed rates observed in other studies. Transgender or other gender participants, heterosexual females, and both non-heterosexual female and male participants were all at an elevated risk of these types of experiences, a finding that did not seem to vary much across other individual subtypes of sexual misconduct, as well.

Rates of reporting sexual misconduct to campus officials varied by the type of misconduct experienced and, generally, constituted a rare experience among victims (13.6% overall in 2015). However, just over one-third of sexual assault victims/survivors from the 2015 survey administration reported their experiences in 2015, and that rate was significantly higher than most rates reported in other benchmarking studies. For those who did not report either experiences with intimate partner abuse, stalking, unwanted sexual communication, or unwanted sexual touching, the most common reasons for not reporting was that the participant did not believe that what happened constituted abuse or believed that what happened was not serious enough to talk about. Victims of sexual assault, however, reported other patterns of reasons. Those participants more often endorsed shame, embarrassment, or wanting to deal with the matter on their own as factors hindering their reporting. These discrepant reasons for not reporting signal the unique needs of victims/survivors of sexual assault.

More generally, students reported some skepticism that College officials would be responsive to concerns of victims/survivors of sexual misconduct. While students thought it generally likely that the college would keep information confidential, they were less likely to believe that the college would provide adequate supports for victims, take steps to protect the safety of the person making the report, take corrective action against the perpetrator of the misconduct, or take corrective action to address the factors that lead to the misconduct.

When asked about to whom they would report instances of sexual misconduct, confidential resources received the highest level of endorsement. Across years, campus advocates received a significant increase in endorsement, while members of Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS), Campus Safety and Security, and residence life coordinators experienced significant drops in endorsement. Also, though receiving a significant increase in endorsement as a possible reporting source since 2013, the Title IX coordinator was endorsed by less than one in six in 2015.

Concerning the conduct process, approximately half of survey participants reported that they perceived the conduct process to be fair or somewhat fair, a proportion that mimicked the judgments of fairness reported by victims/survivors who reported going through the process. The remaining half judged the process as unfair or did not advance an opinion. However, perceptions of fairness were not stable across participant subgroups. For example, transgender or other gender participants were much more likely to rate the process as unfair than cisgender females, who were more likely to see the process as unfair than cisgender males.

Multiple reasons were offered to support participants' ratings of fairness. Sizable numbers based their ratings on their perception that punishments provided to those found responsible of sexual misconduct are inadequate. Others based their ratings on perceptions of the inadequacy of procedures meant to separate victims from alleged perpetrators, inadequate support provided to victims throughout and after the conduct process, and biases against people from various sub-populations on campus that some perceived to be inherent to the conduct system. Fewer contended that there were inadequate supports for those accused of misconduct, that the process was too slow, and that the institution needed greater transparency in several areas. Victims who had actually experienced the conduct process as complainants echoed many of these themes.

Engagement in active bystander behaviors, in general, was infrequent. The reasons for the low engagement might range from lack of opportunity to a lack of understanding about how to intervene to a fear for personal safety. These reasons were not teased out in the current study. As it relates to differences in subgroups' engagement in these types of behaviors, non-heterosexual males and both heterosexual and non-heterosexual females engaged in greater frequency of such behaviors than heterosexual males, perhaps signaling the need for greater or different training with this particular subgroup. No other group differences were apparent. Perhaps surprisingly, having previously received training in active bystander interventions was not predictive of actual engagement in those behaviors. The strongest predictors of engaging in active bystander behavior were actually observing others perform those behaviors. In conjunction, these results signal the need for multiple (as opposed to single) trainings in active bystander behavior that include opportunities to observe others engaging in those types of behaviors. Though potentially unpopular, single gender trainings also might prove useful.

In general, the acceptance of rape myth attitudes was rare. These general disagreement with rape myths persisted across a variety of demographic subgroups, active bystander training experiences, and experiences with sexual misconduct. Though both male-identified participants and international students reported less disagreement with rape myths than did other subgroups, those differences commonly represent a difference between "mostly disagree" and "strongly disagree" types of responses to rape myth attitude questions.

After changing the consent definition in 2013, there has been a marked increase in participant definitions that align with Grinnell College's new affirmative consent policy. In particular, participants provided proportionally more definitions related to active consent processes, such as the need for verbal, clear and enthusiastic, and/or continuous consent. Generally, participants provided definitions similar to Grinnell College's affirmative consent policy, and though some significant differences did emerge, these definitions were largely stable across demographic subgroups.

Participants were provided an opportunity to provide suggestions for how to prevent future instances of sexual misconduct at Grinnell College. Generally, participants wanted more education about a variety of topics, including programs to clarify definitions, policies, and procedures related to consent, reporting, and the conduct process. Others wanted increased campus dialogue about the roles self-governance, alcohol and other drug use, and the "hook-up culture" play in the promotion of sexual misconduct. About a quarter used that section to recommend more general or specific changes to administrative structure, policy, and response.

Notably, many participants expressed strong anger at the current state of the College, as it relates to issues of sexual misconduct, while other seemed to express hopelessness.

Finally, recommendations that draw on the results of this study will be presented to the campus community in a forthcoming manuscript. The campus community is encouraged to engage with the findings of this survey to collaboratively identify strategies to prevent future sexual misconduct on our campus.

REFERENCES

American College Health Association-National College Health Assessment II (2014). *Undergraduate students: Reference group data report, spring 2014*. Hanover, MD: American College Health Association. Retrieved from www.acha-ncha.org/docs/NCHA-II_WEB-PAPER_SPRING2014_UNDERGRAD_REFERENCEGROUP_DATAREPORT.pdf

Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M, & Plante, E. G. (2007). Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: An experimental evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *35*, 463–481.

Banyard, V. L., Ward, S., Cohn, E. S., Plante, E. G., Moorhead, C., & Walsh, W. (2007). Unwanted sexual contact on campus: A comparison of women's and men's experiences. *Violence and Victims, 22*(1), 52–70.

Black, M. C., Basile, K. C., Breiding, M. J., Smith, S. G., Walters, M. L., Merrick, M. T., Chen, J., & Stevens, M. R. (2011). The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS): 2010 Summary Report. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Cantor, D., Fisher, B., Chibnall, S., Townsend, R., Lee, H., et al. (2015). *Report of the AAU campus climate survey on sexual assault and sexual misconduct*. Rockville, MD: Westat. Retrieved from www.aau.edu/uploadedFiles/AAU_Publications/AAU_Reports/Sexual_Assault_Campus_Survey/Report%20on%20the%20AAU%20Campus%20Climate%20Survey%20on%20Sexual%20Assault%20and%20Sexual%20Misconduct.pdf

Carney, M. M., & Barner, J. R. (2012). Prevalence of partner abuse: Rates of emotional abuse and control. *Partner Abuse, 3*, 286–335.

Edwards, K. M., Sylaska, K. M., Barry, J. E., Moynihan, M. M., Banyard, V. L., et al. (2015). Physical dating violence, sexual violence, and unwanted pursuit victimization: A comparison of incidence rates among sexual-minority and heterosexual college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *30*, 580–600.

Fisher, B. S., Cullen, F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2000). *The Sexual Victimization of College Women.* The National Institute of Justice and the Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Flack, W. F., Caron, M. L., Leinen, S. J., Breitenbach, K. G., Barber, A. M., et al. (2008). 'The red zone'. temporal risk for unwanted sex among college students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(9), 1177–1196.

Grinnell College (2015). *Grinnell College policy, procedures, and guide to preventing, reporting, and responding to sexual misconduct and other forms of interpersonal violence*. Retrieved from https://www.grinnell.edu/node/31599

Hill, C. E., Knox, S., Thompson, B. J., Williams, E. N., Hess, S. A., & Ladany, N. (2005). Consensual qualitative research: An update. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*, 196–205.

Hill, C. E., Thompson, B. J., & Williams, E. N. (1997). A guide to conducting consensual qualitative research. *The Counseling Psychologist, 25*(4), 517–572.

Krebs, C., Lindquist, C.H., Warner, T.D., Fisher, B.S., & Martin, S. (2007). *Campus Sexual Assault (CSA) Study*. Report of project awarded by the National Institute of Justice, Award 2004-WG-BX-0010. https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/221153.pdf.

Matsunaga, M. (2007). Familywise error in multiple comparisons: Disentangling a knot through a critique of O'Keefe's arguments against alpha adjustment. *Communication Methods and Measures, 1,* 243-265.

O'Keefe, D. J. (2003). Colloquy: Should familywise alpha be adjusted? Against familywise alpha adjustments. *Human Communication Research, 29,* 431-447.

