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Building a Model of Black Women's Confidence in Campus Sexual Assault Resources: A Critical Race Feminist Quantitative Study

Jimmy Lee Howard, Jr.

Clemson University, jimmyleephowardjr@gmail.com

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BUILDING A MODEL OF BLACK WOMEN’S CONFIDENCE IN CAMPUS
SEXUAL ASSAULT RESOURCES: A CRITICAL RACE FEMINIST
QUANTITATIVE STUDY

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Educational Leadership

by
Jimmy Lee Howard, Jr.
December 2018

Accepted by:
Dr. Tony Cawthon, Committee Chair
Dr. Robin Phelps-Ward
Dr. Michelle L. Boettcher
Dr. Kimberly Poole
ABSTRACT

The United States’ evolving federal regulations and laws are doing little to disrupt systemic sexual violence, and more narrowly, are doing very little to protect Black women (Dunn, 2014; Harris, 2017; Harris & Linder, 2017; Konradi, 2016; O’Toole et al., 2015; Yung, 2015). Further, Black women are underrepresented in college sexual assault literature and little is known about how Black women perceive campus sexual violence resources and policy (Crosby, 2015; Tillman et al., 2010). The purpose of this study is to create a model to explore Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. In order for institutions of higher education to combat sexual violence against women, college administrators must understand the factors that impact women’s confidence in their sexual violence resources and policies. In this study, I argue that college administrators must eradicate essentialist perspectives of how women perceive resources and are impacted by sexual violence. This study explores the unique factors impacting the confidence level Black undergraduate college women have in campus sexual assault resources. Understanding Black women’s unique confidence level is central to providing sexual violence support services that cater to the specific needs of Black women. This quantitative correlational study explores to what extent the independent variables (gendered racism, affective commitment to the institution, perception of safety, perception of support, knowledge of sexual assault resources, and experience with sexual assault) impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources.

The research questions that informed this study were (1) What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual
assault resources? (2) Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources? For this research study, I utilized black feminist thought (Collins, 2009) and critical race quantitative intersectionality (Covarrubias & Velez, 2013) as theoretical perspectives to create a descriptive quantitative non-experimental, correlational study. The population for this study was undergraduate women, who identify as Black and currently attend attending public, 4-year, predominantly white public colleges within the United States. I utilized survey research methods to collect data from research participants and used multiple regression analysis to address both research questions.

Affective commitment to the institution, perception of safety, and knowledge of sexual assault resources had statistically significant impact on Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources. This study highlights the pivotal role that campuses have in building confidence in their sexual assault policies, particularly for Black women. This research project underscores that building confidence in sexual assault resources is more complex than just training and informing students of resources, but should include more holistic strategies to build Black women’s confidence in their resources. Future research should expand on this research to explore underlying or latent factors that could help explain Black women’s confidence levels. Lastly, researchers should explore to what extent state and local laws have on Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources.
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends, without whom this work could not have been completed. First, this dissertation is dedicated to my partner Jeffery Kenney who has been by my side throughout my entire Ph.D. process. He was the person who answered my questions, helped me brainstorm new approaches to my study, and provided a shoulder to cry on when things got difficult. Second, this dissertation is dedicated to my Mother, Cecelia Howard and my Father, Jimmy L. Howard, Sr. who have sacrificed much to support me in my journey to completing my Ph.D. They provided unwavering support throughout my process and allowed me to come home to recharge, prepare, and move forward toward Ph.D. completion. Third, this dissertation is dedicated to my grandmother, Annie Ruth Cooper who instilled the value of education in me from a very early age, and from whom I continue to learn from even though she is no longer with us. Lastly, this dissertation is dedicated to my nephew Sean Edward Lee. While he is too young to understand how difficult the world will be for him as a young Black man, I hope my journey shows how family, love, and hard work can counter the negative and help him become the best version of himself he can be.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation would have been impossible without the help and support of a strong community. I am generally an independent person, and was surprised that this process would have been impossible to complete on your own. Without the guidance from advisors, faculty, friends, and family this journey would have been nearly impossible. Community support was pivotal in my process and this section will acknowledge those who helped me in my journey.

I want to thank my mother and father, Cecelia and Jimmy Howard, Sr. who have provided support during every step of my education journey. Without my parent’s support and love, it would have been difficult to endure the ups and downs of the Ph.D. process. To my sisters, Aamber Lee and Brittany Futch, thank for motivating me and keeping me grounded throughout my time in my Ph.D. program. Words cannot express how important my family has been in this process, without you I would have been lost.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

A sexual assault epidemic exists on college campuses (Gala & Gross-Schaefer, 2016; Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017; Hong, 2017; Jordan, Combs, & Smith, 2014; Krause, Miedema, Woofter, & Yount, 2017; O’Toole et al., 2015) and scholars in higher education, public health, sociology, education and others have attempted to understand the true scope of the problem for many decades (Fedina, Holmes, & Backes, 2016; Finley & Corty, 1993; Krause et al., 2017). Nationally, an average of 20% or one in five traditionally college aged women (18-24) experienced sexual assault during their college experience (Krause et al., 2017; Muehlenhard, Peterson, Humphreys, & Jozkowski, 2017).

In this study, I provide a framework to understand Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources. This framework is important because most research on college sexual assault and sexual misconduct policies do not address or disaggregate rates of reporting or incidents of sexual violence by race (Crosby, 2015; Donovan & Williams, 2002; Hipp, 2012; Hong, 2017). When sexual assault data is disaggregated, scholars and administrators are able to decipher the unique differences between different groups of women. Specifically of interest to my study is the lack of attention to race in college sexual assault literature necessitates an intersectional analysis to understand the scope and depth how sexual violence impacts Women of Color (Collins, 2004; Donovan & Williams, 2002; Harris, 2017; Harris & Linder, 2017). This disaggregation is important as essentialist views of college women’s experiences with sexual violence and
perspectives of sexual violence policies assume a single dominant narrative which actively centers white women. As such, college administrators are perpetuating harmful narratives that assume all women’s experiences are the same and limit the ability of campus sexual violence resources to fully meet the needs of Black women.

Within the United States, Black women have been subject to continuous sexual violence without much protection from the government or its institutions (Davis, 1981; hooks, 1982; Olive, 2012). Beginning with chattel slavery into modern day, Black women have been subject to horrific sexual violence which was amplified by white supremacy (hooks, 1982; King, 2014). Black women have had to navigate racist stereotypes that presumed their bodies to be overly sexual, sexually cohesive, non-human, and unable to be sexually assaulted (Davis, 1981; Flood, 2005; Gutzmer et al., 2016; King, 2014). Even when Black women have attempted to pursue legal action, especially pre-civil rights era, they failed to find justice for the violent crimes committed against them (Flood, 2005; King, 2014; Olive, 2012).

Muehlenhard, Peterson, Humphreys, and Jozkowski (2017) reported that Women of Color were more at risk and reported higher rates of sexual violence than other populations of women on college campuses. Black women faced an increased risk of sexual violence, higher for those that identified as trans women (Amar, 2014; Donovan & Williams, 2002; Harris, 2017; Tillman, Bryant-Davis, Smith, & Marks, 2010). While many believe that rates of sexual assault are higher, scholars have produced contradicting findings about the rates of reporting for Black women in college (Amar, 2014). Black women reported facing multiple and intersecting barriers including systemic racism,

**Problem Statement**

Black women were significantly impacted by institutional policy regarding sexual violence. Donovan and Williams (2007) offered evidence that not only were Black women more likely to be blamed for sexual assault, they were also less likely to formally disclose rape and other forms of sexual violence. Black women in the United States face multiple layers of oppression because of their intersecting identities particularly race, gender, and class. Jordan-Zachery (2009) reported that Black women are also perceived through controlling images which have developed overtime to justify their continued oppression. The perception of Black women as Jezebels, Sapphires, and Mammies has roots in reducing White people’s moral culpability regarding the systematic violence against Black women (Collins, 2004).

The politics of sexual violence impacts policy and practice today for Black women (Collins, 2009; Donovan & Williams, 2002; Hong, 2017; Iverson, 2017). Black women were largely ignored in campus polices regarding sexual violence. The release of the Dear Colleague Letter of 2011 had an impact on college sexual violence policies
because it provided guidance for the responsibility of colleges and universities to clarify the level, rigor, and speed at which they must adjudicate incidences of sexual misconduct (Carroll et al., 2013; Wies, 2015). Federal pressure for administrations to prevent, adjudicate, and accurately report occurrences of gender-based violence, specifically sexual violence has institutions moving into compliance of federal law and guidance (Yung, 2015). Institutions are more interested in underreporting sexual violence, rather than transparency toward the prevention and eradication of sexual violence (Yung, 2015). College administrations, who receive federal funding and have created changes in their institutional policies and practices to ensure compliance with more justice oriented adjudication and preventative education have failed to address the intersectional and historical needs of Women of Color, specifically Black women (Harris, 2017).

The Office of Civil Rights’ (OCR) regulations and guidance on sexual misconduct, including the Dear Colleague Letter of 2011, created broad national changes in campus policy and practice as it relates to sexual violence. In the Dear Colleague Letter (2017), the Trump administration withdrew most of sexual misconduct guidance that was implemented during the Obama administration. The turbulence and evolving nature of policy, has created a sense of insecurity and lack of confidence in the federal government’s ability to protect victims of sexual violence. Current literature on the sexual violence epidemic on college campuses rarely focus on, or provides data that are disaggregated by race. Thus, Black women were grossly underrepresented in college sexual assault literature (Crosby, 2015; Tillman et al., 2010). While underrepresented in the literature, researchers who study Black women argue that they are one of the most
vulnerable identity groups with regard sexual violence in the U.S. (French, 2013; Gutzmer, Ludwig-Barron, Wyatt, Hamilton, & Stockman, 2016; White, Yuan, Cook, & Abbey, 2013). The U.S. government’s regulations and laws are doing little to disrupt systemic sexual violence, and more narrowly, are doing very little to protect Black women (Dunn, 2014; Konradi, 2016; O’Toole et al., 2015; Yung, 2015).

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to create a model to explore Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. This quantitative correlational study explores, to what extent gendered racism, commitment to the institution, perception of safety, perception of support, knowledge of sexual assault resources, and experience with sexual assault impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources.

**Research Questions**

The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   
   a. What is the relationship between Black women’s experience of gendered racism (independent variable) and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   
   b. What is the relationship between Black women’s knowledge of sexual assault resources (independent variable) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
c. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of institutional support (independent variable) and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
d. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of campus safety (independent variable) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
e. What is the relationship between Black women’s affective commitment to their college or university (independent variable) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
f. What is the relationship between Black women’s previous college sexual assault experience (independent variable) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

2. Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

**Positionality**

Crotty (2003) suggested that the researcher is an instrument of the research they are conducting and has an impact on the directions of the findings. It is pivotal that researchers espouse their epistemological and ontological leanings as the researcher’s positionality shapes how they view the research process, the objects of study, and the way in which they create knowledge (Bourke, 2014; Cox, 2012; Crotty, 2003). Science and race, more specifically racism, have co-constructed the other (Bonilla-Silva & Zuberi, 2008; Harper, 2012). Race within scientific, quantitative research has done violence on to
the very community of which the study was based (Bonilla-Silva & Zuberi, 2008; Covarrubias & Velez, 2013; Patton, 2015). Therefore, it is critical that I expound on how my positionality impacts the direction of this research and the ways in which my experiences guide my interpretation of the data. What follows is a positionality statement and frameworks that ground this study. While positionalities are typically not shared within quantitative dissertations, higher education scholars must move beyond the strict and limiting distinctions of qualitative and quantitative research. In the following section I explore how my identities, life, practitioner and academic experiences have impacted how I understand, problematize, and create knowledge within education.

**Personal Positionality**

As a Black, African American, gay, cis-gender man, my salient social identities have impacted my dominant epistemologies through my lived experiences. It is through these salient social identities that I have discovered the political and elusive nature of truth. As a Black man living in the US, my perspective of truth has informed my belief that knowledge is culturally dependent and situational. It is through my own cultural knowledge, which has been shared, developed, and constructed in my raced, gendered, and classed communities that I have learned to make meaning of problems within education. Through my doctoral training, my mistrust of positivist and postpositive notions of truth and knowledge have expanded. Scholars who assume positivist positions and epistemological frameworks often do not value or utilize nuanced voices, particularly those who have been marginalized and minoritized (Almeida, 2015; Green, Camilli, & Elmore, 2006; Harper et al., 2009). By using more critical epistemologies and increasing
the value of culturally developed and kept knowledge higher education scholars have the power to transform the lived experiences of marginalized folk (Espino, 2012; Hernandez, 2015).

**Professional and Academic Experiences and Assumptions**

As a racialized and minoritized person, I have a role in dismantling racist ways of knowing and “decolonizing knowledge” (Almeida, 2015, p. 99). Over the past ten years, I have held various positions within higher education and student affairs, but primarily within the area of residence life. Previously, I was responsible for overseeing the Title IX reporting and education for the residential community. To do this work, I engaged in feminist epistemology, which illuminated for students and staff the societal power men have used to subjugate women’s bodies (Blackmore, 2013). From a practitioner perspective, I observed that many university efforts to educate, address, and eliminate sexual violence were targeted primarily toward students who identify as white cis-gender women (Harris, 2017; Iverson, 2017). College sexual assault scholarship rarely discusses how minoritized women are impacted by sexual violence. Thus, it is my belief, experience, and assertion that racial inequalities exist in higher education, and I believe this contributes to a racist implementation of sexual violence reduction programs within Higher Education (Smith, 2009). I believe that leaders within Higher Education dedicated to ending gender-based violence may be unintentionally perpetuating systems of oppression and controlling images through their prevention efforts and strategies. Foundationally, I believe those who are working to combat and eliminate sexual violence
on college campus are doing good work but must look systematically at every student’s needs.

**Personal Epistemological Framework**

My view of knowledge is rooted in critical traditions. Critical epistemologies focus on the dismantling of normative forms of truth and validate knowledge and experiences contained within racially oppressed cultures (Misawa, 2010). This validation of knowledge creates opportunities to counter and challenge dominant epistemologies and create complex, contextual, and situational knowledge (Almeida, 2015). Critical epistemologies help me understand the inherent structural racism embedded within policies and systems of education (Harper, 2012; Harper et al., 2009; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Patton, 2015). Critical epistemologies are paramount to this study because I aim to highlight counter narratives from women who have been historically oppressed. It is my belief that oppressed individuals hold the same power to create knowledge of those who aim to maintain institutional and societal power (Misawa, 2010).

Also, significant to me is the critical pragmatic epistemological perspective. Rooted in the postmodernist movement, Bourgeois (2011), suggested that critical pragmatists view knowledge as situational and dependent on “the time, space, and conditions of a given subject” (p. 377). Within the context of Educational Leadership this framework supports evolving ways of knowing and methodological shifts that result as participants and ecological conditions change (Bourgeois, 2011). This epistemology provides a foundation that contextualizes the environments of contemporary educational practitioners and leaders (Blackmore, 2013). Not only can critical perspectives advance
scholarly methods, they also have the power to transmute our perceptions of race, racism, and equity in higher education. Critical inquiry, methods, and analysis are vital in exploring the experiences of marginalized students and uncovering the inequalities (covert and apparent) within higher education (Dowd & Bensimon, 2014; Rios-Aguilar, 2014; Wells & Stage, 2015).

**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical perspectives used for this study are critical race feminism (CRF) through black feminist thought (BFT) and critical race quantitative intersectionality (CRQI). Patricia Hill Collins (2009) developed BFT in an effort to emancipate the experiential and intellectual knowledge of Black women in the U.S. Through this account, she highlighted the nature of the suppression of Black women’s experience and intellectual contributions (Collins, 2009). Collins elaborated on critical race feminism (CRF) and structural intersectionality with the matrix of oppression. The matrix of oppression highlighted the ways in which intersecting oppressions work interdependently, whereas intersectional analysis was limited to the social location of the oppressed (Collins, 2009).

Collins suggested that there were three dimensions of the oppression of Black women in the U.S., including three factors: (1) political, (2) economic, (3) ideological (2009). These dimensions function independently and exponentially oppress Black women. Central in the theory is that Black women have different experiences than Black men and White women. Previous intersectional frameworks inadequately explained the experiences of Black women or their overlapping oppressions (Collins, 2009). BFT
provides an epistemology that centers Black women, and dynamically shifts the analysis to their frame of reference. Collins stated that this epistemology is a social critical theory which is formed through the activism of Black women against the suppression of their knowledge.

In this study I use BFT in response to Covarrubias and Velez’s (2013) call for intersection of critical race theory and quantitative methods. They write:

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are essential for capturing the specific nuances of educational trends. (Covarrubias & Velez, 2013, p. 282)

Covarrubias and Velez’s (2013) call for scholars to use quantitative research as a necessary means to help critically narrate data and transform educational environments is foundational for this study (Covarrubias & Velez, 2013; Rios-Aguilar, 2014; Wells & Stage, 2015).

Covarrubias and Velez (2013) introduced the concept of critical race quantitative intersectionality, which is a framework intended to disrupt the positivistic interpretations of data, to provide an argument for quantitative scholarship to be utilized as a component of Critical Race Theory (CRT). The authors argued that quantitative data is not objective, which troubled the positivistic perspective of information that is derived from statistical analysis. Scholars agree with this perspective, specifically that data is not objective, and the objectivity we offer to data is rooted in “white logic” and white ways of knowing (Bonilla-Silva & Zuberi, 2008; Covarrubias & Velez, 2013). The very notion that the methods, researchers, and data can be objective is problematic and calls for a greater level of critical awareness within education. Through this lens, I utilized CRF and BFT to
critically explore how Black women’s historic and contemporary oppression impacts their perception of college sexual assault resources.

Methodology Overview

I employed a descriptive quantitative non-experimental, correlational design to explore the relationship between gendered racism, commitment to the institution, perceived institutional support, experience with sexual violence, perception of safety, knowledge of sexual assault resources with Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault policies. The population for this study include undergraduate women, who identify as Black and currently attending public, 4-year, predominantly white public colleges within the United States. For this study, I employed a non-probability sampling method, specifically, a targeted snowball method using Facebook as the recruitment site.

I utilized survey research methods to collect data from research participants. The data was collected at one-point in time, and was be used to explore how the variables of interest relate to each other. I used multiple regression analysis to address both research questions.

Significance of the Study

Historically, in the United States Black women have been subject to continuous sexual violence without much protection from the government or its institutions (Davis, 1981; hooks, 1982; Olive, 2012). Beginning with chattel slavery to modern day, Black women have been subject to horrific sexual violence that was amplified by white supremacy (hooks, 1982; King, 2014). Black women have had to navigate racist stereotypes that presumed their bodies to be overly sexual, sexually available, non-
human, and unable to be sexually assaulted (Davis, 1981; Flood, 2005; Gutzmer et al., 2016; King, 2014). As aforementioned, higher education scholars have understudied Black in college sexual assault studies. As is typical, Black women’s bodies were often rendered invisible when researchers investigated issues of sexual violence. Fedina, Holmes, and Backes (2016) asked scholars to produce more research on Women of Color’s experiences with sexual assault. Women of Color were often not included in analysis of studies that addressed sexual assault and violence. With this context, I investigate if institutions of higher education have created sexual violence policies and resources that have gained the confidence of Black women.

Additionally, this research adds complexity to both scholar and practitioner work by crafting a model that provides an example of how counter narratives should and can be used to allow more marginal voices and experiences to be centered in quantitative research. This research study highlights how two epistemological frameworks (critical and postpositive frames) accentuate a tension of knowledge creation and exploration that provides nuance to quantitative analysis. This tension should continue to forefront systematic inquiry of the structural inequalities in education and to deconstruct racist policies and practices (Harper, 2012).

**Limitations**

I critically analyzed the foundations, methods, and research design in the construction of this study, but there were a few limitations that may have influenced the generalizability of the findings. I used a non-probability sampling method to identify participants, which may have influenced the external validity, or generalization of the
study. With non-experimental quantitative research, the findings of this survey could be influenced by latent variables that the study did not address. For this study I used simultaneous multiple regression, where all predictors are initially included in the model therefore the regression coefficients could have been significantly impacted by the combination of predictor variables within the model.

The use of social media as the site for this research study could affect the quality of survey responses and could bias the results based on those who volunteer to participate in the study. This study did not require participants to use a specific tool (e.g. personal computer, cell phone, or tablet) to take the survey; this could limit participants’ ability to access and complete the survey. The number of students that agree to participate could affect the power of the analysis. In addition, survey methods only utilize one method of data collection, self-report. This type of data collection can lead to different data biasing including socially desirable responses. Finally, this study is a non-experiential correlational quantitative design, which means the results of this study will not imply causation.

**Delimitations**

In this study, I explore the perspectives of Black and African American women. While other women may be of interest with regard to the topic, this study does not include women who identify as white or other Women of Color. This decision is deliberate, as comparing experiences of women does not help policy and practice move forward. There is debate about how Black women’s and White women’s college experiences of sexual assault differ, but when women are compared to each other in
quantitative studies, scholars miss out on the specific nuances of each community of women. In my sampling and recruitment measures, there is a focused effort to collect information and data from Black women. Black women are rarely the focus of college sexual assault studies, or policy – they are often grouped together with other women. Black women often get lost in aggregate studies that also continue to produce and perpetuate inaccurate narratives that Black women and other women experience and interpret sexual assault policies and practices the same. My argument is that Black women and other women do not have the same experience, thus my research aim is to explore the unique experiences of Black women around the research questions of this study.