O'Keefe, D. J. (2007). It takes a family—a well-defined family—to underwrite familywise corrections. *Communication Methods, 1,* 267-273.

Payne, D. L., Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999). Rape myth acceptance: Exploration of its structure and its measurement using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. *Journal of Research in Personality, 33*, 27–68.

Peugh, J. & Glauber, A. (2011). *2011 College dating violence and abuse poll*. Palo Alto, CA: Knowledge Networks, Inc.

Planty, M., Langton, L., Krebs, C., Berzofsky, M., & Smiley-McDonald, H. (2010). Female sexual victims of violence, 1994–2010. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/fvsv9410.pdf

Rothman, R. K. (1990). No adjustments are needed for multiple comparisons. *Epidemiology, 1,* 43-46.

Sinozich, S. & Langton, L. (2014). *Rape and sexual assault victimization among college-age females, 1995-2013*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from http://www.bjs.gov/index.cfm?ty=pbdetail&iid=5176

Washington Post and Kaiser Family Foundation (2015, June 12). *Washington Post-Kaiser Family Foundation Survey of College Students on Sexual Assault*. Washington, DC: The Washington Post. Retrieved from http://apps.washingtonpost.com/g/page/national/washington-post-kaiser-family-foundation-survey-of-college-students-on-sexual-assault/1726/

White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault (U.S.) (2014). *Not alone: The first report of the White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault*. Retrieved from https://www.notalone.gov/assets/report.pdf

White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault (U.S.) (2014). *Climate surveys: Useful tools to help colleges and universities in their efforts to reduce and prevent sexual assault*. Retrieved from https://www.notalone.gov/assets/ovw-climate-survey.pdf

Wolitzky-Taylor, K., Resnick, H. S., McCauley, J. L., Amstadter, A. B., Kilpatrick, D. G., & Ruggiero, K. J. (2011). Is reporting of rape on the rise? A comparison of women with reported versus unreported rape experiences in the national women's study-replication. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*, 807–832.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank several people for their help and support throughout this process.

First, we would like to thank current and former members of the Task Force for Safety, Responsibility, and Prevention (Title IX Task Force) for their initial and ongoing instrumental support of this project, as well as their dedication to use these findings to help make Grinnell College a safer community for all students, staff, and faculty. We would like to thank Jennifer Jacobsen (’95), specifically, for her mobilization of student groups to promote the survey, her feedback on versions of this survey to maximize the usefulness of the results, and for her commitment to drawing from empirical evidence to inform effective prevention efforts. We also would like to thank Angela Voos for allowing our research team to function independently while offering financial assistance to support survey incentives and promotional materials.

Second, we would like to thank Tyler Smiley (’13.5) for co-leading the initial efforts to develop, implement, analyze the data, and report the findings from the College’s first sexual climate survey in 2013. Without his efforts, this project might not have happened.

Third, we would like to thank members of the Student Government Association for their leadership in organizing and mobilizing students to take the survey, as well as their financial support to provide survey incentives. We specifically would like to thank Colleen Osborne (’13), Sivan Philo (’13), Thomas Neil (’14), Opeyemi Awe (’15), and Iulia Iordache (’15) for their efforts over the past three years.

Fourth, we would like to thank the members of Advocates who assisted with focus groups to help tailor the surveys to Grinnell College’s campus culture and were major partners in mobilizing students to take the survey. Specifically, we want to thank Joyce Bartlett (’15) for her tireless efforts.

We also want to thank many other groups for their support and assistance in encouraging their members to take the survey. These include, but are not limited to, Student Advisers, Residence Life Coordinators, Student Athlete Advisory Committee, Student Athlete Mentors, and SEPCs. We also want to thank Dean Mike Latham for encouraging faculty members to promote the survey and those faculty members who talked to their students about the importance of this survey effort. Thank you, as well, to the students, faculty, and staff who participated in our focus groups to help plan the initial survey and revise the most recent version of that survey.

Special thanks to Carlie Van Willigen for programming this survey into our online survey software and to Michele Regenold and her team in Communications for their help copy-editing this report. Thank you to the Committee on Support of Faculty Scholarship for providing summer MAP stipends for the students who worked on this project. Thank you also to professors Ed Cohn and Caleb Elfenbein for providing support to bring in an external reviewer through their Innovation Fund grant, and thank you to Professor Antonia Abbey from Wayne State University for agreeing to review our work.

APPENDIX — SURVEY INSTRUMENT

GRINNELL COLLEGE

Sexual Conduct: Culture & Respect Survey

Introduction and Description of Procedures

Two years ago, the college came together as a community to answer several questions. We asked, how often do various forms of sexual misconduct happen on our campus, what are the characteristics of these events, what factors contribute to sexual misconduct, and how can we make our community safer and more welcoming. Since that time, students, faculty, and staff have collaboratively identified and implemented several strategies to reduce sexual misconduct and increase sexual respect on campus. It is now time to determine if those efforts have made a difference. In addition, we are committed to continuing to identify how best to ensure student safety on campus. Your responses will help us, as students, faculty, and staff, identify additional strategies to make our community safer for all. These are the reasons why we are asking you to take this survey.

The survey is anonymous. We do not ask for your identity or the identities of others. The survey may take as few as 10 minutes or as long as 30 minutes to complete. Participation in and completion of the survey is completely voluntary. You may discontinue at any time by exiting the survey. Unfortunately, however, there is no mechanism for you to save and return to your responses if you choose to leave the survey.

The survey asks a variety of questions related to your own experiences with intimate partner (dating) abuse, stalking, and three different forms of sexual misconduct (unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, and sexual assault), your experiences in preventing sexual misconduct, your attitudes toward sexual misconduct, your definition of consent, your perceptions about resolution processes available to students, and your perceptions about how best to reduce sexual misconduct, stalking or dating abuse on this campus. Though you may not have been the victim of sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse your responses are valuable for our community's understanding and prevention of future incidents of sexual misconduct and violence. All students' responses will provide valuable information, and as such, we request that you respond as honestly as possible. While taking the survey, you may skip questions that you do not feel comfortable answering.

Risks

Because of the nature of some questions, those who have been affected by sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse, either directly or indirectly, might experience painful memories or distress while responding. In the event you experience distress during your participation, you are not required to continue and you may skip any questions you do not feel comfortable answering. In addition, Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS) provides free counseling and support to those who experience distress. SHACS can be reached by calling 641-269-3230. A list of additional resources available to you appears below. These resources also will be provided again at the completion of the survey.

- Campus Safety and Security 641-269-4600 (24 hrs)
- RLC on call 641-269-4600
- Grinnell Advocates (confidential) 641-260-1615 (24 hrs)
- SHACS Nurses and Counselors (confidential) 641-269-3230
- Campus Chaplain/Rabbi (confidential) 641-269-4981
- Title IX Coordinator 641-269-4999
- Dean of Students 641-269-3714
- Ombuds Office (confidential) 641-269-9399
- Grinnell Police 641-236-2670 (24 hrs)
- Grinnell Regional Medical Center 641-236-2380
- Crisis Intervention Services (confidential) 800-270-1620
- EthicsPoint Anonymous Reporting 855-667-1753
- National Sexual Assault Helpline 800-656-HOPE (4673)

Contact information for mental health providers in the community is available by following this link: http://www.grinnell.edu/about/offices-services/student-health/resources?group=9253.

After hours support is also available by calling 1-800-656-HOPE(4673).

A breach of anonymity is possible if you choose to take the survey in a public place (e.g., public computer lab). To ensure anonymity, we request that you take the survey in a private location that limits the ability of other individuals seeing your responses.

Participant Rights

SEXUAL CONDUCT: CULTURE AND RESPECT

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or stop responding to survey questions at any time.

Benefits
The major benefit resulting from this survey will be a better understanding of how often sexual misconduct occurs on our campus and the possible identification of how best to make positive community changes that will reduce the likelihood of future sexual misconduct and violence. There may be no direct benefit to you by completing the survey.

If 50% or more of enrolled students complete the survey before April 12, SGA and the Task Force for Safety Responsibility and Prevention will provide a raffle for 200 Chipotle burritos. A total of 100 winners would receive two (2) burritos, one for the winner and the other to share with a friend. A second raffle for one of 20 Amazon.com gift cards worth $25 each is also available for participants who complete the survey. To enter these raffles, you must opt in by clicking the link on the final page of this website and provide a valid Grinnell College email address. The link is to another website that is not connected to this survey in any way. Your responses on this survey will not be connected in any way to the email address you provide on the raffle page. The approximate odds of receiving a Chipotle burrito or gift card are dependent upon the number of individuals completing the survey and entering the drawing. Winners will be contacted by May 6 through their Grinnell College email address.

Questions
You are encouraged to ask questions at any time before or during the survey. For further information about the survey, contact Chris Ralston (Department of Psychology) at ralstonc@grinnell.edu, Kaitlin Wilcox (Analytic Support and Institutional Research) at wilcoxka@grinnell.edu, or Jen Jacobsen (Wellness Director) at jacobsen@grinnell.edu. If you have any questions about the rights of research participation or ethical concerns about this study, please contact the chair of the Grinnell College Institutional Review Board at irb@grinnell.edu.

1. Informed Consent
Your completion of the surveys indicates (1) that you are a student at Grinnell College, (2) that you voluntarily agree to participate in this study, (3) that you have read this document fully, and (4) that your questions have been satisfactorily answered. If you would like an additional copy of this document for your records, please contact Angela Voos (voos@grinnell.edu).

☐I consent to participate.
☐I wish to leave.

Destination: **Page 2** ((I consent to participate.))
Destination: **Survey Submitted** ((I wish to leave.))

(End of Page 1)

[PAGE 2]

1. Which of the following best describes your current status. [Options, select only one]
☐Current Grinnell College student studying on campus this semester
☐Current Grinnell College student studying off campus this semester
☐Grinnell College alum
☐Other (specify)

(End of Page 2)

[PAGE 3]

2. In this first section, we will be asking about abusive behaviors that occur during dating.

   For the purposes of this study, **dating** is defined as **ongoing intimacy** (emotional, sexual, or both) with a partner. It can range from a short-term but ongoing "hook-up" to a longer-term commitment. The relationship or commitment need not be public knowledge for the purposes of this study. Dating does not include single or infrequent sexual encounters that entail no further commitment between the sexual partners.

   Considering only this academic year (from August 2014 to present), have you been in a dating relationship?

☐Yes
☐No

Destination: **Page 4** ((Yes))
Destination: **Page 8** ((No))

(End of Page 3)

[PAGE 4]

For the purposes of this study, **dating abuse** includes a wide range of verbal, emotional, controlling and isolating behaviors, as well as physical or sexual violence. Dating abuse takes many forms, both obvious and subtle. It ranges from punching, slapping, pushing, and grabbing, to sexual abuse; from threats of violence, verbal attacks, constant insults, put downs and other forms of intimidation to constant jealousy, possessiveness, and controlling behavior. It can also include abuse via technology and money.

Considering only the dating partners you have had during this current academic year, please indicate if any of your partners engaged in any of the following.

	Never Happened	Happened Rarely	Happened Often
3. Tried to prevent me from spending time with family or friends	☐	☐	☐
4. Told me how to dress	☐	☐	☐
5. Bought me things as a way to control me	☐	☐	☐
6. Threatened to spread rumors if I didn't do what he/she/zhe wanted	☐	☐	☐
7. Told me where to live either on or off campus	☐	☐	☐
8. Prevented me from participating in sports or other extracurricular activities	☐	☐	☐
9. Prevented me from going to study groups	☐	☐	☐
10. Told me what classes to take	☐	☐	☐
11. Threatened to kill herself/hirself/himself if I stopped seeing her/hir/him	☐	☐	☐
12. Threatened to hurt me if we were to break up	☐	☐	☐
13. Threatened to hurt (hit, slap, choke, punch, kick) me when angry	☐	☐	☐
14. Hurt (hit, slapped, choked, punched, kicked) me when angry	☐	☐	☐
15. Made me fear for my physical safety	☐	☐	☐
16. Called and texted my cell phone to check up on me more than I was comfortable with	☐	☐	☐
17. Shared or threatened to share private or embarrassing pictures or videos of me	☐	☐	☐
18. Checked my cell phone or computer to see who I had been communicating with	☐	☐	☐
19. Used my passwords without permission	☐	☐	☐
20. For quality control, select the option for happened rarely	☐	☐	☐
21. Deleted friends on my social networks	☐	☐	☐
22. Altered my online profiles without consent	☐	☐	☐
23. Pressured me into having sex (oral, anal, or vaginal) when I didn't want to	☐	☐	☐
24. Pressured me into drinking alcohol when I didn't want to	☐	☐	☐
25. Pressured me to do drugs when I didn't want to	☐	☐	☐

26. If you answered “Happened Rarely” or “Happened Often” to any of the behaviors above, was that partner a Grinnell College student?
☐Not applicable
☐No
☐Yes

Branch to: **Page 5** (If “Happened Rarely” or “Happened Often” to any except quality control item))

(End of Page 4)

[PAGE 5]

27. For the purposes of this study, **dating abuse** includes a wide range of verbal, emotional, controlling and isolating behaviors, as well as physical or sexual violence. Dating abuse takes many forms, both obvious and subtle. It ranges from punching, slapping, pushing, and grabbing to sexual abuse; from threats of violence, verbal attacks, constant insults, put downs and other forms of intimidation to constant jealousy, possessiveness, and controlling behavior. It can also include abuse via technology and money.

    The following are some reasons that people report for not leaving an abusive relationship. Check all that that might have prevented you from leaving a relationship you thought might be abusive.

☐I did not believe the relationship was abusive.
☐The person I was dating threatened to hurt and/or kill himself/hirself/herself if I left them.
☐I had the same friends and was afraid of losing those friends.
☐I was dependent on this person financially.
☐The person I was dating took care of food and living expenses.
☐The person I was dating threatened to tell family and/or friends about our relationship.
☐The person I was dating was from a different religious, ethnic or racial group and threatened to tell about our relationship.
☐The person I was dating threatened to "out me" about my sexual preferences.
☐The person I was dating threatened to disclose personal information about me to others.
☐The person was a student staff (Student Advisor, Hall Wellness Coordinator, House Coordinator) and I was afraid that I would have to relocate.
☐I thought the person I was dating would be kicked out of school if anyone found out.
☐The person had a teaching position on campus, and I was afraid it would hurt my grades.
☐The person had a supervisory position over me, and I was afraid it would adversely affect me in that position.
☐The person I was dating bought my phone and paid my phone bill.
☐I was not aware at the time that I was in an abusive relationship.
☐No one stepped in to try to help.
☐I did not tell anyone about it.
☐Some other reason _____

28. Did you seek support during or after the incident(s) from any of the following? (check all that apply)
☐Friends who are not Grinnell College students
☐Friends who are Grinnell College students
☐Family member
☐Campus Advocates
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Chaplain
☐Ombuds Office
☐Therapist or counselor
☐Other (specify): _____

29. Did you report the behaviors to anyone who in their official capacity could help address the incident(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Residence Life Coordinator (RLC)
☐Faculty member
☐Coach
☐Ombuds Office
☐Student Affairs
☐Title IX Coordinator
☐Police
☐Other (specify): _____
☐None, I did not report

Destination: **Page 7** (Did You Report (Yes to any))
Destination: **Page 6** (Did You Report (None, I did not report))

(End of Page 5)

[PAGE 6]

30. You stated that you did not report the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s). Check all of the reasons below for why you did not report.

☐I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse.
☐No experience/I did tell someone (If checked, branch to reporting questions next page)
☐Ashamed/embarrassed
☐Is a private matter – wanted to deal with it on own
☐Concerned others would find out
☐Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble
☐Fear of retribution from the person who did it
☐Fear of not being believed
☐I thought I would be blamed for what happened
☐Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about
☐Didn't think others would think it was serious
☐Thought people would try to tell me what to do
☐Would feel like an admission of failure
☐Didn't think others would think it was important
☐Didn't think others would understand
☐Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.
☐Didn't know reporting procedure on campus
☐Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)
☐I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems
☐I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me
☐I thought nothing would be done
☐Didn't want others to worry about me
☐Wanted to forget it happened
☐Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)
☐Didn't think the school would do anything about my report.
☐Other (specify) _____

(End of Page 6)

[PAGE 7]

You stated that you reported the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s).