By utilizing a quantitative method, where qualitative methods might produce more constructivist or critical understandings of confidence in sexual assault resources, I have chosen to use quantitative methods to support and complement the qualitative scholarship to explore Black women and a component of their experience with systematic sexual violence and sexual misconduct policies. Research is never strictly qualitative or quantitative. In research, the researcher impacts how the data is analyzed. My frameworks have situated my interpretation of the literature and the data through black feminist critical lenses, but the call for more critical quantitative studies supports the use of research methods that are rooted in post-positivist understandings of data. I hope this study allows for a depth of understanding based on sample size and layered analysis that can be used to guide future policy and research. Black women deserve the use of both types of analysis to unfold and explore their unique perspectives.
Definition of Terms

**Black Feminist Thought:** A standpoint theory and epistemology that situates the multiple dimensions of the oppression of Black women in the U.S. as a producer of their unique consciousness and knowledge. BFT centers liberation of Black women’s ontology, knowledge, activism, and lived experiences. (Collins, 2009)

**Controlling Images:** “Within U.S. culture, racist and sexist ideologies permeate the social structure to such a degree that they become hegemonic, namely, seen as natural, normal, and inevitable. In this context, certain assumed qualities that are attached to Black women are used to justify oppression. From the mammies, jezebels, and breeder women of slavery to the smiling Aunt Jemimas on pancake mix boxes, ubiquitous Black prostitutes, and ever-present welfare mothers of contemporary popular culture, negative stereotypes applied to African-American women have been fundamental to Black women’s oppression.” (Collins, 2009, p. 5)

**Intersectionality:** “Defined as the processes through which multiple social identities converge and ultimately shape individual and group experiences.” (Museus & Griffin, 2011, p. 7; Shields, 2008)

**Oppression:** “Oppression describes any unjust situation where, systematically and over a long period of time, one group denies another group access to the resources of society. Race, class, gender, sexuality, nation, age, and ethnicity among others constitute major forms of oppression in the United States.” (Collins, 2009, p. 4)

**Sexual Assault:** “Defined across a wide range of victimizations, separate from rape or attempted rape. These crimes include attacks or attempted attacks generally involving
unwanted sexual contact between a victim and offender. Sexual assault may or may not involve force and includes grabbing or fondling. Sexual assault also includes verbal threats.” (Planty, Langton, Krebs, Berzofsky, & Smiley-McDonald, 2013, p. 2)

**Sexual Violence:** Defined as “unwanted sexual contact (the use of continual arguments, authority, or physical force to coerce a woman into sex play, including fondling, kissing or petting), attempted rape (physical force, alcohol, or drugs to attempt sexual intercourse with a woman), sexual coercion (authority, continual arguments and pressure to force a woman into engaging in sexual intercourse), and rape (alcohol, drugs, or physical force to coerce a woman into sexual intercourse, including anal and oral sex)” (Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black, & Mahendra, 2014; Lindsay M. Orchowski, Creech, Reddy, Capezza, & Ratcliff, 2012, p. 37)

**Structural Intersectionality:** “Structural intersectionality refers to how multiple social systems intersect to shape the experiences of, and sometimes oppress, individuals.” (Crenshaw, 1991; Museus & Griffin, 2011, p. 7)

**Survivor:** In this study, this term is used to describe and empower an individual who has experienced any form of sexual violence including sexual assault.

**Conclusion**

This study sought to answer the research questions by focusing on creating a model for Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources at four-year, predominantly white colleges. The purpose of this study is to explore what factors impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources to better assist colleges and
university administrators meet the needs of Black women who may encounter sexual violence. This chapter provided an overview of the current study and context for the importance of this research. In chapter two I provide a review of relevant scholarship and the conceptual framework for the study. Chapter three is a detailed account of the methodological choices and research design that were utilized in the study. In chapter four I provide a detailed review of the results of the study. In the final chapter I present the findings of the study and implications for future research and practice.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, I provide an overview of the literature related to the current sexual violence epidemic and how Black women have been systematically erased from the campus policies and scholarship related to the topic. Black women’s needs were not considered in the development of policy and practice in higher education (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009; Hong, 2017; Iverson, 2012, 2015, 2017; Patton, 2015). In this literature review, I describe the context of Black women’s experiences with sexual violence and fight for justice with in the U.S. context. Policy guiding within higher education is discussed, with a focus on the ways in which guidance from the federal government centers problematic narratives and facilitates problematic notions of sexual violence prevention frameworks related to Black women. I also provide an overview of the conceptual framework for this study to help the contextual factors of how institutions can build trust, safety, and community in support of Black women towards a confidence in its ability to provide care.

Theoretical Framework

While many studies have concentrated on understanding sexual assault on college campuses and policy response, these studies rarely focused on or provide data that are disaggregated by race. Thus, Black women are underrepresented in college sexual assault literature (Crosby, 2015; Harris, 2017; Harris & Linder, 2017; Tillman et al., 2010; Wooten, 2017), but researchers who study Black women reported that they may be more
vulnerable than women in other identity groups to be sexually assaulted (French, 2013; Gutzmer, Ludwig-Barron, Wyatt, Hamilton, & Stockman, 2016; Harris, 2017; White, Yuan, Cook, & Abbey, 2013; Wooten, 2017). To frame the experiences of Black women, I use critical race feminism (CRF) and black feminist thought (BFT). These frameworks help situate Black women’s overlapping, intersecting oppressions, their gendered and raced experiences.

**Critical Race Theory**

To situate the use of CRF, I provide an overview of the critical race theory. Critical race theory (CRT) addresses issues race and the law in the United States through civil rights discourse (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009). CRT has been adapted as a framework to problematize race, racism, notions of white supremacy, and address colorblind myths in education (Harper et al., 2009; Hiraldo, 2010; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Patton, 2015). There are many interpretations of CRT, but its core tenants frame its underlying critical epistemology and provide common assumptions from which to narrate the experiences of racialized people in the United States context. The major tenets of CRT are:

1. CRT asserts that race is a permanent component of U.S. society and apparent in the lives of racialized people (Harper et al., 2009; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015).
2. CRT also assumes that race is a social construct, that was created to differentiate and subjugate certain group of people (Solórzano, Ceja, & Yosso, 2000).
3. CRT rejects the notions of colorblindness, neutrality, objectivity, and meritocracy (Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado, & Crenshaw, 1993). Concepts of colorblindness
assist in the perpetuation of “commonplace and more covert forms of racism” (Harper et al., 2009, p. 391).

4. CRT also addresses Revisionist History (Harper et al., 2009). “Revisionist history reexamines America’s historical record, replacing comforting majoritarian interpretations of events with ones that square more accurately with minorities’ experiences” (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001, p. 20; Harper et al., 2009).

5. CRT makes clear that we must listen to and value the unique perspectives, stories, and “lived experiences of People of Color” (Harper et al., 2009, p. 391).

6. CRT scholars recognize interest-convergence, where civil justice is only being tolerated, if it somehow benefits the white power structure (McCroy & Rodricks, 2015).

This theory provides foundation to address systemic issues of race and racism within higher education and policy, but this theory only provides a framework for critical analysis of race, the next section addresses how the feminist evolution of CRT.

**Critical Race Feminism (CRF)**

Critical race theory was necessary to amplify how oppressive structures of racism and white supremacy transcend the espoused fairness of law toward the emancipation of people of color, but critical feminists within the legal discipline refuted the claims that racial oppression was experienced the same regardless of gender location (Wing, 2003). Critical race feminism was the gendered response to complicate the narratives around and understanding of the experiences of Women of Color (Crenshaw, 1991; Wing, 2003). CRF uses the same deconstructive and emancipatory orientations as were employed by
Foucault and Derrida to problematize CRT scholars’ notions of single axis raced experiences (Bell, 1980; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Wing, 2003).

One of the main foci of CRF is anti-essentialism, which comments on the single narrative analysis that founders of CRT and critical legal studies had been previously used in their analysis (Childers-McKee & Hyttén, 2015; Rodgers, 2017; Stovall, 2009; Wing, 2003). CRF theorists proposed that while CRF centers Women of Color, there is no single representative voice of Women of Color (Collins, 2009; Crenshaw, 1991; Wing, 2003). Kimberlé Crenshaw (1991), through the lens of CRT and CRF, wrote a foundational legal article titled Mapping the Margins, in which, she discussed the erasure of Black women in law. Crenshaw reviewed the use of single-axis frameworks which illuminate the plight of the most privileged within a social identity. Crenshaw argued that scholars needed to use multi-dimensional frameworks which examine how women’s race and class impact their oppression within the legal system. Specifically, and germane to this study, Crenshaw highlighted the difficulty Black women face when trying to find justice related to sexual violence and workplace discrimination. Crenshaw’s analysis provided a framework for overlapping social identities and how the interaction of these identities presents a unique level of oppression that may not be protected within the law. Thus, she coined the term intersectionality.

**Intersectionality.** Intersectionality, termed by Kimberlé Crenshaw, is a multi-axis framework from which to understand and explore issues intersecting oppressions including gender, race, and class (Crenshaw, 1991; Wing, 2003). Intersectionality is central to this study because it allows focus on how the sexual violence epidemic is
specifically impacting Black women on college campuses, and how Black women are uniquely located to bear the weight of narrow and single-axis sexual assault policies (Harris, 2017; Scott, Singh, & Harris, 2017).

**Black Feminist Thought (BFT)**

Collins (2009) developed BFT, an extension of CRF, in an effort the emancipate the experiential and intellectual knowledge of Black women in the U.S. Through this account, Collins highlighted the nature of the suppression of Black women’s experience and intellectual contributions. Intersectionality is at the center of BFT (Collins, 2009). Collins elaborates on intersectionality with the concept of the ‘Matrix of Oppression’. The Matrix of Oppression highlights the ways in which intersecting oppressions work interdependently, whereas intersectionality focuses solely on the social location of the oppressed (Collins, 2009).

Collins named three dimensions of the oppression of Black women (1) political dimensions, (2) economic factors, (3) ideological factors. These dimensions function inter-independently and exponentially oppress Black women (Collins, 2009). Central in the theory is acknowledging the lived experience of Black women as fundamentally different than Black men and White women (Collins, 2009). BFT provides a framework that examines the experiences of Black women or their overlapping oppressions (Collins, 2009). BFT provides an epistemology that centers Black women, and dynamically shifts the analysis to their frame of reference (Collins, 2009).

**Gendered Racism**
As previously mentioned, Black women experience both the oppression of gender and race through a matrix of domination (Collins, 2009). This layered oppression is unique to the lived experiences of Black women based on their gendered, raced, and classed locations. In 2008, Thomas, Witherspoon, and Speight conducted a study in which they examined the cumulative impact of what Essed (1991) described as ‘gendered racism’. Gendered racism is the measured overlapping and interacting racism and sexism experienced by Black women (Essed, 1991; Thomas, Witherspoon, & Speight, 2008). Thomas, Witherspoon, and Speight illuminated that sexism is more harmful when racism occurs concurrently. This experience is amplified by controlling images of Black women specifically as mammas, sapphires, and jezebels (Collins, 2009; Jordan-Zachery, 2009). To explore Black women’s experience holistically all aspects of their experience must consider the overlapping and simultaneous sexism and racism (Collins, 2009; hooks, 2000; Thomas et al., 2008).

Thomas, Witherspoon, and Speight (2008) developed a new measure of Gendered Racism, which amended the previously constructed Schedule of Sexist Events (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995). Their instrument measured Black women’s experiences of discrimination over their lifetime which had been previously been highlighted by previous black feminist research and scholars (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995; Thomas et al., 2008). As expected, this gendered racism was evident in every aspect of Black women’s lives, including work. Importantly for this study over 70% experienced discrimination from their fellow students and over 75% experienced it from their teachers and professors. The authors also reported that over 85% of the women studied felt
disrespected because of their identity (Thomas et al., 2008). This scholarship underpins that gendered racism that is ever present for African American women.

BFT and CRF provide a framework allow us to use the experiences and knowledge of the systematic violence that Black women have experienced from Chattel Slavery to modern day (Collins, 2004; Garfield, 2005; hooks, 2000; West, 1999) and to examine their social locations as sites of erased pain, overlapping social oppression, and resilience (Collins, 2009; McCoy & Rodricks, 2015; Patton, 2015). Particularly of interest in this study is using BFT to frame the political and ideological dimensions of Black women’s oppression to provide context for their confidence in campus sexual assault policy and practice.

**Black Women and Sexual Violence**

To provide context for U.S. higher education, the following section provides an overview of Black women’s experience with sexual violence in the United States. Rape and other forms of sexual violence laws are, historically, linked to race in the United States (Freedman, 2013). More narrowly, race is the underlining construct of the politics of rape (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990; Watson, Robinson, Dispenza, & Nazari, 2012), particularly in the early 20th century. Early American rape law, defined rape as “the carnal knowledge of a woman when achieved by forced against her will by a man other than her husband” (Freedman, 2013, p. 4). This definition, legally limited the ability of women to withdraw consent from their husbands (Freedman, 2013), but during the same time enslaved women had no legal ability to deny sexual advances or withdraw their
The inability legal inability to deny sexual advances, have left a harrowing legacy and continues to impact African American women to this day.

Black women’s lack of protection from sexual assault by the federal, state, and local governments was front and center in the civil rights movement (McGuire, 2010). McGuire argued that the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) had rape investigators during the 1950’s and 1960’s including Rosa Parks. The NAACP’s rape integrators responded to incidents of sexual violence that had been perpetrated against Women of Color, and had not found justice in the local, state, or federal government (Collins, 2009; McGuire, 2010). While issues of racism were central to the Civil rights movement, so too were issues of intersectional gendered racism (Linder, 2017; Thomas, Witherspoon, & Speight, 2008; Watson, Robinson, Dispenza, & Nazari, 2012; Williams, 2015).

During antebellum and reconstruction periods, women were property of their husbands within the context of the law and cultural perception; this control and ownership also included Women of Color. Freedman (2013) wrote that throughout the history of the United States, including its colonial period, that only White men have been legal access to freely participate in civil society. Exclusive access of civil participation and respect is the root of many feminist movements (Freedman, 2013; Gay & Tate, 1998; hooks, 2000). Women have been engaging in political and cultural activism to become equal and full humans within the scope of society and its laws (hooks, 2000). Women’s advocacy for equality has centered the need to have full control over their bodies, including the ability to choose or deny sexual encounters (Freedman, 2013). The sexual
contract and consent was central in the fight for full citizenship for women (Freedman, 2013). At the end of the Civil War, the granting of full civil rights for every person was contested (Collins, 2004; Freedman, 2013). The fourteenth and fifteenth amendment to the constitution granted civil rights and voting rights to all Americans; these amendments were adjusted to extend only to men of any race, not women (Freedman, 2013).

**Sexual Violence in the Colonial, Slavery, and Post Emancipation Eras**

The following section provides context for the development of sexual violence law which focuses on Black women’s experiences of sexual violence, brutalization, and resistance during the colonial, antebellum, and postbellum eras. Black women have been at the center of the rape epidemic in the Americas, specifically in the United States (Davis, 2011; hooks, 1990). The Atlantic Slave Trade and chattel slavery set the foundation for the economic capitalism of the United States. The trade and ownership of humans required a systematic construction of Black people as sub-humans, or humanoids (hooks, 1990). Planters purchased enslaved people to perform acts of labor and sexual reproduction (Collins, 2009). Our narratives around slavery often center on the single-axis framework of race where the stories of enslaved Black men become centered (Broussard, 2013; Collins, 2009; Davis, 2011; de la Fuente, 2001; Flood, 2005; hooks, 1990) while the plight of enslaved Black women is an often an unexamined narrative.

The dehumanization of enslaved people was central to the ideology and business of the Atlantic Slave Trade, which in North America lasted from the 15th century until the late 19th century (hooks, 1990; Morgan, 2016). Once in North America, people of African descent were subject to a racial hierarchy, which positioned them as the lowest
and the European Whites as the highest (Broussard, 2013; Freedman, 2013; Harris, 1993; Morgan, 2016). Violently stripped of their human rights, enslaved Black people became the property of Whites. Enslaved Black people were forced to work and reproduce in confinement (Collins, 2004; Watson et al., 2012). Collins (2004) wrote that the system of chattel slavery depended upon gender oppression as well as racial oppression and that gender differentiation within the institution of slavery dictated how labor and violence was distributed among the enslaved. Enslaved Black women suffered uniquely within the institution of slavery, as Collin (2004) describes: “Black women’s sexuality and reproductive capacity presented opportunities for forms of sexual exploitation and sexual slavery…” (p. 56).

bell hooks (1990) provided a detailed exploration of how the Atlantic Slave Trade disassembled the Black woman’s body. From the moment Black women boarded ships for the new Americas to be used as free labor, they became victims of sexual violence (Broussard, 2013; Davis, 1981; hooks, 1990). On the slave ships, the crew members found Black women less threatening than Black men (hooks, 1990). Black women were given the opportunity to freely roam the ship, but their freedom of movement came with violence from the slave ships’ crew (hooks, 1990). The recorded acts of violence committed against Black women on slave ships included accounts of brutal beatings, repeated rape, and the continued threat of harm (hooks, 1990). hooks suggested that passage across the Atlantic was a symbolic loss of humanity and freedom.

Sexual exploitation was a distinct part of Black women’s experiences within slavery. The slave owners, who were mostly White men, took advantage and exploited all
aspects of Black women’s bodies (Broussard, 2013; hooks, 1990; Warren, 2007). The violence enacted upon Black women, specifically by White men, substantiated an active and structural removal of the humanity of Black women. Within the Atlantic Slave Trade Black women were less expensive and in less demand because of their assumed labor worth (hooks, 1990), but as anti-amalgamation laws passed, which made it illegal for any non-Black woman to engage in sexual relations with Black enslaved men, Black women became necessary to increase slave labor (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990). Anti-amalgamation laws produced a new type of legal sexual violence against Black women, which became the one of the foundational aspects of chattel slavery.

Black enslaved women were perceived as sexually available and lascivious (Brown, White-Johnson, & Griffin-Fennell, 2013; Freedman, 2013; Roberts, 1997). Armed with the societal mores, White men were convinced that sexual contact did not transgress religious morals because Black women were less than human (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990; Roberts, 1997). Freedman (2013) wrote that many slave owners purchased enslaved Black women for the specific purpose of having sex with them, without fear of legal or social recourse. Roberts (1997) provided an analysis of the ways in which Black women’s reproductive rights were striped from them and criminalized. Roberts makes clear the impact rape of enslaved women had on her agency and her ability to freely bear children.

Chattel slavery, rape, and resulting children of enslaved women were lucrative for White owners (hooks, 1990; Roberts, 1997). Not only did White men sexually benefit from the rape of Black women, they also produced human capital that could produce
more labor (hooks, 1990; Roberts, 1997). Pre-emancipation the criminal act of rape was reserved for humans with full rights and liberties, resulted in a sexual violence hierarchy where Black women were relegated to the bottom (Collins, 2004; 2009). There was no legal penalty for the sexual violence acted upon Black enslaved women (Freedman, 2013). This impunity depended on ownership and stemmed from the patriarchal constructions upon which the antebellum south used to adjudicate and define rape (Collins, 2009; Freedman, 2013). Ownership was key in the creation of a state of impunity, without legal rights to defined or protect them, enslaved women were helpless within the bounds of the social hierarchy (Davis, 1981; Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990; Roberts, 1997).

White women were also complicit in the systematic rape of Black women (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990). White women were aware of the horror that enslaved women faced at the hands of their husbands, but with protection under the law from sexual violence from men other than her husband, Freedman (2013) suggested that rape of enslaved Black women was protective for White women against the sexual desires and aggressive behaviors of their husbands. Knowing the violence that Black women faced at the hands of their husbands, White women also held contempt for Black women who saw them as tempters of their husbands (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990). The psychological and physical toll was deep for enslaved women, the legacy of which has implications for Black women’s contemporary context. Specifically, for this study I am interested in how this historical legacy impacts Black women on college campuses today. This study seeks
to find out if the historic trauma, exemplified through continued oppression impacts Black women’s confidence in institutional sexual assault policies and resources.

**Sexual Violence Against Black Women as a Tool for White Supremacy**

Post emancipation, particularly in the south, Black women faced a mutiny of violence which was committed upon them to maintain white supremacy (Collins, 2009; Collins, 2004; hooks, 1990). Many southern White men felt that the educated freedman posed a threat to the racial hierarchy in the south (Freedman, 2013). Rape was used as a tool to suppress and threaten Black women (Collins, 2004; Davis, 2011; Harris & Linder, 2017). Under pre-emancipation laws, Black women were the property of White men, which meant that the White men had legal control over them. The slave owners had no limits on the violence they could inflict and impose on enslaved Black women, including rape. Even after gaining freedom, Black women continued to face the possibility of rape within the spheres of work, home, and social spaces (Collins, 2004; Freedman, 2013). Post-emancipation laws did not protect women from sexual violence, particularly at the hands of White men (Collins, 2004).

Collins (2004) argued that post emancipation, rape and lynching were gendered tools for social order and dominance. Black men were subject to lynching based on automatic guilt regarding rape and attraction towards White women, but in the shadow of Black men’s murders, Black women’s continued rape took a backseat. Further, Collins defined lynching as a public, government sanctioned, legal cultural activity which fueled the fight for anti-racist policies, but in turn, the systematic practices while rape “historically carried no public name, garnered no significant public censure, and has been
a crosscutting gender issue that diverts Black politics from its real job fighting racism.” (Collins, 2004, p. 217)

Black men also contributed to the erasure and invisibility of Black women’s trauma. Black men were not oblivious to the institutionalized and consistent sexual violence acted upon Black women (Collins, 2009; hooks, 1991). Even as Black racial politics began taking shape, women’s issues were secondary to men’s fight for the same privileges and power as White men. Gendered violence was a part of the patriarchal system, this was protective of Black men, and did not focus on the sovereignty of Black women (Collins, 2004). Within the new society, Black women were regularly harassed, violated, and raped as a process of creating domination and increasing subordination through humiliation and shame. Collins explained this practice was a form of social control.

**Who Can Be Raped? Black Women’s Fight for Justice**

Race was a new and developing construct which, like gender, for colonists who believed dictated your hierarchical value within a society (Freedman, 2013). Skin and phenotype created a caste system which deemed darker skinned, those who were from Africa, were deemed as less human and of ill moral fiber (Collins, 2004; Freedman, 2013). Race also became an indicator of who could be raped, and who was considered a rapist and thus who could be prosecuted which had significant implications for Women of Color, not just African women (Freedman, 2013).

The definition of rape is transient, there has been no absolute definition over time (Freedman, 2013). Rape has continually been defined over time, within cultural bounds
and limitations (Freedman, 2013). The definition of rape, as Freedman (2013) articulated, concerns “tracking the changing narratives that define which women may charge which men with the crime of forceful, unwanted sex, and whose accounts will be believed.” (p. 3).

The south has a powerful influence on how rape was contextualized in America in the nineteenth century.