31. To whom did you first report the abuse (e.g., RLC, Student Affairs, Title IX Coordinator, Faculty, Coach)?
_____

32. Why did you decide to report those events to that person or people? How did you identify or choose that specific person or people?
_____
_____

33. To what degree did you feel like the people who addressed the incident were helpful?
_____
_____
_____

34. Is there anything you would change or like to see happen in the future in similar incidents that are reported to this person, agency, or organization?
_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 7)

[PAGE 8]

For the purposes of this survey, **stalking** is defined as a course of unwelcome conduct directed toward another person that could be reasonably regarded as likely to alarm, harass, and/or cause reasonable fear of harm or injury. Stalking may include unwelcome and repeated visual or physical proximity to a person. It may also include unwelcome or unsolicited emails, instant messages, and messages on online bulletin boards

35. Have you experienced stalking?

☐No
☐Yes, but not during this current academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐Yes, during this *current* academic year
☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened *prior* to this academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened during this *current* academic year

Destination: **Page 14** ((No))
Destination: **Page 14** ((If only option selected was "Before Coming to College"))
Destination: **Page 9** ((Any response for "Yes" or "I'm not sure," except "Before Coming to College"))

(End of Page 8)

[PAGE 9]

36. You have responded “yes” or "I'm not sure" to experiencing **stalking** during college. The following questions are asked to better understand the situational factors relating to your experience. These questions are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. If you do not feel comfortable providing more information, you can skip this section of the survey. If you choose to continue with this section, you are still able to leave any question blank that you do not feel comfortable answering. Do you wish to provide more details relating to your experience?

☐Yes, I wish to give more information.
☐No, I do not want to provide more information.

Destination: **Page 10** ((Yes, I wish to give more information.))
Destination: **Page 14** ((No, I do not want to provide more information.))

(End of Page 9)

[PAGE 10]

37. How long did the stalking occur?
☐Less than one month
☐Between two and three months
☐Between four and five months
☐Six months or more

38. How did the stalking occur? (check all that apply)
☐In person (e.g., was watched, spied on, was followed)
☐On the phone (voice)
☐Text message
☐Social Media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter)
☐Written letter
☐Dorm room whiteboard
☐Other _____

39. If in person, where did the stalking occur?
_____

40. Was the individual who stalked you a member of the Grinnell College community (e.g., student, staff, faculty)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes – Another Student
☐Yes – A Faculty or Staff member

41. How would you define the relationship you had with the other person(s) who engaged in the stalking? (check all that apply)
☐We previously were in a relationship (e.g., dating)
☐We previously were friends, but not in a romantic or sexual relationship
☐I knew this person, but we weren't friends
☐I did not know this person

42. Did you perceive a power imbalance between you and the other person in the situation(s)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes

43. What was the biological sex of the other person(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Same as my biological sex
☐Some other biological sex

44. For quality control, select the option for "unsure."
☐Unsure
☐No
☐Yes

(End of Page 10)

[PAGE 11]

45. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the stalking?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

46. Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?
_____
_____

47. Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?
_____
_____

48. Did you seek support during or after the incident(s) from any of the following? (check all that apply)
☐Friends who are not Grinnell College students
☐Friends who are Grinnell College students
☐Family member
☐Campus Advocates
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Chaplain
☐Ombuds Office
☐Therapist or counselor
☐Other (specify): _____

49. Did you report the behaviors to anyone who in their official capacity could help address the incident(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Residence Life Coordinator (RLC)
☐Faculty member
☐Coach
☐Ombuds Office
☐Student Affairs
☐Title IX Coordinator
☐Police
☐Other (specify): _____
☐None, I did not report

Destination: **Page 12** (Did You Report (None, I did not report))
Destination: **Page 13** (Did You Report (Any of the above))

(End of Page 11)

[PAGE 12]

50. You stated that you did not report the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s). Check all of the reasons below for why you did not report.

☐I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse.
☐No experience/I did tell someone (If checked, branch to reporting questions next page)
☐Ashamed/embarrassed
☐Is a private matter – wanted to deal with it on own
☐Concerned others would find out
☐Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble
☐Fear of retribution from the person who did it
☐Fear of not being believed
☐I thought I would be blamed for what happened
☐Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about
☐Didn't think others would think it was serious
☐Thought people would try to tell me what to do
☐Would feel like an admission of failure
☐Didn't think others would think it was important
☐Didn't think others would understand
☐Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.
☐Didn't know reporting procedure on campus
☐Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)
☐I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems
☐I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me
☐I thought nothing would be done
☐Didn't want others to worry about me
☐Wanted to forget it happened
☐Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)
☐Didn't think the school would do anything about my report.
☐Other (specify) _____

Destination: **Page 13** (Did You Report ("No experience/I did tell someone"))
Destination: **Page 14** (Did You Report (Else))

(End of Page 12)

[PAGE 13]

You stated that you reported the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s).

51. To whom did you first report the stalking (e.g., RLC, Student Affairs, Title IX Coordinator, Faculty, Coach)?
_____

52. Why did you decide to report those events to that person or people? How did you identify or choose that specific person or people?
_____
_____

53. To what degree did you feel like the people who addressed the incident were helpful?
_____
_____
_____

54. Is there anything you would change or like to see happen in the future in similar incidents that are reported to this person, agency, or organization?
_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 13)

[PAGE 14]

55. For the purposes of this survey, **unwanted sexual communication** is defined as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other comments of a sexual nature. The unwanted communication may occur in person, through phone conversation, text message, instant message, email, written message, or other media to which a person is subjected without invitation or consent.

During this current academic year, have you experienced unwanted sexual communication?

☐No
☐Yes, but not during this current academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐Yes, during this *current* academic year
☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened *prior* to this academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened during this *current* academic year

Destination: **Page 21** ((No))
Destination: **Page 21** ((If only option selected was "Before Coming to College"))
Destination: **Page 15** ((Any response for "Yes" or "I'm not sure," except "Before Coming to College"))

(End of Page 14)

[PAGE 15]

56. You have responded “yes” or "I'm not sure" to experiencing **unwanted sexual communication** during college. The following questions are asked to better understand the situational factors relating to your experience. These questions are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. If you do not feel comfortable providing more information, you can skip this section of the survey. If you choose to continue with this section, you are still able to leave any question blank that you do not feel comfortable answering. Do you wish to provide more details relating to your experience?

☐Yes, I wish to give more information.
☐No, I do not want to provide more information.

Destination: **Page 16** ((Yes, I wish to give more information.))
Destination: **Page 21** ((No, I do not want to provide more information.))

(End of Page 15)

[PAGE 16]

57. How many times did you experience unwanted sexual communication during this academic year?
☐Once by one person
☐Once by more than one person
☐Multiple times by one person
☐Multiple times by a different person each time
☐Multiple times by more than one person on at least one occasion

58. How did the unwanted sexual communication occur? (check all that apply)
☐In person
☐On the phone (voice)
☐Text message
☐Social Media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Snapchat)
☐Written letter
☐Dorm room whiteboard
☐Other _____

59. If in person, where did the unwanted sexual communication occur?
_____

For the next several items, if the unwanted sexual communication occurred on more than one occasion, think only about the most severe incident.

60. Were any of the people who initiated the unwanted sexual communication members of the Grinnell College community (e.g., student, staff, faculty)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes – Another Student
☐Yes – A Faculty or Staff member

61. How would you define the relationship you had with the other person(s) who engaged in the unwanted sexual communication? (check all that apply)
☐We were in a relationship (e.g., dating)
☐We were friends, but not in a romantic or sexual relationship
☐I knew this person, but we weren't friends
☐I did not know this person

62. Did you perceive a power imbalance between you and the other person in the situation(s)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes

63. What was the biological sex of the other person(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Same as my biological sex
☐Some other biological sex

(End of Page 16)

[PAGE 17]

64. Being intoxicated **does not** excuse the person from fault for the sexual misconduct. By asking about the person's level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had the person who engaged in the unwanted sexual communication been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the unwanted sexual communication occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐Yes, the person seemed mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed moderately intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed severely intoxicated

65. Being intoxicated **does not** make the misconduct your fault. By asking about your level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had you been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the unwanted sexual communication occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐Yes, I was mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, I was moderately intoxicated
☐Yes, I was severely intoxicated

66. For quality control, select the option for "no."
☐Unsure
☐No
☐Yes

67. Did you attend a party or social event in the hours preceding the unwanted sexual communication? (check all that apply)
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and that person was not at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and I met that person at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event together with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct
☐No, I did not attend a party/event

68. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual communication before this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

69. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual communication during this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

70. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual communication after this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

(End of Page 17)

[PAGE 18]

71. Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?
_____
_____

72. Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?
_____
_____

73. Did you seek support during or after the incident(s) from any of the following? (check all that apply)
☐Friends who are not Grinnell College students
☐Friends who are Grinnell College students
☐Family member
☐Campus Advocates
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Chaplain
☐Ombuds Office
☐Therapist or counselor
☐Other (specify): _____

74. Did you report the behaviors to anyone who in their official capacity could help address the incident(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Residence Life Coordinator (RLC)
☐Faculty member
☐Coach
☐Ombuds Office
☐Student Affairs
☐Title IX Coordinator
☐Police
☐Other (specify): _____
☐None, I did not report

Destination: **Page 19** (Did You Report (None, I did not report))
Destination: **Page 20** (Did You Report (Any of the above))

(End of Page 18)

[PAGE 19]

75. You stated that you did not report the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s). Check all of the reasons below for why you did not report.