After the American Revolution, slavery gradually died out in the North, but with the rise of a cotton economy it became more entrenched in the South. Sustaining white mastery required widespread cultural and legal support. Nothing better exemplified the dynamic of racial dominance than the response to rape. While northern women faced heightened scrutiny when they charged men with sexual assault, at least they could testify in court. Few southern Black women had this option. When northern states eliminated capital punishment for rape, southern states retained it for Black men convicted of assaulting White women. In the antebellum South, race began to define rape. Legal disparities in prosecution would deepen after the Civil War. By the late nineteenth century, two sets of southern racial beliefs strongly shaped definitions of rape throughout the nation: first, that Black women could not be raped, and second, that Black men threatened white female virtue. (Freedman, 2013, p. 27)

Laws made explicit the exclusion of the protection of Black women (Collins, 2009; Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990). During the 1830’s, rape laws which were protective of White women, but did not include Black women (Freedman, 2013). Many laws which
had no qualifiers were updated to ensure White was included as a qualifier to signify that Black women, even if free, were not legally protected under the law (Freedman, 2013). As with most situations, there were no absolutes within this, there were many cases in which Black women were included in law, however prosecution of their cases often resulted in lenient sentences and punishments (Freedman, 2013).

Who could be raped, and by whom, became central in the fight to become truly free of White rule. African American women’s self-severity and “sexual integrity” was at the core of this post emancipation fight (Freedman, 2013, p. 74). Following emancipation, African American men and women sought to redress the systematic sexual abuse endemic within slavery. Their efforts were stalled by deep conventions in the south for White men to have the ability to maintain their dominance and retain their sexual power. White men tried to reclaim their power after the civil war, and this power took the shape of violence against Black communities (Freedman, 2013; Collins, 2009). One of the most significant tools was the use of rape as a function of power and control. White men, who were former owners, would force themselves on newly freed, previously enslaved women. Freedman suggested with the new ability to resist their urges, many tried to forcibly fight the advances of the White men including Black men’s attempts to protect Black women. This resistance was challenged with greater force; Black men and women often faced with violence, death, or the threat of death if they interfered with White men’s attempts to rape Black women. Freedman (2013) reported:
In this climate, exercising the right to refuse sex or to defend female kin remained as risky as under slaver, a message that the assailants no doubt intended to convey.” (p. 75)

Ida B. Wells, a pivotal anti-lynching and anti-rape political activist, argued that there could be no equality if there continued to be sexual violence perpetrated against Black women (Freedman, 2013). Wells’ work was important to highlight the struggles Black women in the U.S. during reconstruction (Freedman, 2013).

King (2014) conducted a historical analysis of the United States and Colonial America’s insidious history around issues of sexual assault committed on Black enslaved bodies. King focused on the antebellum period to the civil rights movement, with focus on experiences of enslaved Black women and girls. Of interest to this study, King noted that during the antebellum period, laws that governed sexual assault did not consider Black women as the “women” articulated in the legislation that protected against sexual assault. Black women, because they were property of a planter, were not seen as fully human, and deserving of fundamental protections (King, 2014). King noted that the concept of enslaved Black people as chattel and lack of legal protection continued long after emancipation. King, along with other scholars, examined how sexual assaults of Black bodies were used a tool to reclaim white supremacy in the decades following emancipation (Harris & Linder, 2017; hooks, 2000; King, 2014; West, 1999). Freedman (2013) wrote, regarding the lack of legal protection following emancipation, “in the rare insistences when free Black women accused White men of rape, courts assumed that they had consented, so deeply had all women of their race been marked by the sexual
availability of slaves” (p. 19). King’s account, exemplified how historical context helps us understand the current issues Black women face in the current legal system. King noted that the U.S. legal system was not built to protect Black bodies, and continued to fail to protect Black women (Harris, 1993).

**Erasure of Rape and the New Racism**

Collins (2004) articulated that rape, which was used to control the bodies and minds of Black women, is now largely apart of what she terms as the New Racism. She explained:

> Because new racism contains the past-in-present elements of prior periods, African American politics must be vigilant in analyzing how the past-in-present practices of Black sexual politics also influence contemporary politics (Collins, 2004, p. 223).

Using a contemporary example illustrates how the new racism works within the structures of government, work space, and private spaces:

> The sexual harassment visited upon Anita Hill and Black women in the workplace to sexual extortion to acquaintance, marital, and stranger rapes to how misogynistic beliefs about women create an interpretive framework that simultaneously creates the conditions in which men rape women and erase the crime itself to the lack of punishment meted out by the state to Black women’s rapists, sexual violence is much broader than any specific acts. (Collins, 2004, pp. 224-225)
Collin’s described rape is a systematic tool for men’s dominance, and the hierarchy of hegemonic musicality is reliant upon the “sexual and physical domination of women” (2004, p. 225). Collins suggested that the most pressing issue with regards to Black sexual politics is “violence against Black women at the hands of Black men.” (2004, p. 225).

Black social leaders have often overlooked the institutionalized rape of Black women, including rape at the hands of Black men (Davis, 2011; Freedman, 2013; Hill Collins, 2004; hooks, 1990; West & Johnson, 2013). These leaders of all genders felt a racial pressure to remain quiet about the systemic violence in the name of racial advancement (Collins, 2004). As Freedman (2013) explained, Black men were the main perpetrators of all sexual violence, and Black women were cautious about exposing them during pivotal moments of racial liberation. Collins (2004) asserted that Black women were beginning to break the social contract of protecting Black men at the cost of their personal safety, protection, and sovereignty.

Not only were Black women expected to accept sexual abuse, but they also stood with Black men who had been accused and convicted of sexual violence in the name of racial justice (Davis, 1981; Collins, 2004; hooks, 1990). This acceptance of violence adds to the narrative of the “Strong Black Woman” where Black women were perceived as being one dimensional, emotionless, and super-human strong (Collins, 2009, hooks 1990; Harris-Perry, 2011). This controlling narrative does not allow women the space for emotionality or pain. Black women must concurrently embody emotion and emotionless. This image of Black women erased their pain and suffering from those expecting Black
women be able to handle anything (hooks, 1990). While Black women were and must be resilient, under their overlapping and intersecting oppression, hooks (1990) contended that when society assumes that Black women, who have no ability to feel pain or at least have a higher tolerance of pain, we pacify our need to intervene or see them as true victims of violence, particularly physical and sexual violence.

Collins (2004) described the way that sexual violence systematically holds women, particularly Black women hostage:

rape's power also stems from relegating sexual violence to the private, devalued, domestic sphere reserved for women. The ability to silence its victims also erases evidence of the crime. “(p. 228).

The trauma of experiencing rape is compounded for African American women (Collins, 2004). All women who experience sexual violence, experience psychological and physical impacts including depression, suicidal ideations, and posttraumatic stress syndrome (Harris, 2017; Long & Ullman, 2013). Collins asserted that when society renders Black women simultaneously as invincible, hypersexual, and invisible it makes “claiming the status of rape victim becomes even more suspect.” (2004, p. 229). Black women who are victims of sexual assault might be further victimized upon reporting a rape, and more so if they are believed (Collins, 2004; Krebs et al., 2011; Wooten, 2017). Black women faced disbelief and a perception of responsibility this complicates how we support Black women through policy and practice.

We have no unified narrative about Black women’s pain in the United States (Davis, 1981; Hill Collins, 2004; hooks, 2000). In comparison, Black Men’s experiences
with violence foreground the United States history of racial inequality. Collins (2004; 2009) reminded us of the ways in which Black women’s pain and experiences were eclipsed by Black men’s suffering of public acts of violence including lynching. Collins argued that being eclipsed by public outcry over violence committed upon Black men’s bodies rendered Black women invisible. The U.S. has never developed a nuanced narrative about the systems of control and violence perpetrated against Black women. Black women’s history with sexual violence is gendered and raced, and sexual assault public policy must consider these experiences as valid to inspire trust and redemption (Hong, 2017; Scott et al., 2017).

**Black Women, Controlling Images, and Public Policy**

The dissociation of Black women’s humanity was the mediating factor to the creation of the controlling images of Black women, including the Jezebel (Collins, 2009). Controlling images for Black women were caricatures created in the White imagination. Black women were cast as overly sexual, wild women without the ability to have their sexual thrust quenched, and the ultimate breeder of children (Collins, 2009; Freedman, 2013). Enslaved Africans were labeled as sexual savages, whom where full of sin and lacked morality from the moment they touched the shores of the colonies (hooks, 1990). Women, bore the burden of being cast as the original sinners, and as such “Black women were naturally seen as the embodiment of female evil and sexual lust.” (hooks, 1990, p. 33). Black women were labeled and branded as jezebels whom were overtly sexual and someone who actively sought to seduce men into sex and sin (Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990). The casting of Black women as jezebels, influenced the sell and trade of Black
females for sexual exploitation; this practice took on the name of prostitution (hooks, 1990).

hooks (1990) argued that the framework of prostitution allowed abolitionists to fully embrace the atrocities that were inherent to the systematic rape of Black women. She suggested the taboo nature of sexuality during the eighteenth century, abolitionists refused to speak about rape in any fashion which would illuminate the true violence being perpetrated against Black women (hooks, 1990). In their activism, instead of speaking about rape, they instead focused on the concept and language of prostitution (hooks, 1990), but by maintaining the notion of prostitution within abolitionist writings, they continued to minimize the perceived violence inherent in the institution of slavery for women. This maintenance “lent further credibility to the myth that Black females were inherently wanton and therefore responsible for rape” (hooks, 1990, p. 34).

The jezebel image was important in the rational for supporting the economic and deviant need to force women to reproduce and systematic sexual violence (Collins, 2009; hooks, 1990). Collins (2009) argued that the ideology of the raced jezebel outlasted the formal institution of slavery. Following emancipation, post 1865, planters needed a labor force, and Whites were determined to maintain their economic control and privilege (Collins, 2009; Freedman, 2013). Whites, who controlled all political institutions and economic opportunities, established laws that created hierarchical separation between Blacks and Whites (Collins, 2009). With very few resources, most Blacks stayed in the south (Collins, 2009). Black folk who were south following emancipation were subject to both legal and cultural ideologies that perpetuated gendered racial stereotypes (Collins,
Jezebel stereotypes persisted, Black women post-emancipation were branded as “so morally loose that they were impossible to rape” (Collins, 2009, p. 64).

Cast as the immoral Black women, society feared the uncontrolled sexuality of Black women, which could lead to miscegenation (Collins, 2009). The new Black middle class, which developed following emancipation, resisted the fear of the independent, free, sexually immoral Black women (Collins, 2009). The representation of Black women as Jezebels was countered by notions of respectability (Collins, 2009; hooks, 1990). Black women embraced respectability to debunk myths and to distance Black women from the controlling images of the Jezebel (Collins, 2009). In this process, they adopted Victorian and other common standards of white femininity to force others to realize their humanity and to appease Whites (Collins, 2009; Hammonds, 2001). Black women were divided on these new proposed respectability projects (Hammonds, 2001). Collins (2009) argued that the new standards of White femininity were rejected by working class Black women, who could not meet or did not want to adhere to the standards based on their social location.

Sexual Silence

Hammonds (2001) argued that Black women’s history in the U.S. continues to control over when Black women feel they can speak on issues of their own sexuality. Pierce-Baker (1998) argued that Black women were “silent victims” victims of sexual violence. Hammonds (2001) articulated the problematic silence regarding Black women’s silence about their sexuality. With Black women’s complex history in the United States, Hammonds (2001) wrote that there are three main themes that have materialized within the U.S. context:
First, the construction of the Black female as the embodiment of sex and the attendant invisibility of Black women as the unvoiced, unseen everything that is not white; second, the resistance of Black women both to negative stereotypes of their sexuality and to the material effects of those stereotypes on their lives; and, finally, the evolution of a 'culture of dissemblance' and a 'politics of silence' by Black women on the issue of their sexuality. (p. 383)

Black women were active throughout each moment in U.S. history to fight for their own liberation, but may have had unintended consequences among different communities of Black women. Counter narratives about Black women’s sexuality ultimately promoted a public silence on and about Black women’s sexual issues within and outside of the Black community (Collins, 2009; Davis, 2011; hooks, 2000). This silence Hammonds believed continues into modern day.

Collins (2009) notion of rape illustrated the ways in which sexual violence can silence Black women. She stated that the intent of rape is to render women powerless to the functions over her body (Collins, 2009). Men who rape are stripping women of the power of her own body; this functions to place women as subservient, helpless, and a thing to be conquered (Collins, 2009). Collins stated:

Rape's power also stems from relegating sexual violence to the private, devalued, domestic sphere reserved for women. The ability to silence its victims also erases evidence of the crime. (2009, p. 228)
Black women, branded in the White imagination as overtly sexual, sexually available, and immoral; collectively, through slavery, and after worked to counter the dominant narrative of their sexuality (Hammond, 2011).

Higginbotham (1992) described the phenomena of the “politics of respectability”, which arises during the late 19th century wherein Black women aimed to embody the Victorian ideals of women’s sexuality, by not engaging in public talk about their sexuality. The move away from public talk about sexuality was termed the politics of silence (Higginbotham, 1992; Hine, 1998). This silence aimed to counter the dominant narrative to move away from the architype of being sexually immoral. Silence was a political strategy used by Black women used to protect themselves from the perspectives that deemed them as broken women (Hammonds, 2001). Only under the veil of privacy, silence, and secrecy could Black women create a space where they could discover and define themselves while avoiding the gaze of others. (Hammons, 2001)

Concurrently alongside silence, Black women began to promote what Hammond termed the “Super-moral” Black women in the hopes of continuing to further themselves from the immoral image cast by White men and women. Through this framework of moral superiority, they aimed to gaining “respect, justice, and opportunity for all Black Americans” (Hammonds, 2001, p. 384). As a project of respectability (Hammons, 2001), the politics of silence uncovered new class struggles within the community of Black women. The project was enforced though the continued policing of poor and working class Black women’s bodies and behaviors. Hammonds wrote that the enforcers of this project saw their role as protecting Black women from the racist perceptions of Black
women, which they would encounter no matter their individual choices and considered threatening to the totality of the race. Hammonds suggested, that not only did silence and super moral project hinder Black women’s ability to be truly free, “in choosing silence Black women also lost the ability to articulate any conception of their sexuality.” (Hammonds, 2001, p. 384)

While Hammonds does not present empirical findings, she did suggest that more studies should determine how silence has persisted, maintained, or resisted; and how it explicitly impacts Black women today. Silence connects to the invisibility of Black women within the United States. This invisibility is exemplified by Audrea Lorde (1984) who argued that in a culture that is saturated with racism which has negatively mythologized, misrepresented, and falsified the experience of Black women; Black women become both visible because of their prominence in cultural lore, and invisible because the “depersonalization of racism” (Lorde, 1984, p. 21). The invisibility of Black women, and the culture of silence around sexuality, including sexual assault, is impacting how Black women perceive sexual violence policy. For this study, Black women’s sexual silence is also useful to frame how Black women in college perceive institutional sexual violence resources and policy.

**Controlling Images and Policy Making**

Jordan-Zachery (2009) utilized critical discourse analysis to connect the controlling images of Black women and policy makers’ power to craft laws based their perception of specific groups of people. She focused on how race, gender, and class intersect with public policy. Also, she is concerned with how the stereotypes and
controlling images shift policy making and were used by policy makers (Jordan-Zachery, 2009). Her analysis focused on the ways in which textual representation of Black women or language has shaped public policy.

Specifically, Jordan-Zachary (2009) centered the perspective of the policy makers and the images that they use to justify their decisions. In her study, Jordan-Zachary moved away from the traditional perspectives of policy making, from rational choice theory, which involves the use of logic and cost benefit analysis and political bargaining, to one that situates policy generation as gendered and raced. Jordan-Zachary argued that the controlling images of Black women impact the development of public policy. She focused on three main arguments which formed her policy:

(a) genders are raced, (b) institutional norms and practices are both raced and gendered, and (c) political institutions are a critical component in producing, maintaining and reproducing raced and gendered cultural images and symbols thought their organizational practices and routines. (Jordan-Zachery, 2009, p. 3)

Jordan-Zachery’s framework is consistent with other scholars have utilized feminist perspectives to disrupt the racist and sexists images used in the construction of policy, particularly in the U.S. framework (Collins, 2009; Susan V. Iverson, 2017; Wooten, 2015).

Black Political Thought

Harris-Perry (2004) argued that African Americans are actively engaged in the political process and are educated on the impact of policy. She wrote: “Research in Black public opinion has done the important work of asserting that African Americans are
engaged members of the political system, not apolitical, uninvolved participants at the margins.” (Harris-Perry, 2004, p. 23). Harris-Perry developed the framework of Black Political Thought to uncover the variety, nuance, and complexities of African-American policy perspectives. Harris-Perry (2004) identifies four roles of Black Political Thought, that help African American’s frame social inequities and other relevant political dilemmas (1) meaning making of being Black in the American political system, (2) identification of the political significance of race, (3) helps define African Americans level of reliance on others for help or if a problem is solvable within the community, and (4) establishes the amount of strategic separation needed from Whites for the advancement of group issues (pp. 19-20).

Another vital component of Black Political Thought is counterpublic spaces. Harris-Perry (2011; 2004) defined counter public spaces as ordinary locations and institutions that are strategically hidden from those that intend to oppress African Americans. She argued that within these counterpaces, Black folk are free to discuss their political and personal perspectives without the gaze of White folk in these spaces. Within these counter spaces, Harris-Perry argued that there is a chance for Black folk to imagine and practice visionary politics, which is the heart of Contemporary Black Political thought.

Another critical cornerstone of understanding Black Political Thought is the concept of the African American hidden transcript (Harris-Perry, 2004). The hidden transcript is the public opinion and debate that is outside of the reach of those in power. There are current social sites where African Americans share and develop political
understandings and ideologies that are “alternative to dominant white discourses” safe from surveillance (Harris-Perry, 2004, p.7). Harris-Perry reported,

The proliferation of voluntary, formal organizations in the Black community is a testament to the centrality of organizations to the Black counterpublic...More importantly, African Americans have engineered and sustained a counterpublic through the creation of separate, indigenous, race-based institutions the local and community level. These local organizations serve political, social, economic, and spiritual functions. Often a single organization serves several of these purposes simultaneously. Organizations have traditionally served as crucial sources of collective political, educational, and economic advancement for African Americans. They also serve as sites for dialogue, discussion, and dissension within the community. (Harris-Perry, 2004, p.7)

Black public spaces are critical to Black counter public, spaces where African Americans can feel free and are only in the presence of other African Americans. Harris-Perry (2004) suggests that when counterpublic spaces are thriving, there is a unique a development of ideological political projects within the African American community. These projects extend beyond typical American conversations around “hegemonic elements of American ideology as meritocracy, individualism, and uncritical patriotism” (Harris-Perry, 2004, p. 13). She claimed that Black projects counter some of these ideologies. It is critical to understand the counter ideological projects that happen within counterspace hidden to most to understand contemporary Black political attitudes.
Harris-Perry’s (2004) work helps highlight the hidden transcripts that are happening beyond the reaches of the academy. This study aims to explore how Black women frame sexual violence policy and practice on a local level, while understanding that there is a larger, national focus on sexual assault policy that they may be engaging simultaneously (Harris, 2017; Hong, 2017; Susan V. Iverson, 2017; Scott, Singh, & Harris, 2017). Black women’s political experiences are heterogeneous, and scholars should use intersectionality as a more robust way to understand how Black women experience social policy.

**Policy and Legislation Related to Sexual Assault on College Campuses**

Sexual assault on college campuses is rampant, and a growing epidemic (Fedina et al., 2016; Streng & Kamimura, 2015). The Campus Climate Study conducted by the Association of American Universities (Cantor et al., 2015) with over 56,420 women participating at 27 universities across the U.S. including public and private institutions, reported that 22% of all undergraduate women experienced a completed sexual assault; while 23% reported either a completed or an attempted sexual assault. In this study, the authors defined sexual assault as physical force and incapacitation. The rate for senior college women increased to 26% having experienced a completed sexual assault and 27% reported attempted or completed (Cantor et al., 2015). The scholarship on campus sexual assault is littered with studies have suggested findings about the perceptions of sexual assault, reporting, consent, and bystander intervention (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006; Gonzalez & Feder, 2016; Lund & Thomas, 2015; Potter, 2016), but most sexual assaults go unreported and recently researchers have suggested that we need
to better understand how colleges impact the rate at which survivors of sexual violence report the incident (Crosby, 2015; Streng & Kamimura, 2015; Tillman et al., 2010).

In the Campbell Sexual Assault study conducted by Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, and Martin (2007) where 5,466 women participated for southern and Midwest universities, 14% reported they expected a completed sexual assault, and 19% either completed or attempted. In this study, senior women reported increased rates of completed (26%) and attempted sexual assault (26%). These statistics do not include the many sexual assaults that go unreported or events that are not perceived as sexual violence by the survivors (Lindquist et al., 2016; Muehlenhard, Humphreys, Jozkowski, & Peterson, 2016; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006).

Most sexual assault events go unreported (Banyard, 2014; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2012; Richards, Branch, Fleury-Steiner, & Kafonek, 2017; Spencer, Mallory, Toews, Stith, & Wood, 2017). Examples of these unreported assaults would include interpersonal violence (IPV), date rape, sexual coercion, and unwanted sexual touch (Sabina & Ho, 2014). Sabina and Ho suggested that there are many perceived barriers for survivors of sexual assault on a college campus including survivors not perceiving the seriousness of the act, not having evidence of the assault, personal shame and embarrassment (2014, pp. 216-219). Sabina and Ho’s stated that formal disclosure of forcible rape (facilitated by weapons or physical force) was the most frequently reported sexual violence act to police and college administrators by college survivors.

In a study of 4,446 college women Fisher, Daigle, Cullen and Turner (2003) found that few women were willing to report their sexual assaults to the police, unless it
was an obvious sexual assault involving physical violence, weapons, or they were victimized by a stranger (Amar, 2014). Rape culture and rape myths often impact the way in which sexual assault victims understand their experiences with sexual assault (Lewis, 2013; Olive, 2012; Spencer et al., 2017; West, Donovan, & Daniel, 2016) and how institutions respond to women who have been assaulted (Iverson, 2017; Lund & Thomas, 2015; Wies, 2015; Yanus & O’Connor, 2016).

In 2012, Orchowski and Gidycz conducted a study to explore the predictive factors of sexual assault disclosure and perceptions of social reactions. Women were more likely to disclose sexual assault to friends who are women than to formal providers (Orchowski & Gidycz, 2012). Orchowski and Gidycz also noted, that African American women, LGBT, and other minority students are more often victims of sexual assault than White women. Perception of how college would respond, or have already responded to previous instances of sexual violence has been found to greatly impact trust.