☐I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse.
☐No experience/I did tell someone (If checked, branch to reporting questions next page)
☐Ashamed/embarrassed
☐Is a private matter – wanted to deal with it on own
☐Concerned others would find out
☐Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble
☐Fear of retribution from the person who did it
☐Fear of not being believed
☐I thought I would be blamed for what happened
☐Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about
☐Didn't think others would think it was serious
☐Thought people would try to tell me what to do
☐Would feel like an admission of failure
☐Didn't think others would think it was important
☐Didn't think others would understand
☐Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.
☐Didn't know reporting procedure on campus
☐Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)
☐I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems
☐I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me
☐I thought nothing would be done
☐Didn't want others to worry about me
☐Wanted to forget it happened
☐Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)
☐Didn't think the school would do anything about my report.
☐Other (specify) _____

Destination: **Page 20** (Did You Report ("No experience/I did tell someone"))
Destination: **Page 21** (Did You Report (Else))

(End of Page 19)

[PAGE 20]

You stated that you reported the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s).

76. To whom did you first report the abuse (e.g., RLC, Student Affairs, Title IX Coordinator, Faculty, Coach)?
_____

77. Why did you decide to report those events to that person or people? How did you identify or choose that specific person or people?
_____
_____

78. To what degree did you feel like the people who addressed the incident were helpful?
_____
_____
_____

79. Is there anything you would change or like to see happen in the future in similar incidents that are reported to this person, agency, or organization?
_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 20)

[PAGE 21]

80. For the purposes of this survey, **unwanted sexual touching** is defined as any contact with the breasts, buttocks, groin, or genitals without consent. This includes these body parts being touched with any object, or being made to touch yourself or another with or on any of these body parts. Unwanted touching may be brief, appear accidental, or begin with consented, acceptable touching and subsequently progress outside the boundaries of consent.

During this current academic year, have you experienced "unwanted sexual touching?"

☐No
☐Yes, but not during this current academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐Yes, during this *current* academic year
☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened *prior* to this academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened during this *current* academic year

Destination: **Page 28** ((No))
Destination: **Page 28** ((If only option selected was "Before Coming to College"))
Destination: **Page 22** ((Any response for "Yes" or "I'm not sure," except "Before Coming to College"))

(End of Page 21)

[PAGE 22]

81. You have responded “yes” or "I'm not sure" to experiencing **unwanted sexual touching** during college. The following questions are asked to better understand the situational factors relating to your experience. These questions are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. If you do not feel comfortable providing more information, you can skip this section of the survey. If you choose to continue with this section, you are still able to leave any question blank that you do not feel comfortable answering.

Do you wish to provide more details relating to your experience?
☐Yes, I wish to give more information.
☐No, I do not want to provide more information.

Destination: **Page 23** ((Yes, I wish to give more information.))
Destination: **Page 28** ((No, I do not want to provide more information.))

(End of Page 22)

[PAGE 23]

82. How many times did you experience unwanted sexual touching during this academic year?
☐Once by one person
☐Once by more than one person
☐Multiple times by one person
☐ Multiple times by a different person each time
☐Multiple times by more than one person on at least one occasion

For the next several items, if the unwanted sexual touching occurred on more than one occasion, think only about the most severe incident.

83. Where did the unwanted sexual touching occur (e.g., Harris party, dorm lounge)?
_____

84. Were any of the people who initiated the unwanted sexual touching members of the Grinnell College community (e.g., student, staff, faculty)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes – Another Student
☐Yes – A Faculty or Staff member

85. How would you define the relationship you had with the other person(s) who engaged in the unwanted sexual touching? (check all that apply)
☐We were in a relationship (e.g., dating)
☐We were friends, but not in a romantic or sexual relationship
☐I knew this person, but we weren't friends
☐I did not know this person

86. Did you perceive a power imbalance between you and the other person in the situation(s)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes

87. What was the biological sex of the other person(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Same as my biological sex
☐Some other biological sex

(End of Page 23)

[PAGE 24]

88. Being intoxicated **does not** excuse the person from fault for the sexual misconduct. By asking about the person's level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had the person who engaged in the unwanted sexual touching been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the unwanted sexual touching occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐ Yes, the person seemed mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed moderately intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed severely intoxicated

89. Being intoxicated **does not** make the misconduct your fault. By asking about your level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had you been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the unwanted sexual touching occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐Yes, I was mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, I was moderately intoxicated
☐ Yes, I was severely intoxicated

90. For quality control, select the option for "yes."
☐Unsure
☐ No
☐Yes

91. Did you attend a party or social event <u>in the hours preceding</u> the unwanted sexual touching? (check all that apply)
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and that person was not at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and I met that person at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event together with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct
☐No, I did not attend a party/event

92. Did your friends know where you were during the unwanted sexual touching?
☐No
☐Yes
☐Unsure

(End of Page 24)

[PAGE 25]

93. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual touching before this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

94. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual touching during this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

95. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who committed the unwanted sexual touching after this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

96. Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?
_____
_____

97. Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?
_____
_____

98. Did you seek support during or after the incident(s) from any of the following? (check all that apply)
☐Friends who are not Grinnell College students
☐Friends who are Grinnell College students
☐Family member
☐Campus Advocates
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Chaplain
☐Ombuds Office
☐Therapist or counselor
☐Other (specify): _____

99. Did you report the behaviors to anyone who in their official capacity could help address the incident(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Residence Life Coordinator (RLC)
☐Faculty member
☐Coach
☐Ombuds Office
☐Student Affairs
☐Title IX Coordinator
☐Police
☐Other (specify): _____
☐None, I did not report

Destination: **Page 26** (Did You Report (None, I did not report))
Destination: **Page 27** (Did You Report (Any of the above))

(End of Page 25)

[PAGE 26]

100. You stated that you did not report the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s). Check all of the reasons below for why you did not report.

☐I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse.

☐No experience/I did tell someone (If checked, branch to reporting questions next page)

☐Ashamed/embarrassed
☐Is a private matter – wanted to deal with it on own
☐Concerned others would find out
☐Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble
☐Fear of retribution from the person who did it
☐Fear of not being believed
☐I thought I would be blamed for what happened
☐Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about
☐Didn't think others would think it was serious
☐Thought people would try to tell me what to do
☐Would feel like an admission of failure
☐Didn't think others would think it was important
☐Didn't think others would understand
☐Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.
☐Didn't know reporting procedure on campus
☐Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)
☐I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems
☐I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me
☐I thought nothing would be done
☐Didn't want others to worry about me
☐Wanted to forget it happened
☐Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)
☐Didn't think the school would do anything about my report.
☐Other (specify) _____

Destination: **Page 27** (Did You Report ("No experience/I did tell someone"))
Destination: **Page 28** (Did You Report (Else))

(End of Page 26)

[PAGE 27]

You stated that you reported the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s).

101. To whom did you first report the abuse (e.g., RLC, Chaplain, Title IX Coordinator, Faculty, Coach)?
_____

102. Why did you decide to report those events to that person or people? How did you identify or choose that specific person or people?
_____
_____

103. To what degree did you feel like the people who addressed the incident were helpful?
_____
_____
_____

104. Is there anything you would change or like to see happen in the future in similar incidents that are reported to this person, agency, or organization?
_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 27)

[PAGE 28]

105. For the purposes of this survey, **sexual assault** is defined as attempted or completed vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse without consent. Consent for one type of sexual act does not mean consent has been given for other acts. Physical force **does not** have to occur for a sexual act to be considered sexual assault. Place your cursor over the word "intercourse" for additional definition of the term. [Link to pop-out window with text: "Intercourse includes vaginal penetration by a penis, object, tongue or finger; anal penetration by a penis, object, tongue, or finger, and oral copulation (mouth to genital contact or genital to mouth contact)."]

During this current academic year, have you experienced an attempted or completed "sexual assault?"