Smith and Freyd (2013) explored this relationship through the framework of institutional betrayal. They reported that college women who were victims of sexual assault, felt betrayed by their institution. Moreover, victims felt betrayed that their institutions created an environment where sexual assault could flourish, in addition to the institution's response to their report. Accordingly, Smith and Freyd insisted that women believed that their institutions have a responsibility to protect them from sexual assault and sexual assault can reduce the trust women have in institutions of higher education. Thus, this enhances our understanding of why some women do not report instances of
sexual violence and illuminates trust in institutions of higher education as a critical component to reporting.

The laws and federal guidance that govern sexual assault on college campuses have recently shifted to provide more rigid policies to address the issue (Krause et al., 2017; Lund & Thomas, 2015; Muehlenhard et al., 2017; Yung, 2015). Scholarship about sexual assault, specifically about the new legislation guiding institutions, is scarce. The laws currently holding institutions accountable for reporting and addressing sexual assault are Title IX of the educational amendments to the Higher Education Act of 1965, Jeanne Clery Act, and the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), and Campus SaVE Act (Moylan, 2016). Laws cannot keep institutions honest, because Higher education continues to under report instances of sexual assault, based on categorizing and campus reporting structures (Yung, 2015). Institutions are legally obligated to share data with the public, but they have found loopholes to actively lower the instances of sexual assault that they are to report (Gala & Gross-Schaefer, 2016). Institutions have turned a blind eye to sexual assault, and in some cases have created room for unprecedented violence against women (Haaken, 2017).

**Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972**

Office of Civil Rights (OCR) guidance around sexual misconduct including the 2011 & 2017 Dear Colleague Letter created broad changes policy and practice changes as it relates to sexual misconduct (Miller, 2017). This section provides an overview of Title IX and the guidance that followed which shaped higher education’s response to sexual violence.
In 1965, congress passed the Higher Education Act which was groundbreaking civil rights legislation that clarified the federal government's role in creating and maintaining educational environments which were free from discrimination (Miller, 2017). Title IX was created as an amendment the 1965 Higher Education Act (Miller, 2017). Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 (Title IX) made it illegal for private and public institutions of higher education to discriminate on the basis of sex if they receive federal funding (Miller, 2017). Title IX states:

No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance.

(Title IX)

Following the passage of Title IX, institutions were forced to follow the federal legislation and made alterations to sports programs and ensured that women had equal opportunities within their institutions (Miller, 2017). In 1997, the Office of Civil Rights developed and issued guidance through a Dear Colleague Letter (1997) which specifically stated that Title IX also included sexual harassment (Miller, 2017). Within the 1997 Dear Colleague Letter, OCR described sexual harassment as either quid pro quo, meaning this in return for that, and a hostile environment (Miller, 2017). The Dear Colleague Letter (1997) also indicated that:

Sexually harassing conduct (which can include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal, nonverbal, or physical conduct of a sexual nature) by an employee, by another student, or by a third party that is
sufficiently severe, persistent, or pervasive to limit a student’s ability to participate in or benefit from an education program or activity, or to create a hostile or abusive educational environment (para. 2).

This guidance further articulated that sexual harassment could be done by a member of the same sex [sic] and included harassment towards people who identify as gay, lesbian, bi-sexual, or transgender.

The Office of Civil Rights developed and communicated further sexual harassment guidance in 2001, in the form of another Dear Colleague Letter (2001). The Dear Colleague Letter (2001) updated the definition of sexual harassment which moved away from two primary forms of quid pro quo and creation of a hostile environment. The Dear Colleague Letter (2001) only mentions sexual assault and rape peripherally either in footnotes or in procedural discussions regarding mediation. There are conflicting options about if the Dear Colleague Letter (2001) made it clear that institutions needed to respond promptly to issues of sexual harassment which included sexual violence and rape, but Miller (2017) claimed that the 2001 guidance does not suggest that their response to acts of sexual violence were within the scope of Title IX. The Dear Colleague Letter (2001) does include suggestions on how institutions should address sexual assault but does not explicitly specify that institutions should do so under Title IX.

The Dear Colleague Letter (2011) made explicit that institutions of higher education had an obligation to prevent and adjudicate issues of sexual misconduct including “gender-based discrimination, sexual harassment, and or violence” (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2016, p. 3). OCR required institutions to hire and maintain a Title
IX coordinator who are responsible for responding to complaints related to gender-discrimination including sexual misconduct.

In the Dear Colleague Letter (2011) institutions were required to ensure that once aware of an incident of sexual misconduct the colleges needed to take quick, preventative measures against its reoccurrence. This included putting in place including interim measures to ensure that the complainant meaning the victim of the violence, would be protect from any further violence or retaliation (Gray, Hassija, & Stein, 2016). Further Gary, Hassija, and Stein (2016) wrote,

Schools must implement reasonable changes to a complainant’s residence, class or extracurricular activities, and campus employment in order to ensure that he or she can continue to pursue an education free from ongoing sexual violence, harassment, or discrimination. These accommodations and supports are to be provided immediately as opposed to being deferred until a legal verdict has been reached or an internal investigation has been completed. (p. 3)

Institutions were required to ensure that all complainants of sexual misconduct were able to continue to pursue their education without any additional barriers or costs (Gary, Hassija, & Stein, 2016). These policy requirements came with urgency and a strong stance in support of the complainant of the reported sexual misconduct.

Miller (2017) suggested that the framework for institutions to respond to acts of sexual violence been in place since the 1997 and 2001 Dear Colleague Letters. The Dear Colleague Letter (2011) made it explicitly clear how institutions should respond to acts of sexual violence (Miller, 2017). In the Dear Colleague Letter (2017), the Department of
Education under the direction of then Secretary of Education, Betsey DeVos, withdrew most of the guidance in the Dear Colleague Letter (2011) and the Questions and Answers on Title IX Sexual Violence document (2014). In 2017, the Department of Education established interim guidance, which was based on Revised Sexual Harassment Guidance that was published in 2001 and reiterated in the Dear Colleague Letter of Sexual Harassment (2006). Green (2018) suggested that new guidance was forthcoming which would:

…narrow the definition of sexual harassment, holding schools accountable only for formal complaints filed through proper authorities and for conduct said to have occurred on their campuses. They would also establish a higher legal standard to determine whether schools improperly addressed complaints. (Green, 2018, para. 2)

With the consistent changes in guidance on sexual violence, institutions could have less legal liability and reduce the types of sexual misconduct that would be considered actionable (Green, 2018).

**Not Alone Report**

Along with the 2011 Dear Colleague Letter, the White House Taskforce to Protect Students from Sexual Assault released the Not Alone report in 2014. The Not Alone report was created to examine the scope of sexual assault on college campuses towards helping institutions center survivors in institutions of higher education’s sexual assault response and prevention practices (White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault, 2014). The Not Alone report suggested actions institutions of higher
education could take to ensure that survivors received the necessary support from campus and community resources. These preventative measures included engaging men, bystander trainings, developing “new investigative and adjudicative protocols”, defining relationships with local law enforcement, and improving transparency in federal guidance on sexual assault (White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault, 2014, p. 14). The aim of this report was to provide enhanced awareness, accountability, and advocacy in higher education with the hopes of shifting the climate and culture on college campuses.

Most higher education scholars have not fully captured the totality of the epidemic facing women on college campuses (Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2002; United Educators Insurance, 2015; Yung, 2015). The literature that focuses on sexual assault is typically situated in responses to sexual assault, survivor trauma, reporting rates, or prevention strategies (Sabina & Ho, 2014; Muehlenhard, Peterson, & Humphreys, Jozkowski, 2017). Missing is a call for the true eradication of sexual assault in higher education (Davis, 2011; Hong, 2017). With recent legislation and guidance from the Office of Civil Rights, colleges have responded quickly, and in compliance to the threat of loss of federal funding if they are not committing to creating safer campus by engaging campus education, bystander programs, and more just adjudication of sexual assault (Konradi, 2016).

**Clery Act**

The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act was passed in 1990 as a way to make institutions of higher education accountable for
reporting accurate crime rates of their campuses (Konradi, 2016; Moylan, 2016). Under the Clery Act, institutions are responsible for annual reporting of crime statistics from their campus and some incidences that occur off campus that directly impact members of the campus community (Dunn, 2014; Yung, 2015). Under the Clery Act, campuses are responsible for reporting various crimes including theft, burglary, gun violence, assaults, and rape (Yung, 2015). Rape has multiple definitions under the Clery Act, the first is forcible acts which included rape, sodomy, sexual assault with an object, and fondling (Yung, 2015). The second includes statutory rape and incest (Yung, 2015).

Utilizing Clery data from 2014, a report from the American Association of University Women (AAUW) communicated that 91% of colleges and universities reported no instances of rape occurred on their campuses. These findings indicated a need for deeper levels of accountability from the federal government. The inference from overall Clery reporting would suggest that only .02% of students were survivors of sexual assault (Yung, 2015). Conversely, the Center for Disease Control reported that around 20% of college students report being a victim of sexual assault (Yung, 2015). Yung identified a significant difference in the reported rates of sexual assaults occurrences, indicating campuses reported lower rates of rape than their surrounding community. While there are many reasons why the statistics are different including barriers to reporting, Yung believed that these statistics highlight the levels at which institutions suppress incidences of sexual assault.
The Violence Against Women Act

The following section provides an overview of how the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) and its reauthorizations impact campus policies on sexual violence. The first iteration of VAWA was passed in 1994 (Moylan, 2016; Miller & Cook, 2017). VAWA was born out of a need to redress the failure of the federal government to acknowledge and protect women from sexual violence. The passage of VAWA established the Office of Violence Against Women within the Department of Justice (Moylan, 2016; Miller & Cook, 2017). As Miller and Cook (2017) wrote VAWA also

revised legal process in criminal investigations and prosecutions, and made funds available for various activities including victim services,

law enforcement training, prevention, and research. (p. 114)

VAWA required that congress reauthorize the law in order to stay current with best practice and modern issues in the fight to end gender-based violence (Miller & Cook, 2017).

VAWA was reauthorized in 2000 and 2005. These authorizations expanded the scope of the protections to include victims of stalking, sex trafficking, and to include American Indian victims (Miller & Cook, 2017). VAWA was reauthorized in 2013 through 2018 and expanded sexual violence protections to undocumented immigrants and those who identify as Gay, Lesbian, Transgender, or Bisexual (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017; Miller & Cook, 2017). The 2013 reauthorization of VAWA included the Campus Sexual Assault, Domestic Violence, Dating Violence, Stalking, Education
and Prevention Act which is also known as the Campus SaVE Act (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017; Miller & Cook, 2017). The Campus SaVE act focused on ensuring safe college campuses through the elimination of sexual violence at institutions of higher education (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017).

**Campus SaVE Act.** The Campus SaVE Act pertained to college administrations prevention efforts, procedural responses to, and reporting of sexual violence. Campus SaVE codified the guidance in the Dear Colleague Letter (2011) and amended the Clery Act (Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2017; Miller & Cook, 2017). The amendment to the Clery Act mandated that institutions reported forcible and nonforcible sex offenses along with the “the number of incidents of dating violence, domestic violence, and stalking” (Miller & Cook, 2017, p. 123). The amendment also made clear that administrations should report acts of hate, and include the gender identity and nation of origin of crime victims (Miller & Cook, 2017).

The Campus SaVE Act also required institutions to transparently publish and distribute their policies, programs, and practices related to sexual violence to the general campus population (Miller & Cook, 2017). Miller and Cook (2017) wrote:

Institutions must detail procedures for addressing these incidents;

describe victim's rights and options for survivors; and outline prompt fair, and impartial disciplinary hearings. Campus SaVE mandates that institutions develop and implement a policy that outlines the jurisdiction of their security or law enforcement personnel and describes any agreements with other agencies for investigation alleged criminal offences. (pp. 123–124)
Finally, the Campus SaVE Act required institutions to create and implement prevention programming for all students, staff, and faculty. The Campus SaVE act continued to rely heavily on institutional compliance, which as previously mentioned can lead institutions to minimally meet the required components of the law (Yung, 2015). Miller and Cook suggested that Campus SaVE’s reliance on institutional compliance does not compel institutions to act in ways that actually eliminate gender-based violence on college campuses.

**Response to Guidance on College Campuses**

Institutions of Higher education create policies that further perpetuate the problem of systematic violence against women, by using patriarchal practices to address sexual assault on college campuses (Armstrong et al., 2006; Brison, 2013; Iverson, 2015; Napolitano, 2015). Scholars over the past five decades have been dedicated to exposing the issue of sexual assault on college campuses (Daigle, Fisher, & Cullen, 2008; Fedina et al., 2016; Haaken, 2017; Harris & Linder, 2017; O’Toole et al., 2015; Potter, 2016). There have even been attempts to expose the environments which perpetuate cultures of sexual violence and how administrators should aim to address problematic patriarchal Greek policies and practices that continue to endanger women (Armstrong et al., 2006; Martin & Hummer, 1989), which has done little to reduce sexual assault on campus (Haaken, 2017).

Until the 2011 Dear Colleague Letter from OCR, institutions had been able to create their own adjudication processes related to student behavioral conduct involving sexual violence (Konradi, 2016; Yung, 2015). Many public universities have been
investigated from OCR for failing to adequately address sexual assault in individual cases (Edwards, 2014; Yung, 2015). Yung (2015) argued that the OCR investigation process exists to provide justice for the victims of sexual assault and to mobilize institutions of higher education to implement policy that addresses the epidemic of violence against women on their campuses.

Public institutions of higher education had to find ways to adjust their practices to meet the standards set forth by the 2012 Dear Colleague Letter, White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault, and the Clery Act (Dunn, 2014; Konradi, 2016; O’Toole et al., 2015; Yung, 2015). Guidance from the Office of Civil Rights, including the Dear Colleague Letters of 2011 and subsequent guidance, has created unmatched momentum around reducing sexual assault on campus (O’Toole et al., 2015), but federal guidance on sexual misconduct has created a perceived climate of compliance within institutions of higher education (Moylan, 2016). Most institutions in their response to sexual assault guidance focused on reducing liability and any litigation that may damage their public image as an institution (O’Toole et al., 2015; Yung, 2015) and others focused on merely reducing gender-based violence, not eradicating it (Jordan, 2014; Potter, 2016). Moylan (2016) explored how Title IX coordinators perceived the institutional efforts to address sexual assault on campus. Moylan found that many Title IX coordinators believed that their institutions were mainly concerned with compliance not which compromised “victim-centered approaches” (p. 10).

College administrations response to violence against women historically has been secretive and inconsistent (Gala & Gross-Schaefer, 2016; Jordan, 2014). Historically,
compared to most acts of violence, sexual violence response on college campus largely lacked clearly written policies, standard sanctioning, and crisis management systems (Gala & Gross-Schaefer, 2016). OCR guidance, the Violence Against Women Act, and Title IX have made gender-based violence, specifically sexual violence, more visible on college campus (Jordan, 2014; Konradi, 2016; O’Toole et al., 2015), but until administrators begin to view sexual assault as a problem that can be eliminated, their efforts likely perpetuate rape norms, culture, and myths (Potter, 2016).

**Black Women’s Erasure Through Sexual Assault Policy**

Black women’s bodies in the United States have never been their own, as they have been used sexual tools through capitalism or as a vesicle to reclaim white supremacy during the Civil Rights Era (Collins, 2009; Freedman, 2013; hooks, 1990; McGuire, 2010; West, 1999). Many researchers have reported that Black women were more vulnerable than other identity groups to be victims of sexual violence and the dominating ideology of Black women prevents many from seeing them as legitimate victims of sexual violence (Harris & Linder, 2017; Collins, 2004; hooks, 1990; Scott et al., 2017; West, 1999; Wooten, 2017). Even within Black communities, where most of the sexual violence occurs, some Black women have internalized the dominant narrative that their bodies exist for men’s pleasure and sometimes deserving of physical violence (Garfield, 2005; Hill Collins, 2004; West, 1999).

When single-axis policy frameworks are used, we neglect those who are the most marginalized. Critical race feminism and black feminist thought provide scholars with the cognitive tools and theoretical positions to unpack and deconstruct the experiences Black
women, while centering their knowledge. To further explore how sexual assault policy inherently negates and trivializes the experiences of Black women, Harris (1993) explored the notion of whiteness as property, a central tenet of critical race theory. For the purposes of my dissertation, I use this tenet to enhance my theoretical framework to understand how policy, while aimed at gender equality and the eradication of sexual violence against women, has been undergirded with protection of certain women’s bodies. Harris (2017) argued that polices and institutional practices that are intended to protect and expand equity, can be subjugated by an essentialist perspective of women.

**Whiteness as Property in Higher Education**

As aforementioned, the use of critical race feminism disputes the notion of a single, essentialized narrative of women. Particularly of concern is how law can both provide equality, but negate which women were protected under the law, wither implied or clearly stated. Harris (1993) wrote that whiteness as a social construct become protected and structurally embedded in U.S. law. Through colonialization and the confiscation of land from indigenous people, whiteness became the single unifying qualification for land ownership. This qualification was rooted in the ideal that whiteness was superior, and those who were White were endowed elevated human status. Harris articulated how through time, the legal system cemented whiteness as a commodity, or property, to be protected through the continued negotiation of the humanity and systematic domination of enslaved Black people. She stated:

Because the system of slavery was contingent on and conflated with racial identity, it became crucial to be “White” to be identified as White, to have the
property of being White. Whiteness was the characteristic, the attribute, the property of free human beings. (Harris, 1993, p. 1721)

White racial identity, not only protected against being enslaved, it legitimized White humanity.

As Harris (1993) explained, whiteness became codified by law as intrinsically valuable and worth social and legal protection. Harris concluded that the legal protection of whiteness became a structural tenet of the United States legal system and persisted into modern day law and policy. She offered that:

According whiteness actual legal status converted an aspect of identity into an external object of property, moving witness from privileged identity to a vested interest. The law’s construction of whiteness defined and affirmed critical aspects of identity (who is White); of privilege (what benefits accrue to that status); and of property (what legal entitlements arise from that status). Whiteness at various time signifies and is deployed as identity, status, and property, sometimes singularly, sometimes in tandem. (Harris, 1993, p. 1725)

Bondi (2012) suggested how Harris’s (1993) Whiteness as property framework could be used to understand how higher education administrators are shaped by Whiteness.

Bondi wrote that the four rights that were granted to through the legal system were: “(a) the right to disposition, (b) the right to use and enjoyment, (c) the right to status and property, and (d) the right to exclude.” (Bondi, 2012, p. 399). Within this framework, the right to disposition allowed White people’s children and heirs to inherit their rights and privileges (Bondi, 2012; Harris, 1993). The right to use and enjoyment, as
Bondi wrote, allowed White people to use of their whiteness at will. The legal right to status and property is underscored by White supremacy, meaning that White people were without reason good intended and natured. This right also allowed Whites to maintain their Whiteness as an actual property, a valuable item that they fight to protect. Bondi (2012) explained:

The courts have recognized that reputation and status as a White person are property of that person, and the law should protect them. (Bondi, 2012, p. 399)

Lastly, the right to exclude explores the power White men had in deciding who was protected via the law. They, by exclusion designed the laws to protect the interests, bodies, and property of whiteness (Bondi, 2012; Harris, 1993).

**Policy Making Framework Higher Education**

Hong (2017) and Wooten (2017) both exposed how Higher Education sexual violence policy narrowly focused and centered on the protection of White women’s bodies. In her analysis, Hong (2017) critically examined the current policies that dictate Higher Education's response to Sexual Assault including OCR guidance, White House Reports, and current law. In her analysis, she discussed how policy and legislation provided narratives about sexual assault that continue narratives that subvert Women of Color in their approach and governance. Hong’s analysis troubled the notions of traditional sexual assault policy through a content analysis of the current federal policy and recommendations. She articulated that there are “problematic and concerning narratives in the legislative landscape” (p. 27). She listed the following as narratives that guided higher education sexual assault policy which are troubling for all women, but
particularly for Women of Color (a) “Improving victim services will encourage reporting”, (b) “Increased reporting leads to reduced perpetration”, (c) “Bystander intervention is a form of primary prevention”, and (d) “Everyone is society shares equal responsibility to end sexual violence” (Hong, 2017, p. 27). These four omnipresent narratives implore student affairs and higher education leaders to find ways to increase capacity and policy to directly address the issue of sexual violence.

Hong (2017) called for a move from traditional sexual assault prevention frameworks to a social justice paradigm (Harris, 2017; Lindquist et al., 2016; Wooten, 2017). Hong defines traditional sexual assault prevention policy frameworks as those that focus “primarily and nearly exclusively on individual responsibility, usually that of the victim and now increasingly that of the bystander” (p. 31). She described how institutions of higher education can and should move toward a social justice focused sexual assault prevention framework with “recognize that sexual violence is ultimately rooted in power, privilege, and socially determined injustices...” (p. 31). Hong’s policy recommendations center the experiences of those without power and privilege. Hong asserted that current policy centers those in power and other dominant groups, mostly White men. Hong further explained:

For instance, law enforcement gets to decide which case is unfounded, and legislators and courts decide what constitutes sexual violence, usually from a heterosexist normative model (overemphasizing penetration as harmful over other forms of violation). (p. 33).
Current policies in higher education do not account for the complex intersection of Women of Color (Harris, 2017; Harris & Linder, 2017; Hong, 2017; Iverson, 2017).

Through one-dimensional perspectives of harm reduction traditional policy negates the lived experiences that may influence the sexual violence imparted on women (Hong, 2017; Iverson, 2017; Scott, Singh, & Harris, 2017).

Social justice sexual assault policies frameworks require administrators and policy makers to center issues of power to disrupt normative behaviors and practices from both students and institutions (Hung, 2017). When centering issue of power, policies and practices within higher education can begin to address root causes of sexual violence, which extends past a single narrative (Hung, 2017). This framework moves away from legal definitions of sexual violence, toward more productive issues of culturally systemic issues of patriarchy, racism, sexism (Hung, 2017).

Social justice policy frameworks illuminate how institutions have the capacity to fully incorporate a sexual assault practice and policy that meets the needs of all community members and survivors. In the next section, I explore how Black women have been specifically erased from institutions sexual assault policy, practice, and prevention.