☐No
☐Yes, but not during this current academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐Yes, during this *current* academic year
☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened *prior* to this academic year [if checked show options]
- ☐Before coming to college
- ☐During a break while enrolled in college
- ☐In a previous academic year while studying off campus (not on break)
- ☐In a previous academic year while at the college (not on break)

☐I'm not sure, but something like this happened during this *current* academic year

Destination: **Page 35** ((No))
Destination: **Page 35** ((If only option selected was "Before Coming to College"))
Destination: **Page 29** ((Any response for "Yes" or "I'm not sure," except "Before Coming to College"))

(End of Page 28)

[PAGE 29]

106. You have responded “yes” or "I'm not sure" to experiencing **sexual assault** during college. The following questions are asked to better understand the situational factors relating to your experience. These questions are in no way meant to imply blame for what happened. If you do not feel comfortable providing more information, you can skip this section of the survey. If you choose to continue with this section, you are still able to leave any question blank that you do not feel comfortable answering.

Do you wish to provide more details relating to your experience?
☐Yes, I wish to give more information
☐No, I do not want to provide more information

Destination: **Page 30** ((Yes, I wish to give more information))
Destination: **Page 35** ((No, I do not want to provide more information))

(End of Page 29)

[PAGE 30]

107. How many times did you experience an attempted sexual assault during this academic year?
☐Once by one person
☐Once by more than one person
☐Multiple times by one person
☐Multiple times by a different person each time
☐Multiple times by more than one person on at least one occasion

108. How many times did you experience a completed sexual assault during this academic year?
☐Once
☐Multiple times with the same person each time
☐Multiple times with different people

For the next several items, if the sexual assault occurred on more than one occasion, think only about the most severe incident.

109. Where did the attempted or completed sexual assault(s) occur (e.g., dorm room)?
_____

110. Were any of the people who initiated the sexual assault(s) members of the Grinnell College community (e.g., student, staff, faculty)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes – Another Student
☐Yes – A Faculty or Staff member

111. How would you define the relationship you had with the other person(s) who attempted or completed the sexual assault(s)? (check all that apply)
☐We were in a relationship (e.g., dating)
☐We were friends, but not in a romantic or sexual relationship
☐I knew this person, but we weren't friends
☐I did not know this person

112. Did you perceive a power imbalance between you and the other person in the situation(s)?
☐I don't know
☐No
☐Yes

113. What was the biological sex of the other person(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Same as my biological sex
☐Some other biological sex

(End of Page 30)

[PAGE 31]

114. Being intoxicated **does not** excuse the person from fault for the sexual misconduct. By asking about the person's level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had the person who attempted or completed the sexual assault(s) been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the attempted or complete sexual assault(s) occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐Yes, the person seemed mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed moderately intoxicated
☐Yes, the person seemed severely intoxicated

115. Being intoxicated **does not** make the misconduct your fault. By asking about your level of intoxication, we are only interested in determining how sexual misconduct occurs on this campus. Had you been drinking alcohol or doing other recreational drugs before the attempted or completed sexual assault(s) occurred? (select one)
☐I'm not sure
☐No
☐Yes, I was mildly intoxicated
☐Yes, I was moderately intoxicated
☐Yes, I was severely intoxicated

116. Did you attend a party or social event <u>in the hours preceding</u> the attempted or completed sexual assault(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and that person was not at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event but not with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct, and I met that person at the party/event
☐Yes, I went to a campus party/event together with the person who engaged in the sexual misconduct
☐No, I did not attend a party/event

117. Was there an opportunity for friends or bystanders to intervene before the attempted or completed sexual assault(s)?
☐No
☐Yes
☐Unsure

118. For quality control, select the option for "unsure."
☐Unsure
☐No
☐Yes

(End of Page 31)

[PAGE 32]

119. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who attempted or completed the sexual assault(s) before this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

120. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who attempted or completed the sexual assault(s) during this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

121. Did you experience any type of threat or physical force from the person who attempted or completed the sexual assault(s) after this experience?
☐No, I did not experience threats or physical force
☐Yes, I experienced threats
☐Yes, I experienced physical force
☐Yes, I experienced both threats and physical force

122. Is there anything else you would like us to know that will help us prevent incidents like this from happening in the future?
_____
_____

123. Is there anything else you would like us to know about your experience?
_____
_____

124. Did you seek support during or after the incident(s) from any of the following? (check all that apply)
☐Friends who are not Grinnell College students
☐Friends who are Grinnell College students
☐Family member
☐Campus Advocates
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Chaplain
☐Ombuds Office
☐Therapist or counselor
☐Other (specify): _____

125. Did you report the behaviors to anyone who in their official capacity could help address the incident(s)? (check all that apply)
☐Student Advisor (SA)
☐Residence Life Coordinator (RLC)
☐Faculty member
☐Coach
☐Ombuds Office
☐Student Affairs
☐Title IX Coordinator
☐Police
☐Other (specify): _____
☐None, I did not report

Destination: **Page 33** (Did You Report (None, I did not report))
Destination: **Page 34** (Did You Report (Any of the above))

(End of Page 32)

[PAGE 33]

126. You stated that you did not report the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s). Check all of the reasons below for why you did not report.

☐I do not or did not believe what happened was abuse.

☐No experience/I did tell someone (If checked, branch to reporting questions next page)

☐Ashamed/embarrassed
☐Is a private matter – wanted to deal with it on own
☐Concerned others would find out
☐Didn't want the person who did it to get in trouble
☐Fear of retribution from the person who did it
☐Fear of not being believed
☐I thought I would be blamed for what happened
☐Didn't think what happened was serious enough to talk about
☐Didn't think others would think it was serious
☐Thought people would try to tell me what to do
☐Would feel like an admission of failure
☐Didn't think others would think it was important
☐Didn't think others would understand
☐Didn't have time to deal with it due to academics, work, etc.
☐Didn't know reporting procedure on campus
☐Feared I or another would be punished for infractions or violations (such as underage drinking)
☐I did not feel the campus leadership would solve my problems
☐I feared others would harass me or react negatively toward me
☐I thought nothing would be done
☐Didn't want others to worry about me
☐Wanted to forget it happened
☐Had other things I needed to focus on and was concerned about (classes, work)
☐Didn't think the school would do anything about my report.
☐Other (specify) _____

Destination: **Page 34** (Did You Report ("No experience/I did tell someone"))
Destination: **Page 35** (Did You Report (Else))

(End of Page 33)

[PAGE 34]

You stated that you reported the behaviors to someone you thought could help address the incident(s).

127. To whom did you first report the abuse (e.g., RLC, Student Affairs, Title IX Coordinator, Faculty, Coach)?
_____

128. Why did you decide to report those events to that person or people? How did you identify or choose that specific person or people?
_____
_____

129. To what degree did you feel like the people who addressed the incident were helpful?
_____
_____
_____

130. Is there anything you would change or like to see happen in the future in similar incidents that are reported to this person, agency, or organization?
_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 34)

[PAGE 35]

For the purposes of this study, **dating abuse** includes a wide range of verbal, emotional, controlling and isolating behaviors, as well as physical or sexual violence. Dating abuse takes many forms, both obvious and subtle. It includes
• Punching, slapping, pushing, and grabbing
• Sexual abuse
• Threats of violence (to self or others), verbal attacks, constant insults, put downs and other forms of intimidation
• Possessiveness and controlling behavior (e.g., preventing one from spending time with other friends, telling how to dress, telling what classes to take)
• Pressuring to drink alcohol or do drugs
• It can also include abuse via technology (e.g., stealing passwords, taking control of social media profile) and money (e.g., buying items as a means of control)

131. On this campus, dating abuse is a
☐major problem
☐minor problem
☐not a problem

(End of Page 35)

[PAGE 36]

For the purposes of this survey, **stalking** is defined as a course of unwelcome conduct directed toward another person that could be reasonably regarded as likely to alarm, harass, and/or cause reasonable fear of harm or injury. Stalking may include unwelcome and repeated visual or physical proximity to a person. It may also include unwelcome or unsolicited emails, instant messages, and messages on online bulletin boards

132. On this campus, stalking is a
- ☐major problem
- ☐minor problem
- ☐not a problem

(End of Page 36)

[PAGE 37]

For the purposes of this survey, **unwanted sexual communication** is defined as unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other comments of a sexual nature. The unwanted communication may occur in person, through phone conversation, text message, instant message, email, written message, or other media to which a person is subjected without invitation or consent.

133. On this campus, unwanted sexual communication is a
- ☐major problem
- ☐minor problem
- ☐not a problem

(End of Page 37)

[PAGE 38]

For the purposes of this survey, **unwanted sexual touching** is defined as any contact with the breasts, buttocks, groin, or genitals without consent. This includes these body parts being touched with any object, or being made to touch yourself or another with or on any of these body parts. Unwanted touching may be brief, appear accidental, or begin with consented, acceptable touching and subsequently progress outside the boundaries of consent.