**Black Women’s Erasure from Sexual Assault Policy**

Wooten (2017) conducted a critical discourse analysis through which she argued that national and federal higher education policy are embedded in and perpetuate white supremacy. Wooten used Giroux’s concept of the hidden curriculum to underscore the impact of a single narrative of sexual assault can have on de-centering the experiences of Black women in higher education sexual violence prevention and response policy.
frameworks (Giroux, 1983). Wooten described the hidden curriculum as “what is directly communicated through educational processes also conveys understated values, judgments, and regulatory norms…” (p. 406). Wooten argued that by using colorblind and race-neutral language higher education has effectively erased Black women’s experiences with sexual assault. This colorblind language that is littered in sexual assault policy centered and held White women as the epitome of sexual violence victimhood. 

Race-neutrality functions within policy to buttress that normative values of Whiteness and subvert the racialized contexts of campus sexual violence. Thus, a hidden curriculum of Whiteness is embedded within sexual assault policy in higher education. (Wooten, 2017, p. 408)

Wooten (2017) utilized a critical race feminist framework in her analysis of the The Not Alone, 2014 report. The Not Alone report was a White House call to campus administrators to embrace survivors, create educational programs, guide policies and practices regarding sexual violence. In her study, Wooten claimed that Black women were lumped into a single category of women, which ignored how intersecting identities present themselves during and after a sexual assault. Wooten suggested that the Not Alone document supposed that in the reporting process, women’s only concern was not being believed. She continued by articulating that Black women must contend with lack of trust, believability, and overt racism when seeking help following an act of sexual violence. This lack of racially specific or culturally relevant guidance centers the dominant narrative around victims of sexual assault, which are that they are White women in college.
Conceptual Framework

The following section provides an overview of the conceptual framework utilized in this study. To develop the conceptual framework, an ecological model was utilized to understand the nested environmental factors and systems that have impact on Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Many in social science have successfully utilized adapted ecological models to explore how individuals are operating and living within multiple environments simultaneously (Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Kubiak, Brenner, Bybee, Campbell & Fedock, 2018). Ecological theory helps researchers analyze the complex interactions between individual and other overlapping factors (Kubiak et al., 2018).

Using an ecological framework, I was able to visualize and articulate the complexity of Black women’s lived experience and identify the factors of focus in this study. The visual representation of the conceptual framework of this study can be found in Figure 2.1. This image provides context for the location of each of the environmental factors discussed within the literature review and the selected variables for the study. The following sections outline the levels within the conceptual model. A summary of the conceptual model can be found in Table 2.1.
Macrosystem

The macro levels of ecological models often include societal norms, attitudes, and culture (Kubiak et al., 2018). For this study, the macrosystem level represents the omnipresent history of sexual violence imparted on, resulting trauma, and the systematic subjugation of Black women. As detailed earlier in the chapter, the sexual violence imparted on Black women’s bodies and the continual maintenance of white supremacy resulted in controlling images of Black women that penetrate U.S. culture. These controlling images render it difficult for the U.S. culture to center Black women in the
sexual violence pandemic. Lastly, encompassed in this layer is the institutionalized protection of whiteness, also known broadly as Whiteness as property.

Table 2.1
Overview of Conceptual Framework

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<tr>
<th>Ecological Level</th>
<th>Conceptual Frame</th>
<th>Factors</th>
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<tr>
<td>Macrosystem</td>
<td>U.S. Cultural Factors</td>
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<td>Controlling Images of Black Women</td>
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<td>Pandemic of Gender Based Violence</td>
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<td>Whiteness as property</td>
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<td>Clery Act</td>
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<td>Mesosystem</td>
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<td>Gendered and Raced Experiences</td>
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Ecosystem

The ecosystem level of this model represents the laws, regulations, and polices of the U.S. regarding sexual violence in higher education. As previously mentioned, there have been many advancements in the laws and regulations toward the reduction and elimination of gender based violence, but central to this level is the absence, erasure, and lack of protection of Black women within U.S. legal system. Included in this level are Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and evolving guidance. This level also includes the Clery Act which required institutions of Higher Education to be transparent about the crimes on college campuses; and the subsequent Campus SaVE Act which amended the Clery Act to expand institutional response, reporting, and prevention of acts of sexual violence.

Mesosystem

The mesosystem level of my conceptual framework is focused on the individual institutions of Higher Education and their response to and interaction with laws and policies represented in the ecosystem. This level also represents how the institutions are embedded within a culture that continues to subjugate Black women and has historically removed them from legal protection. This level represents the ways in which institutions create their own policies and attempt to comply with laws regarding sexual violence. Of particular interest to this study is how the institution is moving towards the elimination of sexual violence including the formal and informal processes that educate, support, and respond to sexual violence within its community.
**Microsystem**

As is typical of microsystem levels of ecological models, this level is focused on the interpersonal relationships that the individual is embedded in (Bronfenbrenner, 1995; Kubiak et al., 2018). These relationships exist within the scope of all of the previous concentric levels. This level represents the interaction between friends and family members with the individual. It also embodies the hidden political transcripts of Black women, who often share their political thoughts and ideas within community. Also represented in this level are the political counter spaces where Black women have conversations about their feelings about policies and practices without surveillance of those outside their self-defined communities.

**Individual Level**

The individual level of this model represents the individual’s social identities, perceptions, and experiences within the nested model. This study is focused on the individual level. This study explores how factors at this level impact how the individual feels about the sexual assault resources offered by their institution. All variables within this study are focused with in this level. These factors the individual’s gendered raced experiences, perception of safety, perceived institutional support, knowledge of sexual assault resources, and connection to the institution impact the confidence in sexual assault resources. The next section provides an overview of the variables included in the study.
Study Variables

The following section provides an overview of the independent variables included in this study. I provide context for each of the independent variables and situate the variables within current literature. The context provided in this section highlights the need for each variable to be included in this study.

Confidence in Sexual Assault Resources

The outcome variable in this study is confidence in sexual assault resources and policies. Carney (2018) explained that trust is central to the concept of confidence and explained that “the concept of trust has been identified as one of the central aspects of social behavior” (pg. 330). For the purpose of this study, confidence in an institution also incorporates the belief that the institution is caring, has good intentions, and overall acts with good will (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2007; Carney, 2018). With regard to institutions of higher education, this also includes confidence that the college campus administration acts in ways that exemplify integrity, dependability, and predictability.

Within the scholarship, there is little literature that explores confidence levels in sexual assault resources; Burgess-Procter et al. (2016) found that most students had high confidence in sexual assault resources, but victims of sexual violence had a significantly lower confidence. Burgess-Procter et al. did not report or disaggregate their findings by race, which is a common issue in sexual assault research. This study investigates the unique confidence levels of Black women, and the factors that may impact their confidence in sexual assault resources.
Gendered Raced Experiences

Black women experience both the oppression of gender and race through a matrix of domination which is referred to as gendered racism (Essed, 1991; Collins, 2009). This study is interested in the structural intersections of race and gender to help explore Black women’s confidence in policy and practice. I used gendered racism to examine how the gendered and raced experiences of Black women impacted their confidence in sexual assault policy and practice. As previously discussed, the layers of oppressions Black women face are unique to their gendered, raced, and classed lived experiences.

Worthen and Wallace (2017) conducted a study that explored how the lived experiences of students impacted their perceptions of educational programs for sexual assault and also their likeliness to report sexual assault. Their main focus was on how the intersection of oppression, privilege, and social identities could impact individuals’ perceptions of sexual assault policies, resources, and reporting. Worthen and Wallace suggested that Non-white students were more supportive of an educational program for sexual assault. This discovery is consistent with other findings that Black students were more interested in sexual health than their white peers (Worthen & Wallace, 2017). This finding was also supported by McMahon and Stepleton (2018) who found that being an African American student generally predicted higher awareness of campus resources than their white peers. Also being African American positively impacted their confidence in knowing what to do if a sexual assault were to occur (McMahon & Stepleton, 2018).

Conversely, Sabina and Ho (2016) suggested that there are no individual or incident characteristics that impact utilization of resources including race, gender, or
other social identities. Many studies had not focused on the individual level variables in their impact on utilization of resources (Amstadter et al., 2010), but Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews (2017) found that racially minoritized individuals were less likely than others to informally report an act of sexual violence. This finding helps underscore the need for research that focuses specifically on Black women to how their lived experiences impact their confidence in sexual assault resources.

Lastly, Kafonek and Richards (2018) found that no institutions of Higher Education had specific sexual assault information or programs that address the “risks and needs of students from racial/ethnic minority groups” (p. 278). While the research on the impact of raced experiences on understanding sexual assault resources and reporting acts of sexual assault is mixed, this study focuses specifically on how the overlapping and simultaneous sexism and racism impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault policy and practice.

**Perceived Sense of Safety on Campus**

I used a measure of perceptions of campus safety to explore how feelings of safety impact confidence in sexual assault resources. While Black women’s experiences are diverse, many in the community have experienced daily trauma through their intersecting and overlapping oppression (Krebs et al., 2011; McGuire, 2010; Parker, 2004). Physical and emotional safety is important to Black women who often question the safety of communities, especially their ability to find resources and advocacy through the appropriate means (Amar, 2014; Lindquist et al., 2016). Garcia et al. (2012) found that most students who had a reduced fear of sexual assault reported feeling safe on
campus. Garcia et al. articulated that students reported that the presence of the campus security lights and boxes, visible security officers, transportation resources were pivotal in their perception of safety on campus. The feeling of safety was also connected with increased likelihood of reporting an incident of sexual violence. For this study, this increase in safety helps explain the confidence that students may have in campus sexual assault resources.

Previous researchers on sexual assault have suggested that the decision to trust or have confidence in an institution can be impacted by the perception of threat or risk they feel on campus (Carney, 2018). Feelings of safety within an institution have been found to be important factors in Black women’s to work, engage, and study (Collins, 2009; Scott et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2012; Wooten, 2017). This variable was selected because perception of safety on campus may help explain their level of confidence in sexual assault practices.

**Perceived Institutional Support**

I used a measure of perceived institutional support as a way to understand how a perceived sense of trust and support impacts confidence in campus sexual assault resources. Collins (2004) suggested that often Black women find it difficult to trust institutions which have historically been or are currently a part of their oppression. Higher education is a space of hegemonic patriarchy, where culture, policies, and practice do not center the experience of Black women (Patton, 2015). Higher education has produced policies that erased and overlooked the experiences of Women of Color, and thus continues to marginalize Black women.
Carney (2018) reported that students must feel that agents of the institution will be supportive and understanding before they feel confident in the institution’s sexual assault resources. When students felt that they have institutional support and were believed about their experience with sexual violence it positively impacted their confidence by increasing their willingness to report (Carney, 2008; Pompeo, Kooyman, & Pierce, 2014; Strout, Amar, & Astwood, 2014). This study explored if a sense of perceived support from the institution is an important factor in confidence in campus sexual assault resources. Specifically, it addresses how the level of trust an institution builds impacts the level at which Black women feel confident in their sexual assault policies and practices.

**Connection to the Institution**

I used a measure of institutional connection as a way to understand how a perceived affectional commitment impacts confidence in campus sexual assault resources. Institutions of higher education have a responsibility to acclimate, support, and build a perception of belonging with its community members (Hannon, Woodside, Pollard, & Roman, 2016; Harper et al., 2009; Patton, 2015). Community belonging was vital for Black women (Harris-Perry, 2011). Harris-Perry articulated that Black women have complex and dependent relationships with each other that support the challenges that uniquely face them. Also Black women were concurrently looking for acceptance from and belonging within the institutions in which they work, learn, and live (Greyerbiehl & Mitchell, 2014; Littleton, 2003; Tillman et al., 2010; Woldoff, Wiggins, & Washington, 2011).
Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews (2017) reported that survivors of sexual assault were more likely to formally report if they held a positive perception of their campus climate. Students who held positive perceptions of their campus climate were six times more likely to report an act of sexual violence than those who held negative perceptions of the overall campus climate (Spencer et al, 2017). Carney (2018) suggested that strong feelings of connectedness and belonging are key factors that could impact students’ confidence in institutional policies. Carney’s research suggested that this variable may help explain how connection to the institution impacts Black women’s trust in campus sexual assault policies and practices.

**Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources**

I measured students’ knowledge of sexual assault resources as a key variable in this study. Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews (2017) found that students who were trained and informed of university sexual resources were significantly more likely to make a formal report of sexual violence. The researchers also found that students who had received training on campus resources were six times more likely to formally report versus those who did not receive the training (Spencer, Stith Durtschi, & Toews, 2017). The research by Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews indicates that knowledge may be linked to confidence in sexual assault resources.

There is disagreement in the literature about how much students know about sexual assault resources on their campus (Halstead, Williams, and Gonzalez-Guarda, 2017). Qualitative studies have shown that students were well versed in sexual assault resources (Garcia et al., 2012; Tsui & Santamaria, 2015). Counter to the qualitative
findings, quantitative studies have shown that most students were unable to identify over half of the resources on campus (Halstead, Williams, and Gonzalez-Guarda, 2017; Hayes-Smith & Levett, 2010).

Worthen and Wallace (2017) found that racially minoritized students were more supportive of education related to sexual assault resources than other students. Most students who remembered being informed or educated about on-campus resources were significantly more likely to know the resources on campus and were more likely to report (Hayes-Smith & Levett, 2010), but most students reported being unable to identify many of the resources on campus (McMahon & Stepleton, 2018; Burgess-Proctor et al., 2016; Hayes-Smith & Levett, 2010). Hayes-Smith and Levett (2010) suggested that even when students identified that they would use the campus resources, students were unsure about if the sexual assault resources would be helpful or not.

Researchers have suggested that women were more likely to know where to find sexual assault resources compared to men, but that only 40% of students knew where to go on campus to find help (Sabina & Ho, 2014; Walsh et al, 2010), but Hayes-Smith and Levet (2010) suggested that there is not a gendered difference in the awareness of on campus resources. This variable was selected to explore how and if Black women’s knowledge of campus sexual assault resources has an impact on their confidence in sexual assault polices.

**Experience with Sexual Violence**

Participants were asked if they have experienced sexual violence since starting college, and their response was a study variable. Strout, Amar, and Astwood (2014)
suggested that even after the passage of the Campus Save Act was passed only 4% of victims of sexual violence report to campus authorities and only 2% report to the police. This indicates that even though institutions have implemented policies that have more aggressively addressed sexual violence on their campuses, the students continue holding a low confidence in the institution’s sexual assault resources.

Burgess-Proctor et al. (2016) suggested that confidence in sexual assault resources was significantly lower in students who had previously experienced sexual violence. Experience with sexual violence had no impact on knowledge of sexual assault resources or perception that sexual violence was a problem on college campuses and were less likely to participate in sexual assault prevention programs (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2016), but McMahon and Stepleton (2018) suggested that experience with sexual violence had no significant impact on awareness of campus resources and confidence in knowing what to do if a sexual assault were to occur. With the disagreement in the literature, this variable was selected to understand if previous sexual assault experience has an impact on the confidence that Black women have in the sexual assault resources on college campuses.

**Summary**

This chapter was an overview of the current state of sexual violence policy and its limits. I discussed the ways in which current sexual violence policy does not protect Black women. Within this context, I provided a historical overview of Black women’s experiences with sexual assault. I argued that controlling images impact the continual erasure of Black women’s pain. I provided scholarship on how Black women engage with
and are absent from social policy. I closed the chapter by detailing the conceptual framework and the rationale for the variables used in this study to explore Black women’s confidence in sexual violence policy.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the methodological choices of the present study. Included in this chapter are the design, methods, data collection, and analysis utilized in the current study. This section begins with a review of the theoretical framework, purpose of the research study, and reiteration of the research questions. Following the framing of the study, the sampling methods are described. Next, there is an overview of data collection and analysis. This chapter concludes with the data analysis plan and discussions of the limitations and threats to validity.

The purpose of this study is to create a model to explore Black women’s perceptions of sexual assault resources on college campuses. This quantitative study explores, to what extent gendered racism, commitment to the institution, and trust in their college impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   
   a. What is the relationship between Black women’s experience of gendered racism and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   
   b. What is the relationship between Black women’s knowledge of sexual assault resources and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
c. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of institutional support and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

d. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of campus safety and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

e. What is the relationship between Black women’s affective commitment to their institution (college or university) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

f. What is the relationship between Black women’s previous college sexual assault experience and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

2. Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

The independent/predictor variables in the study were (a) Gendered Racism (b) Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources (c) Perception of Institutional Support (d) Affective Commitment to the institution (e) Perception of Campus Safety (f) Previous Sexual Assault Experience. The dependent/outcome variable was confidence in campus sexual assault resources.

**Research Design**

The following section provides an overview of the research design and methods for the study. I employed descriptive quantitative non-experimental, correlational design to explore the relationships between gendered racism, commitment to the institution, and trust in their college impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault.
resources. This study is descriptive because the researched questions are focused on collecting information that currently exists, with the intent of describing the observable relationship between variables. As this study was descriptive, it did not involve the manipulation of variables through experimental or quasi-experimental designs. Further because this study focuses on the exploration of continuous and categorical variables that cannot be manipulated through random assignment, a correlational design was appropriate (Creswell, 2014).

**Population**

The population for this study are undergraduate women, who identify as Black and currently attend public, 4-year, predominantly white public colleges within the United States. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that there were 728 four-year public institutions in the United States in 2014. They also reported that over 1,501,300 undergraduate Black women were enrolled as students in postsecondary institutions.

Throughout this study, the researcher has used Black and African American interchangeably; while many conflate the two identities, Black women provides a more inclusive racial category, which includes women in the United States who do not identify as African-American but do identify as Black (Porter & Dean, 2016). Black women are of interest because they are underrepresented in current literature on campus sexual assault, and little is known about Black women’s perceptions of sexual assault resources.
**Data Collection Procedures**

I engaged in survey research to collect data for this study. While many types of quantitative methods are available, survey research is one of the most pervasive forms used in social science and education research (Martella, Nelson, Morgan, & Marchand-Martella, 2014). Martella et al. (2014) articulated three different purposes for pursuing survey research (a) description; (b) explanation; and (c) exploration. Description is described as survey research with the aim of describing characteristics of a population of interest with no intention to explain the reasoning for the observation. The goal of explanation survey research is to probe how variables included in the research are related to clarify a phenomenon. Exploration survey research is focused on uncovering a phenomenon occurring within a population which has typically not been deeply studied.

The purpose of this survey research is explanation. Martella et al. (2014) explained that survey research with the purpose of explanation is likely to center multivariate forms of analysis. Multivariate analyses provide information about the complex relationships about more than two variables. Martella et al. articulated the advantages and disadvantages of self-administered survey research. Surveys that are self-administered often reduce the cost survey projects, depending on the delivery method. The authors explained that self-administered surveys generally rely on closed-ended questions which allow the researchers to ask multiple questions to measure variables of interest. This research focuses on a sensitive topic, but Martella et al. suggested that self-administered research is a good fit for sensitive and personal topics because it reduces socially desirable responses. Also self-administered surveys are well suited for research
that requires the participants to reflect on long-term or necessitates time for reflection and thought (Martella et al., 2014).

**Sampling**

Using appropriate sampling methods is vital to a robust survey research study (Martella et al., 2014). Researchers should identify sampling methods that provide members of the population of interest a reasonable chance of being selected for the study. The sampling frame is defined as “the set of people that has a chance to be selected given the sampling procedure(s) used by researchers” (Martella et al., 2014, p. 261). The sampling frame should be congruent with the population of interest. The sampling frame for this study were undergraduate women, who identify as Black and currently attend attending public, predominantly white public colleges within the United States. The site for this study are the collective institutions where the participants attend.

For this study, I employed a non-probability sampling method. A non-probability method “focuses on whom or what is selected for the sample… the emphasis is more on the quality of the information taken from the sample.” (Perry & Nichols, 2015, p. 64). Specifically, I used a targeted snowball method using social media to develop the sample for this study (Dusek, Yurova, & Ruppel, 2015). A targeted sampling method was utilized to recruit individuals who matched the criteria of the study rather than convenience sampling which is non-systematic (Dusek et al., 2015; Watters & Biernacki, 1989). Once recruited participants were asked to assist share details of study with others who meet the participation criteria.
Data Recruitment Procedures

Facebook was selected as the recruitment site for the study because it provides researchers access to hard-to-reach populations (Dusek et al., 2015; Stern, Bilgen, McClain, & Hunscher, 2017). Social media is defined as “the collection of websites and web-based systems that allow for mass interaction, conversations, and sharing among members of a network (Murphy, Hill, & Dean, 2013, p. 3). I utilized Pew Research Center reported usage demographics to ensure that I could reach my sampling frame via Facebook (Smith & Anderson, 2018). Pew Research Center demographics can be found in Table 3.1. Facebook provides a few advantages over traditional web-based survey recruitment methods including increased response rates (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014; Stern et al., 2017) and multiple levels of accessing self-identified participants (Murphy et al., 2013).

Table 3.1:

Percentage of U.S Adults Who Use Facebook

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>Percentage of U.S. Adults</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ages 18-29</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Murphy, Hill, and Dean (2013) articulated that social media provides an advanced level of conversation between the researcher, individuals, and community which are
relevant to this study. The authors described that social media allows the researcher to easily broadcast information to a broad community. Social media also provides a space for conversation between the researcher and the participants, which is less likely through traditional email recruitment (Murphy et al., 2013). The most unique advantage to utilizing social media is what the authors describe as “Community-based conversation” which articulates the ability for group members to share information and ideas among each other (Murphy et al., 2013, p. 25). These advantages make Facebook an appropriate site for this study over traditional email-based methods.

**Instrumentation**

Due to the exploratory nature of research questions being explored, this study employed a new survey instrument. The instrument that was created combined different scales to create one unified survey for the participants that measured all the variables of interest. The final survey instrument consisted of 60 items, that ranged in response type. The survey included following sections: (a) affective commitment scale, (b) perceived institutional support scale, (c) safety subscale of college campus environment scale, (d) knowledge of sexual assault resources, (e) confidence in sexual assault resources, (f) the revised schedule of sexist events, (g) experience with unwanted sexual behaviors, and (g) demographics. The items that comprised the survey can be found in Appendix A.

**Affective Commitment Scale**

Commitment to the institution was measured using the Affective Commitment Scale developed by LaMastro (2001). This scale measures how much students care for, value, and take pride in their undergraduate institution. To comprise this scale, I used
questions from the Affective Commitment Scale and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (LaMastro, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday & Steers, 1979) which had been previously been reported as correlated scales. For her study, LaMastro selected items from both scales that best represented that affective commitment. In total the scale consists of 9 items, which were slightly altered to reflect students’ perspectives of the institutions they attend, rather than organizations they are employed by. These items provide a measure for how committed a student is to their current institution. The questions within the scale are measured on a 7-point Likert scale. LaMastro reported the scale as having a Cronbach’s alpha of .80. Some of the items require reverse coding, and the result of the scale is a summed score which is used as a numerical representation of a students’ affective commitment to the institution. Scale items can be found in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.80</td>
<td>Attending my college has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel a strong sense of belonging to my college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I enjoy discussing my college with people outside of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I really feel that any problems faced by my college are also my problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I attend my college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel emotionally attached to my college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college does not deserve my loyalty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would be happy to attend my college until I graduate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not feel like part of a community at my college.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perceived Institutional Support Scale

Perception of Trust in the Institution was measured using the Perceived Institutional Support Scale. This scale consists of 8 items and measures the level of support the student feels from the organization and was comprised by LaMastro (2001). This scale utilizes items from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support created by Eisenberger, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986). Previous research on the original scale, which consisted of 36 items, suggests that high loading items within the scale could be used together without compromising the psychometric properties of the instrument (LaMastro, 2001).

The Perceived Institutional Support Scale includes questions that assess students’ perceptions of how the institution values them, willingness of the institution to assist them, and recognize their goals and their contributions (LaMastro, 2001, p. 570). This scale has a reported Cronbach’s alpha of .71 (LaMastro, 2001). Each item in the scale are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale and a summed score of these measures represents a participant’s level of perceived institutional support. LaMastro slightly altered the original wording to represent “the relationship between the students and the university” (p. 570). Scale items can be found in Table 3.3.
Table 3.3:

Perceived Institutional Support Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.71</td>
<td>My college really cares about my well-being.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college shows little concern for me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college is willing to help me if I need a special favor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college takes pride in my accomplishments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Even if I did the best job possible, My college would fail to notice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college strongly considers my goals and values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college would ignore any complaint from me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My college really cares about my well-being.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Safety Subscale of College Campus Environment Scale (CCES)

Perception of campus safety was measured using the safety subscale of the College Campus Environment Scale developed by Fish, Gefen, Kaczetow, Winograd, and Futtersack-Goldberg (2016). The College Campus Environment Scale (CCES) is a 43-item instrument that consists of six different subscales. The instrument was created to measure the qualities of a college campus that prospective college students value. The subscales include the following: (1) academic and career expectations, (2) social and extracurricular activities, (3) athletics, (4) health, (5) role models and mentors, and (6) safety. Fish et al., reported the full scale as having a Cronbach’s alpha level of .950. The
subscales were all within acceptable ranges of Cronbach’s alpha levels which ranged from .69 to .86 (Fish et al., 2015).

The safety subscale consists of 11 items and are measured on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from very important to not important at all. Fish et al. (2015) reported that the Cronbach’s alpha level for the safety subscale was .69, which is the lowest of all the subscales. While this scale’s Cronbach’s alpha is low, the authors noted that the level was acceptable and explained that the 11 safety subscale items also loaded onto the factor that included the academic and career expectations. For this study, I have chosen to change the measurement scale to reflect how participants feel about their current university. As aforementioned the original measurement scale focuses on measuring how student values each item in a perspective college; however, for this study I was particularly interested in how students perceive safety on their current campus. Therefore, this scale is measured on a 4-point Likert type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree, which reflects a present focus. A summed score of these measures represents a participant’s score on this scale. Scale items can be found in Table 3.4.
Table 3.4:

Safety Subscale of College Campus Environment Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.69</td>
<td>Filing a harassment or discrimination complaint is confidential.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are campus safety measures to protect students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are clear and visible procedures for reporting crimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There are campus policies and procedures that protect students from harassment and discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel safe from student-related violence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel safe on campus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My daily decisions are not determined by concerns for safety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel I won’t be put at risk because of my gender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel I won't be put at risk because of my ethnic background.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel safe from social pressures of drug and alcohol use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources

Knowledge of participants’ sexual assault resources on campus was measured using a scale created by Burgess-Proctor, Pickett, Parkhill, Hamill, Kirwan, & Kozak (2016). This scale consists of 3 questions that were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree). These questions were created for a larger study to measure participants’ perceptions of and willingness to use campus sexual assault resources. These 3 specific questions measure the participants’ knowledge of various sexual assault prevention efforts and programs at their institution. Burgess-
Proctor et al. (2016) reported the scale having a Cronbach’s alpha of .93. These three items were averaged to create a mean knowledge of sexual assault resources score. Scale items can be found in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5:

Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.93</td>
<td>I am familiar with the prevention and awareness programs my college makes available to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am familiar with the crisis resources my college makes available to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am familiar with the prevention and awareness programs my college makes available to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Confidence in Sexual Assault Resources

Confidence in sexual assault resources was measured using a scale created by Burgess-Procter et al. (2016). The scale consists of two items, which are measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree). This scale was a part of a larger instrument, however Burgess-Procter et al. (2016) report a Cronbach’s alpha of .92 for this scale. These questions measured participants’ confidence in the ability of their institution current ability to provide resources and respond to issues of sexual assault. These two items were averaged to create a mean knowledge of sexual assault resources score. A third semi-open item allowed participants to explain their identified level of confidence in sexual assault resources. Scale items can be found in Table 3.6.
Table 3.6:

Confidence in Sexual Assault Resources Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.92</td>
<td>I feel confident that The university has adequate prevention and awareness programs to educate students about sexual assault</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I feel confident that The university has adequate crisis resources to assist students who experience a sexual assault</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Revised Schedule of Sexist Events

Gendered racism was measured using the Revised Schedule of Sexist Events (RSSE) which is an altered version of the Schedule of Sexist Events (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995). Thomas, Witherspoon, & Speight (2008) created the RSSE to measure the unique sexism experienced specifically and uniquely by African American women. The RSSE is composed of 20 items which measures the frequency of discriminatory incidents that have occurred during the participant’s life, based on their social identity as an African American woman. The items are measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranges from “1 (the event never happened) to 6 (the event happens almost all the time)” (Williams, 2015, p. 29). Wilson (2015) and Thomas, Witherspoon, and Speight (2008) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .93. The resulting score from this scale is a sum of all items, which make one RSSE score. Higher RSSE scores indicate more gendered racist experiences and lower scores indicating less frequent levels of gendered racist experiences. Scores can range from 20 to 120. Scale items can be found in Table 3.7.
Table 3.7:

The Revised Schedule of Sexist Events Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.69</td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by teachers or professors because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your employer, boss or supervisors because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your co-workers, fellow students or colleagues because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (by store clerks, waiters, bartenders, waitresses, bank tellers, mechanics and others) because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by strangers because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (by doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, case workers, dentists, school counselors, therapists, pediatricians, school principles, gynecologists, and others) because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by neighbors because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your boyfriend, husband, or other important man in your life because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times were you denied a raise, a promotion, tenure, a good assignment, a job, or other such thing at work that you deserved because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your family because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have people made inappropriate or unwanted sexual advances to you because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have people failed to show you the respect that you deserve because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you wanted to tell someone off for oppressing you as a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been really angry about something oppressive that was done to you because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times were you forced to take drastic steps (such as filing a grievance, filing a lawsuit, quitting your job, moving away, and other actions) to deal with some oppressive thing that was done to you as a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been called a name like bitch or slur because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something oppressive that was done or said to you as a Black woman or other Black women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many times have you been made fun of, picked on, pushed, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because you are a Black woman?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Experience with Sexual Violence

The researcher developed two questions that measures if participants have been a victim of Sexual Violence. The first question “Have you been a victim of sexual violence?” which was preceded by a definition of sexual violence provided by Koss et al. (2007) who defined a participant’s experience with unwanted sexual encounters as attempted rape, completed rape, coercive sex, and unwanted touching. This question is measured on a binary scale, with responses “Yes” or “No”. If participants answer “yes” that they had been a victim of sexual violence they received two additional questions to help provide explanatory demographics. The first additional question was “When did you experience the sexual violence?” Participants could respond to this question with the following responses (1) before college, (2) during college, (3) before and during college. The second semi-open question, “What resources were available to you following your sexual violence?” The additional questions helped disaggregate and explain the results of the multiple regression model.

Demographics

Demographic variables were included in the study to help provide a rich description of the participants of this study. Seven demographic questions were included in the survey instrument. These questions were multiple choice questions. The questions were asked with the intended to collect demographic data directly from the participants. The questions included prompts participants to respond on multiple dimensions of their demographics relevant to this study: (1) age, (2) self-identified race, (3) gender identity, (4) Greek letter organization affiliation, (5) State of their college, (6) and College Type.
Data Collection Procedures

Data for this study were collected through an online survey via Qualtrics, which collected information at one-point in time. Below are the steps the researcher took to collect the data for this study.

Preliminary Procedures

This section provides an overview of the relevant procedures that took place before data collection. Stages of the process are listed in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The researcher engaged in a purposeful selection of independent and dependent variables based on a robust literature review relevant to the research problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The population of interest and sample frame was developed using the research questions as guidance and supported by IPEDS data on student enrollment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The author constructed a theoretical model utilizing Operationalization of the variables in the study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Construction of a path analysis diagram to guide data analysis and collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Development of instrumentation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Operational Procedures

This section provides an overview of the relevant operational data collection procedures. Stages of the data collection process are listed in Table 3.9.
**Table 3.9:**

**Operational Data Collection Procedures**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Constructed instrument on Qualtrics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tested the instrument for mobile, desktop, tablet compatibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Selected SAS computer software to conduct data analysis and treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Developed informed consent procedures for data collection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Incentives were identified to increase participation in the study, which included five $20.00 and one $100.00 dollar Amazon.com e-gift cards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Researcher created two virtual images to increase participation in the study. One that invited Black women to directly participate in the study. One that invited Student Affairs &amp; Higher Education administrators to share a posting on their page to help recruit for this study. Including the name of the study &amp; link to the study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Submitted study IRB to gain permission to conduct the study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The study was posted on Facebook and the researcher followed the recruitment schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>After two weeks the researcher analyzed the data collected from the initial survey distribution. The researcher analyzed the number of surveys that were completed, and to see if enough participants had completed the survey to reach power for the study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The researcher reposted the study to increase the number of completed study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>After one month, the researcher closed the survey. Researcher exported the survey data and proceeded to analyze the data following the data analysis plan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Informed Consent Procedures and Data Storage

The participants were not exposed to unreasonable discomforts or risks during this study, but I gained permission to conduct this study by submitting an application to Clemson University's Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects (IRB). Once approval was received from IRB, the researcher began collecting data. Participants received informed consent online before they completed the survey. Included in the informed consent were the purpose of the study, articulation of the minimal risk associated with the study, and guaranteed confidentiality of survey response. All participants were informed of the ways in which the data from the survey would be secured. Participants were also informed that they were able withdraw from the study at any point while completing the survey. Only information from Black women who are currently undergraduate students were retained for use in this study.

The data for the study was collected via Qualtrics, a web-based survey and data analysis software application. Data collected in Qualtrics were secure and anonymous. I was not able to connect survey responses to the identity of the participants, and I did not collect Internet Protocol (IP) addresses from the participants. IP address are identifiable information obtained from the internet-connected device from which respondents complete the survey. Data collected from the survey was stored in Qualtrics. The data were exported into excel files and SAS files which were stored in a secured Box.com file which is password protected online file storage system provided by Clemson University and only accessed by the researcher. Further, exported data files were retrieved on password protected computers which only the researcher had access to.
Incentives were used to solicit participation. Participants who choose to enter into a drawing for one of five $20.00 and one $100 Amazon e-gift cards, were directed to a separate incentive form link where they entered their name and email address. The form was completely separate and not linked to the participants’ survey responses. The list of participants who signed up for the drawing was deleted once the researcher randomly selected winners and the drawing was complete.

**Recruitment**

To increase the survey response, participants were recruited through a multipronged approach. I created a virtual poster and postings formatted to be sharable on social media which can be found in Appendix D and Appendix C respectively. The first poster invited Black women to directly participate in the study, and the second poster invited Student Affairs and Higher Education administrators to share the study with students who met the criteria for the study. Each Facebook posting listed the name of the study, information about the purpose, and a hyperlink to the survey.

Incentives were also utilized to increase the completion of the surveys. The incentives for this study were five $20 and one $100 Amazon e-gift cards. Information about the incentives was included in the Facebook posting and within the informed consent.

I created a schedule that provided timing of when and where to post on Facebook. The first phase lasted two weeks marked the initial distribution of the virtual posters and postings inviting participation to the study. I selected to post the virtual posters on my Facebook wall and in targeted student affairs administrator groups. I also conducted
targeted searches for Facebook groups of Black Student Unions and other Black student organizations and clubs. During phase one, I asked for colleagues to share the study information with undergraduate Black women who were currently attending a college within the United States.

Phase two of recruitment started immediately after the end of phase one. During this phase, I analyzed the surveys that were completed to ensure enough participants had completed the survey to reach power for the study. I also would have reposted the virtual posters for the study in the same groups as before to hopefully recruit new participants to the study.

**Data Analysis**

**Research Questions**

The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   
a. What is the relationship between Black women’s experience of gendered racism and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

   b. What is the relationship between Black women’s knowledge of sexual assault resources and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

   c. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of institutional support and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

   d. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of campus safety and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
e. What is the relationship between Black women’s affective commitment to their institution (college or university) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

f. What is the relationship between Black women’s previous college sexual assault experience and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

2. Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

Variables

The variables utilized within the study are found in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10:

Study Variable Descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Variable Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in Sexual Assault Resources</td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Revised Schedule of Sexist Events</td>
<td>GenRacism</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience with Sexual Violence</td>
<td>ExpSexViolence</td>
<td>Categorical</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment Scale</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Institutional Support Scale</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety Subscale of CCES</td>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Predictor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis Procedures

I used regression analysis to address the research questions for this dissertation study. Regression analysis was selected because of the ability to predict, model, and
investigate linear relationships between variables (Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2012). Regression analysis produces an estimate of the best line of fit for the variables, while providing a calculation of the variance explained by the model. Regression analysis provides an estimation of the relationship, through the use of least squares (Chatterjee & Simonoff, 2013). This study was focused on investigating the linear relationship between more than one predictor variable on an outcome variable I employed multiple linear regression modeling to address the research questions.

Data were analyzed using SAS® University Edition, version 9.4. Before proceeding to the multiple regression analysis, descriptive statistics were computed for each variable included in the analysis. The path representation of the model can be found in Figure 3.1.

*Figure 3.1.* Path representation of the simultaneous regression model.
Model Building

Once residuals have been examined and outliers examined for impact, the researcher built a model based on the predictor variables outlined in Table 3.10 to investigate which variables account for the most variance in the outcome variable. Below is the full model with all variables:

\[ y_{Confidence} = b_0 + b_1 \text{GenRacism}_i + b_2 \text{Knowleage}_i + b_3 \text{ExpSexViolence}_i + b_4 \text{Commitment}_i + b_5 \text{Support}_i + b_6 \text{Safety}_i + e \]  

Equation 1 articulates the full model that takes account for all the predictor variables within the study. The researcher conducted a simultaneous method of multiple regression to see how collectively and individually each predictor variable contributes to the variance of the outcome variable (Keith, 2015). Within the simultaneous method, the order of the variables did not impact the analysis and when paired with theory provide useful explanations of relationships (Keith, 2015).

Missing Data Analysis

The data were entered into SPSS® (Version 24) for the purposes of scanning for missing data. The SPSS missing value analysis (MVA) was conducted to diagnose if data were missing randomly or if there was a pattern in the missing data. Missing data must be addressed when variables or items exceeds 5% (Keith, 2015). Upon review of the MVA no item exceeded more than 1%. With no item exceeding 1% I proceeded to address the missing values through the single imputation.

The missing data were imputated using the single imputation method, specifically mean substitution. Following the results of the MVA, it was concluded there was no
pattern in the data that were missing. This method replaces the missing value with the mean of the scale for the respective participant. These imputations represented only eleven items were imputed representing less than .002% of the data set.

**Assumptions Testing**

The following assumptions were evaluated before I proceeded to interpreting the results of the multiple regression analysis: (1) linearity, (2) independence, (3) homoscedasticity, and (4) normality of errors. An initial multiple regression analysis was conducted to explore the assumptions of the analysis.

**Linearity Assumption.** The first step was to determine if the model meets the assumption of linearity. Keith (2015) wrote that the outcome variable should have a linear relationship with the predictor variables. The general rule is to examine the scatterplots of each pair of variables to visually examine the relationship between each pair of variables. To meet the assumption of linearity, the scatterplot should indicate a linear relationship with each of the variables in the analysis including the dependent variable. The review of the scatterplots suggested that the assumption of normality was met because there were no non-linear relationships detected. The scatterplots can be found in Appendix H.

**Independence of Observations Assumption.** Keith (2015) explained that to meet the independence assumption each observation should be selected independently from the population of interest. The sampling methods ensured that data that were collected were provided by participants independent of each other and representative of the population for this study. The survey instrument asked for personal experience,
perception, and interpretation within the context of a single organization and thus I assumed that observations were independent.

**Homoscedasticity Assumption.** The assumption of homoscedasticity was addressed as error variance for the model should not be related or a function of any of the predictor variables (Keith, 2015). A residual variable for each analysis was created. A standard technique to identify homoscedasticity is to review a scatterplot of residual values by the predicted values in the analysis. Therefore, I created a scatterplot to explore the homoscedasticity. The results of my examination was inconclusive, meaning that I was unable to determine if the variance in the data were homoscedastic based on a visual review. White’s test of heteroscedasticity was conducted to confirm if the variance was indeed homoscedastic. Results of White’s test: $\chi^2(26) = 42.65, p = .021 \ (N = 138)$ which indicates that the assumption of homoscedasticity was being violated.

Multiple regression is not robust to violations of homoscedasticity, so after discovering that the data were heteroscedastic, I moved forward with examining how individual cases were influencing the results of the multiple regression analysis this included a review of studentized residuals and Cook’s D values of each case (Keith, 2015). Keith (2015) suggested that studentized residuals above +-3 and Cook’s D values of higher than 4 be examined for impact on the heteroscedasticity. Following this review, nine cases in the analysis were found to have values outside the acceptable range. Those nine cases were removed from the analysis.

The analysis was run with the remaining cases (N=129). The results of this analysis were found to be homoscedastic, White’s test: $\chi^2(26) = 17.5, p = .089 \ (N =
129), but seven cases were outside of the acceptable range for studentized residuals and Cook’s D. Those seven cases were removed. The multiple regression analysis was conducted with the remaining cases (n=122), and the results of this analysis remained homoscedastic, White’s test: $\chi^2 (26) = 23.39, p = .611$ (N = 122). The data still contained four cases that exceeded acceptable studentized residuals and Cook’s D values, and were found to be impacting the results of the analysis. Those four cases were removed.

A final analysis was conducted with the remaining cases (N=118) and found that data were homoscedastic, White’s test: $\chi^2 (26) = 23.1, p = .628$ (N = 118). There remained cases outside of the acceptable range of studentized residuals and Cook’s D. These values were removed, and the analysis was re-run, but these values had little impact on the results so they were included in the final analysis. The final sample size for this analysis was 118.

**Normality of Errors Assumption.** The last assumption of multiple regression is normality of error terms (Keith, 2015). This assumption was tested by examining level of normality in the residuals of the initial multiple regression analysis. Upon examination, the residual values were found to be approximately normal with a skew of -0.29 and kurtosis of 0.16. A Shapiro-Wilks test of normality was conducted to confirm the normality of the data. The results of the Shapiro Wilks test were non-significant ($W = 0.99, p = .61$) which indicated that the data were in fact normally distributed.
Screening for Outliers

I also screened for outliers by assessing studentized residuals and Cook’s D for each analysis to ensure that no observations were having an undue influence on the regression analysis. While reviewing the literature related to the reliability of the predictors included in the study, I concluded that measurement error would be relatively small, thus not violating the reliability of measurement assumption. Finally, the predictors included in the model are not fixed, but regression is robust to violations of this assumption. Based on the screening of the data, I concluded it was appropriate to proceed with the regression analysis.

Sample Demographics

Following the recruitment, 256 women responded to the survey. The number of completed surveys was 205, but only 138 responses met the demographic criteria for the study. The demographics for this study were self-reported by the participants of the study. Following adjustments to the sample based on data cleaning and trying to meet assumptions for data analysis, the final sample for this study included 118 participants. The mean age was 21.39 (SD 4.95) with ages ranging from 18-49. Six participants did not list their age. See Table 3.11 for a full list of the descriptive statistics for age.

Table 3.11:
Descriptive Statistics for Age of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21.39</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 118.
Most of the participants, 39.8% (n = 47) in this study were seniors. Participants who identified as Juniors made up 28.8% (n = 34) of the study. While Sophomores and Freshman were the least represented group in this study with 24.6% (n= 29) identifying as sophomores and 6.8% (n = 8) identifying as freshman. Classification level demographic data are shown in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12:

Participant’s College Class Standing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 118.

Participants were asked to share the state of the college they attend. A majority of the participants in this study attended colleges in South Carolina and made up 47.5% (n = 56) of the sample. California colleges also made up a large portion 23.7% (n = 28) of the sample. State of college demographic data are shown in Table 3.13.
Table 3.13:

State of Participant’s College or University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 118.*

Participants were also asked about their Greek-letter organization affiliation. Of the sample, 13.6% (n = 16) reported being a member of a Greek-letter organization. Greek-letter organization affiliation demographic data are shown in Table 3.14.
Table 3.14:

Participant Membership in a Greek Letter Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>86.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $N = 118$

Finally, participants reported if they had experienced sexual violence since starting college. Of the sample, 31.4% ($n = 37$) reported they had experienced sexual violence since starting college. The majority of the sample, 68.6% ($n = 81$) had not experienced sexual violence since starting college. Experiences with sexual violence since college demographic data are shown in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15:

Participants’ Experience with Sexual Violence Since College

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $N = 118$.