134. On this campus, unwanted sexual touching is a
- ☐major problem
- ☐minor problem
- ☐not a problem

(End of Page 38)

[PAGE 39]

For the purposes of this survey, **sexual assault** is defined as attempted or completed vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse without consent. Consent for one type of sexual act does not mean consent has been given for other acts. Physical force **does not** have to occur for a sexual act to be considered sexual assault.

135. On this campus, attempted and completed sexual assault is a
- ☐major problem
- ☐minor problem
- ☐not a problem

(End of Page 39)

[PAGE 40]

136. To whom are you likely to turn to for help with issues of sexual misconduct? (check all that apply)
- ☐Campus advocates
- ☐Campus Safety and Security
- ☐Clergy or spiritual leader
- ☐Coach
- ☐Domestic violence shelter
- ☐Grinnell community health services
- ☐Local police
- ☐Ombuds Office
- ☐Residence Life Coordinator
- ☐Student Advisor
- ☐Student Health and Counseling Services staff
- ☐Therapist or counselor
- ☐Title IX Coordinator
- ☐Trusted peer

(End of Page 40)

[PAGE 41] – These questions will be asked for each of the five types of misconduct: dating abuse, stalking, unwanted sexual communication, unwanted sexual touching, attempted or completed sexual assault.

137. If someone were to report **dating abuse** to a campus authority, how likely is it that:
138. If someone were to report **stalking** to a campus authority, how likely is it that:
139. If someone were to report **unwanted sexual communication** to a campus authority, how likely is it that:
140. If someone were to report **unwanted sexual touching** to a campus authority, how likely is it that:
141. If someone were to report **attempted or completed sexual assault** to a campus authority, how likely is it that:

Very Likely Moderately Likely Slightly Likely Not at all Likely

a. Other students would label the person making the report a troublemaker.
b. Other students would support the person making the report.
c. The alleged offender(s) or their associates would retaliate against the person making the report.
d. The educational achievement/career of the person making the report would suffer.
x. For quality control purposes, select the option for moderately likely
e. The college would take the report seriously.
f. The college would keep knowledge of the report limited to those who need to know in order for the university to respond properly.
g. The college would forward the report outside the campus to criminal investigators.
h. The college would take steps to protect the safety of the person making the report.
i. The college would support the person making the report.
j. The college would take corrective action to address factors that may have led to the sexual assault.
k. The college would take corrective action against the offender.
l. The college would take steps to protect the person making the report from retaliation.

(End of Page 41)

[PAGE 42]

142. To what extent does the college conduct process related to sexual misconduct reflect the principles of fairness?

_____
_____
_____

143. What suggestions do you have for improving the conduct process, as it pertains to sexual misconduct?

_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 42)

[PAGE 43]

144. **Directions:** Answer "yes" or "no" to indicate behaviors that you have actually carried out in the past two months.

	Yes	No	No Opportunity
Thought through the pros and cons of different ways I might help if I see an instance of sexual misconduct or dating abuse.	☐	☐	☐
Spoke up if I hear someone say "He/she/zhe deserved to be raped."	☐	☐	☐
Asked for verbal consent when I was intimate with my partner, even if we are in a long-term relationship.	☐	☐	☐
I talked with my friends about sexual and dating/intimate partner violence as an issue for our community.	☐	☐	☐
I expressed concern to a friend if I see their partner exhibiting very jealous behavior and trying to control my friend.	☐	☐	☐
I told a friend if I thought their drink may have been spiked with a drug.	☐	☐	☐
Talked with friends about what makes a relationship abusive and what warning signs might be.	☐	☐	☐
I observed someone talking to a friend. The person was sitting very close to my friend and by the look on my friend's face, I could see my friend was uncomfortable. I ask my friend if she/zhe/he was ok or tried to start a conversation with her/hir/him.	☐	☐	☐
I stopped and checked in with my friend who looked very intoxicated when they were being taken to a secluded location at a party.	☐	☐	☐
Approached a friend if I thought they were in an abusive relationship and let them know that I was there to help.	☐	☐	☐
Expressed disagreement with a friend who said having sex with someone who is passed out or very intoxicated was okay.	☐	☐	☐
Went with my friend to talk with someone (e.g., police, counselor, crisis center, resident advisor) about an unwanted sexual experience or physical violence in their relationship.	☐	☐	☐
Made sure I left the party with the same people I came with.	☐	☐	☐
I talked with my friends about going to parties together and staying together and leaving together.	☐	☐	☐
I talked with my friends about watching each other's drinks.	☐	☐	☐
Watched my friends' drinks at parties.	☐	☐	☐
Made sure friends left the party with the same people they came with.	☐	☐	☐
If a friend had too much to drink, I asked them if they needed to be walked home from the party.	☐	☐	☐
Said something if I thought a friend was drinking too much, too quickly.	☐	☐	☐
Asked a friend who seemed upset if they are okay or needed help.	☐	☐	☐
For quality control, select "no."	☐	☐	☐
Walked a friend home from a party who had too much to drink.	☐	☐	☐
If I heard a friend insulting their partner I said something to that friend.	☐	☐	☐
Talked to my friends or acquaintances to make sure we didn't leave an intoxicated friend behind at a party.	☐	☐	☐
Indicated my displeasure when I heard sexist jokes.	☐	☐	☐
Indicated my displeasure when I heard racist jokes.	☐	☐	☐

(End of Page 43)

[PAGE 44]

145. In the event you noticed a situation that could lead to sexual misconduct, how likely are you to intervene?
- ☐I would not intervene
- ☐I'm not likely to intervene
- ☐I probably would intervene
- ☐I would definitely intervene

146. As a member of a self-governing community it is my responsibility to be an active bystander.
[The behaviors on the previous page are examples of active bystanderism.]
- ☐Strongly Disagree
- ☐Disagree
- ☐Neutral
- ☐Agree
- ☐Strongly Agree

147. Have you received active bystander training? (check all that apply)
- ☐Yes, before coming to college
- ☐Yes, in person training after matriculating to college
- ☐Yes, online training after matriculating to college
- ☐No, I have not received bystander training

(End of Page 44)

[PAGE 45]

Directions: Answer "yes" or "no" to indicate behaviors that you observed **<u>others</u>** engage in during <u>past two months</u>.

	Yes	No
Spoke up when someone said, "He/she/zhe deserved to be raped."	☐	☐
Talked you or others about sexual and dating/intimate partner violence as an issue for our community.	☐	☐
Expressed concern to a friend about their partner exhibiting jealous or controlling behavior.	☐	☐
Told friend or acquaintance if they thought their drink may have been spiked with a drug.	☐	☐
Talked with you or others about what makes a relationship abusive and what warning signs might be.	☐	☐
Asked a friend or acquaintance if she/zhe/he was ok or tried to start a conversation with her/hir/him after observing another person sitting very close and by the look on the friend's face, it was clear she/zhe/he was uncomfortable.	☐	☐
Stopped and checked in with someone who looked very intoxicated when they were being taken to a secluded location at a party.	☐	☐
Approached a friend or acquaintance if they thought that person was in an abusive relationship and let them know that they were there to help.	☐	☐
Expressed disagreement with someone who said having sex with another who was passed out or very intoxicated was okay.	☐	☐
Went with a friend or acquaintance to talk with someone (e.g., police, counselor, crisis center, resident advisor) about an unwanted sexual experience or physical violence in their relationship.	☐	☐
Made sure members of a group left a party with the same people they came with.	☐	☐
Talked with friends or acquaintances about going to parties together, staying together, and leaving together.	☐	☐
Talked with friends or acquaintances about watching each other's drinks.	☐	☐
Watched friends or acquaintances' drinks at parties.	☐	☐
After observing a friend or acquaintance who had too much to drink, asked them if they needed to be walked home from the party.	☐	☐
Said something if they thought a friend or acquaintance was drinking too much, too quickly.	☐	☐
Asked a friend or acquaintance who seemed upset if they are okay or needed help.	☐	☐
For quality control, select "yes."	☐	☐
Walked a friend or acquaintance home from a party who had too much to drink.	☐	☐
Heard a friend or acquaintance insulting their partner and said something to the person making insults	☐	☐
Talked to friends or acquaintances to make sure they didn't leave an intoxicated friend behind at a party.	☐	☐
Indicated displeasure when they heard sexist jokes.	☐	☐
Indicated displeasure when they heard racist jokes.	☐	☐

(End of Page 45)

[PAGE 46]