Summary

In this chapter, the researcher described the research methodology and methods. The researcher utilized a described quantitative non-experimental, correlational design to explore the relationships between gendered racism, commitment to the institution, and
trust in their college impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault policies. Within the research framework, the researcher utilized web survey methods to collect data from the participants of this study. The data was collected at one-point in time and was used to explore how the variable relate to each other. This research study is intended to generate information about how Black women’s experiences. Data were analyzed by multiple regression to address the research questions that guided this study.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the data analysis to support the research questions guiding this study. The purpose of this study is to create a model to explore Black women’s knowledge of and perceptions of sexual assault policies. This chapter explores, to what extent gendered racism, commitment to the institution, and trust in their college impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources. Data were collected via survey methods. Data were cleaned and transformed using SPSS® (Version 24) and analyzed using SAS® University Edition (Version 9.4). The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression. The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   a. What is the relationship between Black women’s experience of gendered racism and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   b. What is the relationship between Black women’s knowledge of sexual assault resources and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
   c. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of institutional support and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   d. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of campus safety and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
e. What is the relationship between Black women’s affective commitment to their institution (college or university) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

f. What is the relationship between Black women’s previous college sexual assault experience and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

2. Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

**Description of the Data**

The study sample consisted of 138 women who identify as Black or African American currently classified as undergraduate students and attending a four-year public university or college. All participants were at least 18 years old. The data were collected via an electronic survey that was distributed through social media and email. The following section describes the results of the data analysis.

**Preliminary Data Analysis**

Before proceeding to the multiple regression analysis, descriptive statistics were computed for each variable included in the analysis. The following assumptions were evaluated before I proceeded to interpreting the results of the multiple regression analysis: (1) linearity, (2) homoscedasticity, and (3) normality of errors.

**Descriptive Statistics**

In the following section, I provide the descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables in the study. Reviewing descriptive statistics is a standard first
step in any inferential analysis. In this section I report the central tendency, skewness, kurtosis, minimum and maximum values for the independent and dependent variables.

**Independent Variables.** The descriptive statistics for each independent variable included in the analysis are listed in Table 4.1 and the dependent variable is listed in Table 4.2. While normality of the variables included in the study does not greatly impact the results of a multiple regression analysis it is standard to review the level of normality in the data. Presence of non-normal data could weaken the results of the analysis. To assess the normality of the data, I reviewed histograms and descriptive statistics for each variable. I also analyzed the skew and kurtosis values for each variable to assess the normality of the data. The acceptable range of skew was -1 to 1 and acceptable kurtosis range was -2 to 2. The variable affective commitment had a skew that was slightly outside of the acceptable range, but it was so slight that it was not cause for concern.

Upon review of the descriptive statistics and histograms of each it was concluded that all variable distributions were approximately normal.

Table 4.1:

**Descriptive Statistics for Independent Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Skew</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GenRacism</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>48.14</td>
<td>16.34</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>46.58</td>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35.94</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>34.23</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-0.97</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExpSexViolence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-1.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 118.*
Dependent Variable. The descriptive statistics for the dependent variable are listed in Table 4.2. I analyzed the histogram, skew, and kurtosis values for confidence to assess the normality of the data. The acceptable range of skew was -1 to 1 and acceptable kurtosis range was -2 to 2. Upon review of the descriptive statistics, it was concluded that the dependent variable distribution was approximately normal with acceptable skew and kurtosis values.

Table 4.2:

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Skew</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>3.6014</td>
<td>1.12074</td>
<td>-.507</td>
<td>-.577</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 118.*
Pearson's Correlation Coefficients

To investigate the presence of significant relationships between the variables in the study, a correlation coefficient matrix was produced. The correlation coefficient matrix can be found in Table 4.3. Of significant interest are the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The results of the correlation matrix indicated that the outcome variable, confidence, was strongly associated with all of the independent variables with the strongest relationship between safety and confidence. All relationships were significant at the alpha level of .05. These results of the correlation coefficient
matrix suggest that all variables should be included in the multiple regression analysis.

Table 4.3:

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 118. * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .0001 (one-tailed).

**Multicollinearity**

Multicollinearity is a term for strong relationships between predictor variables (Keith, 2015). Multicollinearity can have a significant impact on construct validity of the study and impact the interpretation of multiple regression analysis (Keith, 2015). I investigated the possibility of multicollinearity by assessing the correlation coefficients between each predictor variable. When correlation coefficients between predictor variables are higher than .90, there is a potential for multicollinearity. The correlation coefficients for the predictor variables are found in Table 5.3, but upon review the highest correlation coefficient was .63. With the initial review of the correlation coefficients, I proceeded with assessing the collinearity statistics. Tolerance and Variance inflation
factors (VIF) (see Table 4.4) were used to further confirm the absence of multicollinearity.

Table 4.4:

Collinearity Statistics for Independent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.603</td>
<td>1.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>.408</td>
<td>2.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>2.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td>1.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GenRacism</td>
<td>.645</td>
<td>1.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExpSexViolence</td>
<td>.660</td>
<td>1.515</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 118.

The general rule of thumb concerning VIF values is when a value is ten or larger there is concern for multicollinearity in the model, and tolerance levels should be above .2. After reviewing the collinearity statistics, the largest VIF was 2.452 which is below the standard threshold for acceptable values. Tolerance values were above .20, and I conducted that there was no significant multicollinearity in the model.

**Analysis of Research Questions**

The following sections provide an overview of the analysis of each research question. In each section I provide information on the modeling procedures and statistical power analysis.
Research Question One

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to address the first research question: *What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?* Multiple linear regression is an inferential statistic method by which the researchers selects independent variables to predict dependent variables. I conducted a simultaneous method of multiple regression to see how collectively and individually each predictor variable contributes to the variance of the outcome variable (Keith, 2015). Within the simultaneous method the order of the variables does not impact the analysis, and when paired with theory can provide useful explanations of relationships (Keith, 2015). Equation 2 articulates the full model that accounts for all the predictor variables within the study.

\[ y_{Confidence} = b_0 + b_1 GenRacism_i + b_2 Knowlege_i + b_3 ExpSexViolence_i + b_4 Commitment_i + b_5 Support_i + b_6 Safety_i + e \]  

(2)

Following the completion of the multiple regression anlaysis, a regression model was caculated based on the unstandardized coefficients (Bs) of the predictor variables and the constant which are listed in Table 4.5. The constant in the equation was -1.18; and the unstandardsized coefficients (Bs) for the six predictor variables are .02 (Commitment), -.01 (Support), .07 (Safety), .45 (Knowledge), .01 (GenRacism), and -.22 (ExpSexViolence). The equation established for the model is Equation 3.

\[ Confidence = -1.18 + .01 (GenRacism) + .45 (Knowlege) - .22 (ExpSexViolence) + .02 (Commitment) - .01 (Support) + .07 (Safety) \]  

(3)
Table 4.5:
Results of Full Multiple Regression Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.18</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.43***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GenRacism</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExpSexViolence</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 118. * p < .05, *** p < .0001.

The overall model was statistically significant, $F(6, 111) = 35.80, p < .0001$, indicating that the predictor variables account for a significant amount of the variance in the dependent variable. The coefficient of determination or the adjusted $R^2$ was .641 which indicates that 64.1% of the variance in confidence can be explained by the variances in affective commitment, perceived support, perceived safety, gendered racism, knowledge of sexual assault policies, and experience with sexual violence. The full results of the model can be found in Table 4.6.
Table 4.6:

Full Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.812</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>35.80***</td>
<td>2.071</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Statistical power analysis and effect size. Cohen’s guidelines for effect size guidance suggest that an $f^2$ of .02 is a small effect size, $f^2$ of .15 is medium effect size, and a value of $f^2$ over .35 is a large effect size. The effect size for this model was $f^2 = 1.93$. Using Cohen’s guidelines, the effect size for this model is considered very large. A post-hoc multiple regression power analysis for a fixed model was conducted to calculate the observed power of the current model. I used G*Power® (Version 3.1) to provide a power analysis based on the number of predictors in the model ($k = 6$), N=118, $f^2= 1.93$, and alpha level of .05. The results of the analysis were a power value of 1 which exceeds the ideal power value of .95 and a critical F value of 2.18. There were no outliers after reviewing the studentized residuals and Cook’s D for each analysis, and it was concluded that no case was having an undue influence on the regression analysis.

Research Question Two

The next step in the analysis was to address the second research question: Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources? To address the second research question, I explored the unique contribution of each predictor variable by reviewing part correlations coefficients
and squared semi-partial correlations coefficients ($sr^2$). As listed in Table 4.7, the adjusted $R^2$ value for the full model was .641. All six predictors in the model account for 64.1% of the variance in the outcome variable (confidence).

Table 4.7:

Summary of Part and Partial Correlation Coefficients in Full Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>$sr^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.202*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>.196***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td>.164***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ExpSexViolence</td>
<td>-.141</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GenRacism</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. N = 118. Dependent variable: Confidence. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .0001$.

The results of the analysis indicated that the highest contributor to the variance in the dependent variable (confidence) was commitment ($sr^2 = .202$). The independent variable commitment uniquely accounted for 20.2% of the variance in the dependent variable confidence. The two other significant contributors to the variance in the dependent variable were safety and knowledge. The independent variable safety ($sr^2 = .196$) uniquely accounted for 19.6% of the variance in the dependent variable confidence. The independent variable knowledge ($sr^2 = .164$) uniquely accounted for 16.4% of the variance in the dependent variable confidence.
The remaining variables support, expsexviolence, and genracism were all non-significant contributors to the variance in the dependent variables with squared semi-partial correlations values of .086, .007, and .004 respectively. The remaining variables accounted for less than 10% of the total variance in the dependent variable with the independent variable support uniquely accounting for 8.6% of variance in the dependent variable confidence. The independent variable expsexviolence and genracism accounting for only .7% and .4% of variance in the dependent variable confidence, respectively.

**Final Model Building**

Following the assessment of contribution to the model, a final regression analysis was conducted with only significant contributors to the model: commitment, knowledge, and safety (see Equation 4).

\[ y_{\text{Confidence}} = b_0 + b_1 \text{Commitment}_i + b_2 \text{Knowledge}_i + b_3 \text{Safety}_i + e \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

Following the multiple regression analysis, a regression model was calculated based on the unstandardized coefficients (Bs) of the predictor variables and the constant which are listed in Table 4.8. The constant in the equation was -.960; and the unstandardized coefficients (B) for the three predictor variables were .016 (Commitment), .061 (Safety), and .464 (Knowledge).
Table 4.8:

Results of Final Regression Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>$SE B$</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-.960</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.162*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.418***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.445***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $N = 118$. Dependent variable: Confidence. * $p < .05$, *** $p < .0001$.

The equation for the established model is Equation 5.

$Confidence = -\.96 + .016 (Commitment) + .464 (Knowledge) + .061 (Safety)$ (5)

The new model was statistically significant, $F (3, 114) = 69.70, p < .0001$, indicating that the predictor variables account for a significant amount of the variance in the dependent variable. The coefficient of determination or the adjusted $R^2$ of .638 indicates that 63.8% of the variance in confidence can be explained by the variances in affective commitment, perceived safety, and knowledge of sexual assault resources. The summary of part and partial correlation coefficients are found in Table 4.9. In the final model, commitment uniquely accounted for 20.2% of the variance in confidence in sexual assault resources. Safety uniquely accounted for 28.1% of the variance in confidence in sexual assault resources. Knowledge uniquely accounted for 16.4% of confidence in sexual assault resources. The full results of the model can be found in Table 4.10.
Table 4.9:
Summary of Part and Partial Correlation Coefficients in Final Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Part</th>
<th>sr²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>.202*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>.348</td>
<td>.281***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>.164***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10:
Final Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.804</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>69.70***</td>
<td>2.024</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 118. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge, Affective Commitment, Safety. *** p < .001.

**Statistical power analysis and effect size.** Cohen’s guidelines for effect size guidance suggest that an $f^2$ of .02 is a small effect size, $f^2$ of .15 is medium effect size, and a value of $f^2$ over .35 is a large effect size. The effect size for the final model was $f^2 = 1.83$. Using Cohen’s guidelines, the effect size for this model is considered very large. A post-hoc multiple regression power analysis for a fixed model was conducted to calculate the observed power of the current model. I used G*Power, version 3.1, to provide a power analysis based on the number of predictors in the model (k = 3), N=118, $f^2$= 1.83, and alpha level of .05. The results of the analysis were a power value of 1 which exceeds
the ideal power value of .95 and a critical F value of 2.68. I screened for outliers by assessing studentized residuals and Cook’s D for each analysis. It was concluded that there were no cases having an undue influence on the regression analysis.

**Summary**

This chapter included the findings and results of the multiple regression analysis that was conducted to address the research questions. The model that was created was tested to determine if any of the variables in the study were predictive factors for confidence in sexual assault policies. To answer the first question a multiple regression analysis utilized a simultaneous method, where all variables in the study were entered at once. Based on the results, it was discovered that three variables were significant factors in predicting confidence in sexual assault practices and policies. The factors that were significantly contributing to the variance in confidence were affective commitment to the institution, perceptions of safety, and knowledge of sexual violence policies. To address the second research question, the researcher reviewed the unique contributions of each variable in the study to determine the strength of each predictor in the model. A final model was created using only the significant predictors to clean the model. Chapter five will provide a discussion of the results of this study and implications for practice.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed. In the discussion, I provide a review of the purpose of the study, the research questions that guided the study, and an interpretation of the results. I also situate the findings of this study within the current literature, and discuss how this study expands, extends, or contradicts current scholarship. Implications for future research and practice are reviewed and how this study can help institutions work with Black women to build their confidence in sexual assault practices and policies. To conclude the chapter, I discuss the limitations and delimitations of the study.

Overview of Study

For this research study, I employed a descriptive quantitative non-experimental, correlational design to explore the relationships between gendered racism, commitment to the institution, and trust in their college impact Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault policies. The aim of this study was to create a model for Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. This study aimed to help administrators and scholars explore the factors that impact Black women’s confidence level in sexual assault resources to expand public 4-year predominately white institution’s sexual assault resource offerings to meet the unique needs of Black women. Without centering Black women in their efforts, campus administrators’ essentialist notions of sexual violence will reduce the effectiveness of their efforts to responded and prevent sexual violence, particularly with Black women (Harris, 2017). In this study I explored how the historic
and current oppression of Black women have resulted in unique, understudied, and hidden perceptions of sexual assault resources (Linder, 2017). Campus leaders must actively center Black women in their future and current offerings if they are to gain their confidence in campus sexual assault resources (Harris, 2017). The population for this study were undergraduate women, who identify as Black and currently attend attending public, 4-year, predominantly white public colleges within the United States. For this study, I employed a non-probability sampling method, specifically, a targeted snowball method using Facebook as the recruitment site.

A survey method was used to collect data for this study. The survey was composed of different scales that intended to measure the following constructs: (a) confidence in sexual assault resources, (b) knowledge of sexual assault resources, (c) gendered racism, (d) affective commitment to the institution, (e) perception of campus safety, and (f) previous sexual assault experience. The sample for this study was N=118. A linear multiple regression analysis was used to build a model for Black women's confidence in sexual assault resources and to address the study's research questions. The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What is the relationship between the independent variables and Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   a. What is the relationship between Black women’s experience of gendered racism and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?
   b. What is the relationship between Black women’s knowledge of sexual assault resources and their confidence in sexual assault resources?
c. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of institutional support and their confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

d. What is the relationship between Black women’s perception of campus safety and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

e. What is the relationship between Black women’s affective commitment to their institution (college or university) and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

f. What is the relationship between Black women’s previous college sexual assault experience and their confidence in sexual assault resources?

2. Which independent variables account for the most variation in Black women’s confidence in campus sexual assault resources?

Summary of Findings

To answer the first research question, the results of the analysis were that when all the variables were used to predict the dependent variable, confidence in sexual assault resources the model was significant $F(6,111) = 35.80, p < .0001$. The adjusted $R^2$ was .641 which indicated that all the variables in the model accounted for 64.1% of the variance in confidence in sexual assault resources. To address the second research question, the unique contributions of each independent variable were examined. Upon examination the significant variables in the analysis were affective commitment ($sr^2 = .202, p < .05$), perception of safety ($sr^2 = .196, p < .0001$), and knowledge of sexual
assault resources ($r^2 = .164, p < .0001$). The nonsignificant variables were experience with sexual violence, gendered racism, and perception of institutional support.

Following the initial model, a final model was created to include only the significant variables. The model included affective commitment, perception of safety, and knowledge of sexual assault resources. The overall model was significant, as expected, $F(3,114) = 69.70, p < .000$. The adjusted $R^2$ for the model was .638 which indicated that all the variables in the final model accounted for 63.8% of the variance of confidence in sexual assault resources.

**Discussion of Results**

In this section, the results from the first research Question One. This study was developed to understand what contributes to Black women's confidence in sexual assault policies and practices. The findings of this study expand on the current literature that center Women of Color in the scholarship on sexual violence on college campuses.

**Confidence in Sexual Assault Resources**

This research is the first study to examine the unique level of confidence that Black women have in their college sexual assault resources. For this study, confidence in sexual assault resources was measured through a scale created by Burgess-Procter et al. (2016). The results of this study indicate that Black women’s confidence can be predicted by the women's perceived safety on campus, their knowledge of campus sexual assault resources, and their affective connection to the institution. These results help underscore the importance identifying the unique experiences of Black women with regard to their experiences with sexual violence.
When reviewing the results of the data analysis, all variables that were included in the study were strongly and significantly correlated with confidence in sexual assault resources. The lowest correlations of all the variables were gendered racism and experience with sexual violence. Gendered racism and experience with sexual violence were also both negatively correlated with confidence in sexual assault resources. Negative correlation means that as one variable increases the other variable decreases.

When reviewing the literature, Burgess-Procter et al. (2016) found that most students had high confidence in sexual assault resources. This study refutes the claim that general student population, not including victims of sexual violence, have a high level of confidence in sexual assault resources. In this study, I found that Black women have above average confidence in sexual assault resources with most of the sample scoring on average around 3.6 ($SD = 1.12$) out of a possible 5 average. This suggests that, while above average, Black women have lower confidence in sexual assault resources than the general undergraduate population. This finding supports Donovan and Williams’ (2007) claim that Black women are less confident in sexual assault resource because they are less likely to formally disclose rape and other forms of sexual violence. This study is critical in the expansion of our knowledge of how race and gender impact confidence in institutional sexual assault resources. In the next section, I discuss the variables in the study that were significant predictors of Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources.
Affective Commitment to the Institution

Affective commitment to the institution was a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources in this study. Affective commitment was selected because of the impact college’s efforts to build connection and belonging within its community is vital to confidence in institutional resources (Hannon, Woodside, Pollard, & Roman, 2016; Harper et al., 2009; Patton, 2015). Additionally, Harris-Perry (2011) wrote that community is central to Black women’s experience within institutions that have historically and currently oppressed Women of Color. Black women are also continually trying to find a sense of belonging and acceptance within their institutions (Greyerbiehl & Mitchell, 2014; Littleton, 2003; Tillman et al., 2010; Woldoff, Wiggins, & Washington, 2011). Carney (2018) suggested that strong feelings of connectedness and belonging are key factors that could impact students’ confidence in institutional policies. This study confirms that affective commitment to the institution does impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources.

The mean score for affective commitment was 46.58 ($SD = 9.87$), which indicates that out of possible 63 score, that Black women have a moderate level of affective commitment to their institutions. In the final model, affective commitment accounted for about 20% of the variance in confidence in sexual assault resources. This means that institutional connection and belonging matters in helping Black women feel confident in the institutional sexual assault resources. Within the final model, confidence in sexual assault resources increases as affective commitment rises.
Perception of Safety on Campus

Black women’s perception of safety on campus was a significant predictor of their confidence in sexual assault resources. The mean score for perception of safety on campus was 35.94 ($SD = 6.88$) which indicates that Black women generally feel safe on their college campuses. In the final model, perception of safety accounted for the most unique variance in confidence in sexual assault resources of all the variables in the study. Perception of safety accounted for about 28% of the variation in confidence sexual assault resources. Within the final model, confidence in sexual assault resources increases as the perception of safety increases.

This study confirmed Lindquist et al. (2016) finding that perception of safety increases students’ confidence in resources on-campus. This study also supports research which links confidence in an institution’s policies to the perception of threat or risk they feel on campus (Carney, 2018). These results indicate that safety is a pivotal component of Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources.

Knowledge of Sexual Assault Resources

In this study, knowledge of sexual assault resources was a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources. This study confirms much of the literature that exists on how knowledge impacts sexual assault resources, however centering Black women in the analysis. This study enhances the findings by Hayes-Smith and Levet (2010) who found that students who recalled being informed of the resources related to sexual assault were more likely to utilize and thus have confidence in sexual assault resources. This study also supports work done by Spencer, Stith, Durtschi, and Toews
(2017) who reported that students who had been trained and informed of campus resources were more likely to have confidence in the sexual assault resources.

The mean score for knowledge of sexual assault resources was 3.98 ($SD = 0.96$) which indicates that out of possible 5 that Black women have a moderately high level of knowledge of sexual assault resources. There is a disagreement about how informed and knowledgeable general students are about the sexual assault resources on campus, but this study suggests that Black women feel that they are moderately informed and knowledgeable about sexual assault resources on their college campus. This finding supports qualitative research which found that most students, including Black women are knowledgeable about sexual assault resources (Garcia et al., 2012; Tsui & Santamaria, 2015). This study complicates the current quantitative research which suggests that most students are not knowledgeable of campus sexual assault, by offering that Black women might have more knowledge about sexual assault resources than the general undergraduate student population (Halstead, Wiliams, and Gonzalez-Guarda, 2017; Hayes-Smith & Levett, 2010).

In the final model, knowledge of campus sexual assault resources accounted for about 16.4 % of the variance in confidence in sexual assault resources. This variance means that being knowledgeable about the campus sexual assault resources significantly impacts Black women’s confidence in the institutional sexual assault resources. Within the final model, confidence in sexual assault resources increases with knowledge of sexual assault resources.
Gendered Raced Experiences

In this study, perception of gendered racism was not a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources. The mean score for gendered racism was 48.14 (SD = 16.34) out of 120, which indicates that most of the Black women in the sample have had moderately low levels of experiencing gendered racism. In the first model, gendered racism accounted for about 10% of the variation in confidence sexual assault resources. As gendered racism was not a significant factor in the full model, it was not included in the final model.