148. How do you know when you have obtained consent in a sexual encounter?

_____
_____
_____

149. Where or from what sources did you learn about consent for sexual encounters?

_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 46)

[PAGE 47]

150. Do you believe two people who have been drinking alcohol or using other recreational drugs can have consensual sex?

_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 47)

[PAGE 48]

151. In the past two weeks, approximately how many sexual encounters have you had?
[Drop down menu with options ranging from 0 to "14 or more"]

152. For how many of those sexual encounters were you completely sober (i.e., did not drink alcohol or use recreational drugs prior to the encounter)?
[Drop down menu with options ranging from 0 to "14 or more"]

153. I use alcohol or other drugs to lower my sexual inhibitions.
   a. Not applicable
   b. Never
   c. Rarely
   d. Sometimes
   e. Often
   f. Always

154. The typical Grinnell College student uses alcohol or other drugs to lower their own sexual inhibitions.
   a. Never
   b. Rarely
   c. Sometimes
   d. Often
   e. Always

155. I prefer to be intoxicated if I'm going to have sexual contact with someone else.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Agree
   d. Strongly disagree
   e. Not applicable

156. The typical Grinnell College student prefers to be intoxicated if they are going to have sexual contact with someone else.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Agree
   d. Strongly disagree

(End of Page 48)

[PAGE 49]

Trigger Warning
On the next page, we will ask you about your attitudes and beliefs about sexual misconduct. The questions contain references to various forms of sexual misconduct (e.g., rape). If you do not feel comfortable providing responses to these questions, you can skip this section of the survey by clicking "Continue" at the bottom of the next page.

[Alternative page for those who endorsed being the victim of some form of abuse (unwanted sexual touching and sexual assault) from above, either distant past or recent.]

Trigger Warning
On the next page, we will ask you about your attitudes and beliefs about sexual misconduct. The questions contain references to various forms of sexual misconduct (e.g., rape). If you do not feel comfortable providing responses to these questions, you can skip this section of the survey by clicking "Skip" at the bottom of this page.

[Provide two options: "Continue" and "Skip"]

(End of Page 49)

[PAGE 50]

157. Please read each of the following statements and select the number that indicates how true each is for you:
[1-5 Likert-type scale from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree]

1. If someone is raped while drunk, that person is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.
2. When someone goes to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.
3. If someone goes to a room alone with a person at a party, it is their own fault if they are raped.
4. If someone acts like a slut, eventually that person is going to get into trouble.
5. When someone gets raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.
6. If someone initiates kissing or hooking up, that person should not be surprised if someone else assumes they want to have sex.
7. When people rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.
8. People don't usually intend to force sex on another person, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
9. Rape happens when a person's sex drive goes out of control.
X. To ensure reading through all items, select the option for strongly disagree.
10. If a person is drunk, they might rape someone unintentionally.
11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a person is drunk and didn't realize what they was doing.
12. If both people are drunk, it can't be rape.
13. If someone doesn't physically resist sex—even if protesting verbally—it can't be considered rape.
14. If someone doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.
15. A rape probably doesn't happen if that person doesn't have any bruises or marks.
16. If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.
17. If someone doesn't say "no" they can't claim rape.
X. To ensure reading through all items, select the option for strongly agree
18. A lot of times, people who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.
19. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at people.
20. A lot of times, people who say they were raped often led the other person on and then had regrets.
21. A lot of times, people who claim they were raped had emotional problems.
22. People who are caught cheating on their significant other sometimes claim it was rape.

(End of Page 50)

SEXUAL CONDUCT: CULTURE AND RESPECT

[PAGE 51]

The following questions are asked to determine if dating abuse, stalking, and sexual misconduct issues are more or less prevalent for some groups. You are not required to answer any of the following questions and may indicate that choice by selecting "Prefer not to say".

158. What is your academic year?
- ☐1st
- ☐2nd
- ☐3rd
- ☐4th
- ☐5th
- ☐Not currently in school
- ☐Prefer not to say

159. Where do you live?
- ☐On-campus dorm
- ☐Off-campus (college-owned in Grinnell)
- ☐Off-campus (not college-owned in Grinnell)
- ☐Off-campus (not college-owned, off campus study)
- ☐Other (specify)
- ☐Prefer not to say

160. What sex were you assigned at birth? (select all that apply)
- ☐Female
- ☐Male
- ☐Other
- ☐Prefer not to say

161. How do you identify your gender? (select all that apply)
- ☐Female
- ☐Male
- ☐Other
- ☐Prefer not to say

162. How do you identify your sexual orientation?
- ☐Bisexual
- ☐Pansexual
- ☐Lesbian
- ☐Gay
- ☐Asexual
- ☐Heterosexual
- ☐Other
- ☐Prefer not to say

163. How do you identify your ethnic background? (Check all that apply)
- ☐Native American, American Indian, or Alaskan Native
- ☐Hispanic or Latino/Latina
- ☐Black or African American
- ☐Asian American
- ☐Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- ☐White or Caucasian
- ☐International
- ☐Other _____
- ☐Prefer not to say

(End of Page 51)

[PAGE 52]

164. Is there anything else you want us to know about how sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse happens on this campus?

_____
_____
_____

165. What advice do you have for reducing sexual misconduct, stalking, or dating abuse on campus?

_____
_____
_____

(End of Page 52)

[PAGE 53]

166. Did you answer the questions on this survey truthfully?
- ☐No
- ☐Some
- ☐Most
- ☐Yes, all

(End of Page 53)

[PAGE 54]

Thank you for completing this survey. Your responses will help students, student organizations, faculty, and staff determine how best to reduce sexual misconduct and dating abuse on this campus.

If you are concerned about a specific sexual misconduct or dating abuse incident, want to learn more about resources available for victims, or are interested in getting involved, please contact Angela Voos (voos@grinnell.edu) or visit the following website:
• http://www.grinnell.edu/sexualrespect

Previously in the survey, you were asked about your attitudes about responsibility of victims in cases of rape. Please know that the college does not endorse or support the belief that victims are responsible for their experiences with sexual misconduct.

In the event the survey caused you to reflect on distressing memories and would like to speak to someone about it, there are several resources available to you.

• Student Health and Counseling Services (SHACS) provides free counseling and support to those who experience distress. They can be reached by calling 269-3230.
• Contact information for other mental health providers in Grinnell can be accessed by following this link: http://www.grinnell.edu/offices/studentaffairs/health/health-mhresources.
• After hours support is also available by calling 1-800-656-HOPE (4673).

The following resources are also available to you and anyone else who has experienced sexual misconduct or dating abuse. Confidential status is listed in parentheses.

- Campus Safety and Security 641-269-4600 (24 hrs)
- RLC on call 641-269-4600
- Grinnell Advocates (confidential) 641-260-1615 (24 hrs)
- SHACS Nurses and Counselors (confidential) 641-269-3230
- Campus Chaplain/Rabbi (confidential) 641-269-4981
- Title IX Coordinator 641-269-4999
- Dean of Students 641-269-3714
- Ombuds Office (confidential) 641-269-9399
- Grinnell Police 641-236-2670 (24 hrs)
- Grinnell Regional Medical Center 641-236-2380
- Crisis Intervention Services (confidential) 800-270-1620
- EthicsPoint Anonymous Reporting 855-667-1753
- National Sexual Assault Helpline 800-656-HOPE (4673)

Do you have additional questions?

You are encouraged to ask questions at any time after the completion of the survey.
• For further information about the survey, contact Chris Ralston (Department of Psychology) at ralstonc@grinnell.edu, Kaitlin Wilcox (Analytic Support and Institutional Research) at wilcoxka@grinnell.edu, or Jen Jacobsen (Wellness Director) at jacobsen@grinnell.edu.
• If you have any questions about the rights of research participation or ethical concerns about this study, please contact the chair of the Grinnell College Institutional Review Board at irb@grinnell.edu.

A link to the raffle for Chipotle burritos and Amazon gift certificates will be provided after you click "Submit Survey."

(Thank you screen)

Thank you for completing the Grinnell College Sexual Conduct: Culture & Respect Survey

If you would like to enter to win one of several Chipotle burrito or Amazon gift certificates, please visit: Sexual Conduct: Culture & Respect Survey Drawing

Please note that clicking the link above takes you to a separate website. Your email address cannot not be linked in any way to your responses.

[NEW SURVEY – RESPONSES HERE NOT TIED TO RESPONSES ABOVE]

If you would like to be entered to win one of several Chipotle burritos or Amazon gift certificates, please provide a valid Grinnell College email address below. Your email address cannot and will not be linked to your survey results.

[Open-ended response for email address.]