While not significant in the full model which included all the variables, this finding suggests that Black women’s experiences might have a small impact on confidence in the institutions sexual assault policies. To expand on the relationship, gendered racism was negatively correlated with confidence in sexual assault policies. The correlation coefficient was -.21 and was significant, meaning that in general as gendered racism increases confidence in sexual assault resources decreases. This finding supports researchers who have found that there may be no difference in confidence in sexual assault resources based on race. In previous research, Sabina and Ho (2016) found that there is no difference in race, gender, or other social identities in the utilization of sexual assault resources. While I was focused on the confidence Black women have in campus sexual assault resources, willingness to use resources could be a latent indicator of confidence.
Perceived Institutional Support

In this study, perceived institutional support was not a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources. The mean score for perceived institutional support was 35.94 ($SD = 9.43$) out of 63, which indicates that most of the Black women in the sample had generally low perceptions of institutional support. In the first model, perceived institutional support accounted for about 9% of the variation in confidence in sexual assault resources. While not significant in the full model, this finding suggests that Black women’s perception of support might have a small impact on confidence in campus sexual assault resources. To expand on the relationship, perceived institutional support was positively correlated with confidence in sexual assault policies. The correlation coefficient was .51 and was significant, meaning that in general as perceived institutional support increases so does confidence in sexual assault resources. As perceived institutional support was not a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources, it was not included in the final model.

This finding supports Collins (2004) who argued that Black women can find it difficult to feel supported by institutions that have been a part of their current and historic oppression. The results of this study complicates research by Carney (2018) who suggested that before feeling confident in an organization’s polices, students would need to feel that they have the support of institution. This study does not fully contradict Carney’s research, but it does suggest that there may be more important things than feeling support from the institution. I believe that the contradiction between the findings of this study and Carney’s research could have been caused by the scale that was used to
measure institutional support. The instrument that was used in this study was focused on
college level support and did not focus on how individual relationships within the
institutions were impacting Black women’s perspectives. Community and interpersonal
relationships are critical for Black women, so future studies should explore support scales
that center interpersonal connections as a means to measure institutional support (Harris-
Perry, 2011).

**Experience with Sexual Violence**

In this study, being a victim/survivor of sexual violence since college was not a
significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources. In the first model,
experience with sexual violence accounted for less than 1% of the variation in confidence
sexual assault resources. To expand on the relationship, experience with sexual violence
was negatively correlated with confidence in sexual assault policies. The correlation
coefficient was -.37 and was significant, meaning that in general if Black women
experienced sexual violence it decreases their confidence in sexual assault resources. As
experience with sexual assault was not a significant predictor of confidence in sexual
assault resources, it was left out of the final model.

Of those included in in this study, about 31% of the women had been subjected to
acts of sexual violence since they started college. This finding provides support for
scholars who have argued that Black women experience sexual violence at higher rates
than the average collage aged population (Muehlenhard et al., 2017; Orchowski &
Gidycz, 2012). This is an important finding because the national average of experiencing
sexual violence in college for traditionally aged women (18-24) is about 20% or one in
four women (Krause et al., 2017; Muehlenhard et al., 2017). This study also expands the findings by Burgess-Proctor et al. (2016) who suggested that confidence in sexual assault resources was negatively impacted by experiences of sexual violence. This study provides additional context that, while not significant in the model, Black women who have experience sexual violence since college have lower confidence in sexual assault resources.

**Limitations**

I constructed a research design, intended to reduce threats to construct and external validity, but there are elements of the study that may impact the results outside of the control of the researcher. In this section, I discuss the limitations of this study’s sampling method, instrumentation, and data analysis.

**Sampling Method Limitations**

As discussed, this study used a non-probability sampling method to identify participants. This sampling method impacts the external validity or generalization of the study. Every person within the population did not have an equal chance of participating in the study, so the result could produce a non-representative sample. Thus, the results of the study are limited to the sample that participated in the study. Also, the targeted snowball method could further impact the results as the characteristics of those who are recruited might be different than the population of interest. Further, low participation and small sample size may result in low statistical power (Keith, 2015). Low statistical power could impact the soundness of the results by inflating the impact of the predictor.
variables. The sampling methods employed were structured to produce a large the
to number of students who could access this study.

**Instrumentation**

This study relies on self-report measures through survey research, and mono-
method bias arises from a singular modal study (Drost, 2011). Mono-method bias occurs
when only one type of measurement is used to explore a construct as opposed to multiple
means of measurement (Drost, 2011). As this study does not provide multi-modal
observations of the participants, this bias might impact the results of the study. In the
discussion of the results of the study, I have provided ways in which these constructs
could be explored in future studies. Also to address the mono-method bias, I have
included scales within the instrument that include multiple questions to assess each
construct of interest in the study. Each scale that was used was reliable as indicated by
acceptable reported Cronbach alpha levels.

The use of social media as the site for this research study could impact the quality
of survey responses. Users of social media, and particularly Facebook, access the website
through their phones, personal computers, and tablets (Murphy et al., 2013). This might
have a limiting impact on the data collection process because there is no standard tool
from which the survey could be completed. Completing surveys on a mobile device can
take longer than on a personal computer (Stern et al., 2017). This difference completion
time may have impacted completion rates.
**Data Analysis**

I utilized a simultaneous multiple regression model building procedure to address the research questions for this study. The limitations of simultaneous procedure are primarily that if variables were removed from the equation there could be a significant shift in the regression coefficients. A detailed literature review and theoretical framework were created for this study to reduce this limitation from dramatically impacting the results of this study. Also, because this study is being done at one point in time with a national sample, there could be underlying extraneous variables impact the results that were not included in this study (Keith, 2015).

**Implications for Future Research**

Through this study, I have produced a model to understand the factors that impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. This study has many implications for future research and our interpretation of research findings. As mentioned in previous chapters, Black women are often underrepresented in college sexual assault literature (Crosby, 2015; Tillman et al., 2010). This study utilized critical epistemologies and frameworks to explore the unique experiences of Black women and what follows are the ways in which I believe we can use this research to inform our scholarship. In the following section, I propose and suggest implications for higher education research.

Based on the findings of this national study, there is a renewed call and sense of urgency to provide nuanced counter-narrative accounts of marginalized populations through quantitative inquiry (Covarrubias & Velez, 2013; Fedina, Holmes, & Backes, 2016). This study showcases how to emphasize anti-essentialism through centering the
experiences of marginalized women. For this research project, Black women and their knowledge were central in the development and implementation of this study. The use of classic Black feminist and critical race feminist writings allowed me to offset the abundance of sexual assault literature that focused on general populations. Unlike most sexual assault research, Black women were not compared to any other population. This was an intentional decision. Black women’s experiences were the only consideration of the study, which allowed for a deeper analysis of the factors that impact their confidence in sexual assault resources. Focusing on Black women also helped enhance recruitment efforts by being more targeted and allowing for a clearer interpretation of the purpose of the study. Future researchers should utilize quantitative analysis to further explore how Black women’s experiences with sexual assault policies, practice, and resources differ from general scholarship that is typically produced.

In this study, I found that Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources could be predicted by their perceptions of safety on campus, their affective commitment to their college, and the knowledge of sexual assault resources. Future researchers should use qualitative research to explore the findings of this study. Researchers should aim to explore the stories of Black women that expand on their confidence in sexual assault resources. Further, outside of individual qualitative analysis, researchers should consider conducting case studies and profiles of institutions where Women of Color have high confidence in their sexual assault resources.

This study was focused on the general experience of Black women, and I did not focus on how confidence impacted the utilization of the resources at a college campus.
While confidence levels are important to understand, Black women report at lower levels than other women (Ullman et al., 2008). To further expand on previous work by Hayes-Smith and Levett (2010), researchers should explore further if confidence impacts the utilization of sexual assault resources. This study identified that Black women have moderately low levels of confidence in their institution’s sexual assault resources, but future researchers could identify if low confidence is a factor in Black women’s reporting sexual assault and utilization of sexual assault resources.

Further, as this was an exploratory study that used scholarship to identify the most likely factors that would impact Black women’s confidence in sexual resources; much is still unknown about the underlying or latent factors that could help in understanding Black women’s confidence levels. Researchers should explore to what extent state and local laws have on confidence in sexual assault resources. This study was focused at the national level, but local and state laws could be having an impact on Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Federal, state, and local laws are important, implementation might differ between institutions. Researchers should investigate the extent to which institutional sexual assault policies and practices impact confidence in sexual assault resources.

This research focused on Black women who were undergraduate students at public, four-year institutions. The findings of this study are limited to the population and institutional type where the data were collected. Researchers should investigate to what extent the type of institution matters in the level of Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Of particular interest is the difference between private and public
colleges. The impact of policy may be different between the two different types of institutions. Also, because I did not focus on minority serving institutions (MSI), future research should focus on what Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources looks like within MSIs. There may be a difference in confidence levels based on the sense of community found at institutions that specifically support marginalized students.

Institutional support was not to be a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources for Black women in this study. Future research should investigate how interpersonal support from college administrators within the institution might have an impact on confidence in sexual assault resources. Researchers should examine how support from employees within academic and student affairs impacts confidence. Many students have formal and informal connections within the institution, qualitative and quantitative approaches could uncover how important these relationships are in building confidence in sexual assault resources for Black women.

Affective commitment to the institution was a significant predictor of Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Future research should investigate the dimensions of affective commitment to explore which elements increase confidence. Further qualitative research should be done to explore how college administrators believe they can raise affective commitment for marginalized communities, specifically with Black women. As this study found increase in affective commitment is likely to increase confidence in sexual assault resources. Higher education scholars should also explore how personal relationships both within and outside of their institution impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources.
As previously mentioned, this study confirmed that experience with sexual violence was higher for Black women than it is in the general undergraduate population. I found that sexual violence was not a significant predictor of confidence in sexual assault resources, but I believe there may be more to understand about the intersection between sexual violence and confidence in sexual assault resources. Institutional betrayal is often a framework utilized that examines what happens with victim/survivors of sexual violence feel their institution mishandled their case or did not stop the assault from occurring (Smith & Freyd, 2013). Researchers should identify if institutional betrayal has an impact on Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources.

For this study, I was only interested in knowing if the women had experienced sexual violence during their time in college, but there might be factors related to the type and severity of assault that might have an impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Researchers should explore if there is a difference between Black women who experience sexual violence before college and during college in confidence in sexual assault resources.

Finally, this study was specifically focused on Black women, but future research should investigate and explore if the findings of this study are replicable with other marginalized groups of women and men. Black women are not the only Women of Color who have higher risk of sexual violence in college (Muehlenhard, Peterson, Humphreys, & Jozkowski, 2017). In this study, gendered racism was found not to be a significant predictor of Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. While this finding is surprising based on the literature, future research should investigate the use of a different
metric to measure gendered racism. Also, future research should examine and explore if there are latent or extraneous variables that might be impacting Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources that were outside the scope of this exploratory study.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this research study have implications for practice within higher education. Through this study, I created the first model for Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. Practitioners can use the findings of this study to improve their institutional practices and policies. In the following section, I posit some potential implications for practices based on the findings of this study.

One of the major findings of the study is that the final model for confidence in sexual resources included variables that are in the control of the institution. Different than expected, cultural factors had less impact then institutional factors. This study highlights the pivotal role that campuses have in building confidence in their sexual assault polices, particularly for Black women. The three significant predictors were affective commitment to the institution, perceptions of safety, and knowledge of sexual assault resources. These findings place campus administrators in the driver’s seat of creating a campus where Black women feel confident in the ability of the institution to help them if they were to experience sexual violence. Campus administrators need to leverage their resources into the specific areas of this study, which may dramatically impact the experience of Black women. This study also provides the landscape and lessen the impact of historic trauma faced by Black women.
This study complicates the narrative that focusing on producing more awareness and trainings will inherently increase confidence in campus sexual assault resources (Burgess-Procter et al., 2016). This research project underscores that building confidence in sexual assault resources is more complex than just training and informing students of resources. I believe that this research requires institutions to create more dynamic strategies that make sexual assault prevention work more holistic. Most institutions offer sexual assault training as a function of policies that were placed on them by the federal government (Dunn, 2014; Konradi, 2016; O’Toole et al., 2015; Yung, 2015). This focus on compliance through resource awareness, believability, adjudication processes, and bystander interventions are practical and likely have impact on confidence, but administrators need to move beyond basic single objective strategies and view confidence building as a multi-dimensional task. This multi-dimensional task includes making space for the unique experiences of Women of Color and moving away from essentialist perspectives.

The conceptual framework that I created for this study can be used to think about how to create practices, interpret policies, and attend to individual needs in building confidence in sexual assault resources for Black women. First, institutional leadership should provide specific attention to Black women in their policies and practices relative to sexual violence at the meso level. Institutional leadership should also recognize the culture with which they exist; the eco and macro levels explicitly name the historic trauma and oppression that continue to impact policy, law, and practice (Harris, 2017). Institutions should also find ways to address their failure in providing for the
intersectional and historical needs of Women of Color, specifically Black women (Harris, 2017). This could look like institutional leadership calling for a comprehensive anti-essentialist analysis of their sexual assault policies and resources. In this analysis institutions should assess how Women of Color are represented in, have responded to, and understand their sexual assault resources. Institutions should employ faculty who specialize in sexual assault within minoritized communities to also provide feedback about how institutional policies can be more inclusive to Women of Color.

Administrative leadership must also recognize that they have a responsibility to cultivate a sense of belonging and work towards students’ affective commitment to the institution. This responsibility starts with recruitment and orientation then continues during the students’ academic career. Black women should feel that they have a place within the institution and that they are not on the margins of the community. In order to do this, institutions should include belonging and affective commitment scales to their campus climate assessments in order to measure how all students, but specifically how connected Black women feel. Based on the results of this study, if belonging and affective commitment is low the institutions need to create strategic plans to provide funding, direction, and resources to increase these factors towards increased student confidence in their sexual assault resources.

Currently, most public institutions require employees to be trained on how to comply with local, state, and federal laws regarding sexual violence (O’Toole et al., 2015). Most of these trainings explain that employees are required to report acts of sexual misconduct (Yung, 2015). These trainings have significant impact on how employees
view their role in preventing and responding to acts of sexual violence. The findings in this study suggest that employee trainings should be enhanced to move beyond compliance maintenance and into community cultivation. Affective commitment should be framed as every institutional employee’s responsibility. Employees should be encouraged to actively create a community where every student feels welcomed and belong. The message of community might help increase all students’ confidence, but more specifically Black women’s.

At the individual level of the model, institutions should allocate resources to understand and explore women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. This study supports that institutions should focus on minoritized and marginalized communities in an effort to understand their perceptions of sexual assault resources. Also, as knowledge was a key factor in Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources, institutions should evaluate how information is being accessed and retained by Black women. Campus leaders should evaluate their sexual assault prevention trainings and resource awareness campaigns to find ways they can target the Black women on their campuses. Campus administrators should find ways to ensure that Black women are receiving the messages about sexual assault resources outside to the required trainings. Staff should be attending meetings where Black women find community. This could include Black cultural centers, Greek-letter organizations, Black-centric clubs, activities, and events. Administrators must work with Black student leaders on campus to understand how information can be shared in a way that continues to build trust in the resources but also faith that the institution cares about them specifically.
Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented the findings of this exploratory study and connected the findings to previous research related to Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources. I also provided context for future research and suggestions for future practice. It is imperative that scholars and practitioners continue to explore how we can work with Black women to develop their trust and confidence in their polices related to sexual violence. By conducting this study, I provided a starting point from which to understand how Black women’s confidence levels vary and what factors impact their confidence in higher education sexual assault resources. Research should not be necessary for us to center the voices and experiences of Women of Color, but studies like this one are necessary to debunk the essentialist narratives about women and sexual violence.

This study was exploratory and there is much to uncover and understand about how Black college women’s experiences impact how they perceive and utilize sexual violence resources. Black women’s confidence in sexual assault resources is tied to feeling safe at and emotionally connected their college. Scholars must continue to explore how to leverage this information to explore Black women’s low sexual violence reporting rates. In this study, I was able to unpack a few factors that impact Black women’s confidence in sexual assault policy. As institutions begin to make meaning of the consistently evolving guidance and law on campus sexual assault, colleges must find ways to lead through change. Higher education must address sexual assault, less through policy mandates, but by building a sense of trust, safety, and emotional connection with Black women.
Appendix A

IRB Approval for Study

Dear Dr. Cawthon

The Clemson University Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the protocol “Building a Model for Black Women’s Confidence in Campus Sexual Violence Policy and Practice” using exempt review procedures and a determination was made on May 07, 2018 that the proposed activities involving human participants qualify as Exempt under category B2 in accordance with federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101.

No further action, amendments, or IRB oversight of the protocol is required except in the following situations:

1. Substantial changes made to the protocol that could potentially change the review level. Researchers who modify the study purpose, study sample, or research methods and instruments in ways not covered by the exempt categories will need to submit an expedited or full board review application.
2. Occurrence of unanticipated problem or adverse event; any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects, complications, and/or adverse events must be reported to the Office of Research Compliance immediately.
3. Change in Principal Investigator (PI)

All research involving human participants must maintain an ethically appropriate standard, which serves to protect the rights and welfare of the participants. This involves obtaining informed consent and maintaining confidentiality of data. Research related records should be retained for a minimum of three (3) years after completion of the study.

The Clemson University IRB is committed to facilitating ethical research and protecting the rights of human subjects. Please contact us if you have any questions and use the IRB number and title when referencing the study in future correspondence.

Good luck with your study.

Best,
Amy Smitherman
IRB Coordinator
OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE
Clemson University, Division of Research
391 College Avenue, Suite 406K-1., Clemson, SC 29631, USA
P: 864-656-6460
http://www.clemson.edu/research/compliance/irb/
Appendix B

Recruitment Email

Dear [Student Affairs Colleague],

My name is Jimmy Howard and I am a Ph.D. Candidate at Clemson University in South Carolina. I’m emailing to ask for your help in spreading the word about my dissertation research. I am conducting a national study exploring Black women’s confidence in college sexual assault policies and resources. I'm hoping you can help me by sharing the survey with current college students who identify as Black women. If you have email list serves or other groups that you could send this to – I would greatly appreciate it.

Below is information about the study which can be sent to students and I’ve also attached the flier for the study as well.

Please let me know if you have questions and thank you for your consideration.

Jimmy Howard
Ph.D. Candidate, Educational Leadership
Clemson University

Call for Research Participants

Do you identify as a Black woman?
Do you currently attend college in the United States?
Are you 18 years or older?

If so, consider completing a survey exploring Black women’s confidence in college sexual assault policies and resources.

All participants can enter a drawing for a chance to win a $100 or a $20 Amazon gift card.

Please use the following link to access the survey:


The survey should take about 10 minutes and participation is totally voluntary. Additionally, all survey responses are completely anonymous and confidential.

All questions regarding this study can be directed to Jimmy Howard (Ph.D. Candidate) by email at: howard8@clemson.edu or supervising faculty member Dr. Tony Cawthon at: cawthot@clemson.edu
Appendix C

Facebook Recruitment Post

Please Share!! - I am a PhD candidate in Educational Leadership at Clemson University. For my dissertation, I am interested in exploring what impacts Black women’s confidence in College sexual assault policies and resources. If you are at least 18 years old, identify as a Black woman, and currently attend college in the United States, please use the following link to access the survey with informed consent.


The survey should take about 10 minutes and participation is totally voluntary. Additionally, all survey responses are completely anonymous and confidential. All participants have the option to enter their email address and to earn a chance to win a $100 or a $20 Amazon gift card.

Thank you for your consideration.

I encourage you to repost this link on your Facebook page, or pass it along to any of your Black female friends who are currently in college.

All questions regarding this study can be directed to me by email at: howard8@clemson.edu or supervising faculty member Dr. Tony Cawthon at: cawthot@clemson.edu.
Appendix D

Recruitment Flier

Participate in a Research Study on Black Women's Confidence in Campus Sexual Assault Resources

DO YOU IDENTIFY AS A BLACK WOMAN AND ARE YOU A CURRENT UNDERGRADUATE COLLEGE STUDENT (18+)?

FILL OUT A QUICK 10-MINUTE SURVEY AND ENTER INTO A DRAWING FOR A $100 OR $20 AMAZON GIFT CARD:

BIT.LY/CONFIDENCESTUDY

All questions regarding this study can be directed to Jimmy Howard (Doctoral Candidate) at: howard8@clemson.edu or supervising faculty member Dr. Tony Cawthon at: cawthot@clemson.edu
Appendix E

Informed Consent

Information about Being in a Research Study
Clemson University

Exploring Black Women’s Confidence in College Sexual Violence Policies and Practices

Description of the Study and Your Part in It

Dr. Tony Cawthon and Jimmy Howard are inviting you to take part in a research study. Dr. Tony Cawthon is a faculty member at Clemson University. Jimmy Howard is a student at Clemson University, running this study with the help of Dr. Town Cawthon. The purpose of this research is to explore what impacts Black women’s confidence in college sexual violence policies and practices.

Your part in the study will be to answer a series of questions with scaled-responses with one open-ended questions. It will take you about 10 minutes to participate in this study.

Risks and Discomforts

Participants may experience mild discomfort when answering questions about sexual violence, however significant precautions have been taken to reduce this discomfort by only asking questions that are relevant to the study. The researchers have crafted the study so that responses to the survey will be anonymous however participants could experience mild risk if the responses to the incentive list were leaked however as described below we will take significant precautions to see that this does not happen.

Possible Benefits

The potential benefits of this research are a contribution to helping college leaders understand how they can increase Black women’s confidence in their sexual misconduct and violence resources, policies, and practices. As for participants, the survey will provide you an opportunity to share how they feel about campus policies and resources.

Incentives

Participants have the option to be entered in a drawing for five $20 and one $100 Amazon e-gift cards.
Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

There will be no identifying information collected that could be connected with survey response. We will do everything we can to protect your anonymity and privacy. We will not tell anybody outside of the research team that you were in this study or what information we collected about you in particular. While we must request your email address for the incentive, email addresses will be removed as soon as the incentives have been distributed. Data is collected in a confidential and anonymous manner and will be maintained on password-protected computers at Clemson University. The research team will share the summarized results of the study but, no information will be provided that could possibly identify you personally. No social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) profile information will be collected during this study.

The results of this study may be published in scientific journals, professional publications, or educational presentations; however, no individual participant will be identified.

Choosing to Be in the Study

You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Resources

If you are concerned about any of the topics covered in this study, or if you would like more information or personal support regarding these topics, please contact one of the resources listed on this website: http://bit.ly/genearlresources

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at 864-656-0636 or irb@clemson.edu. If you are outside of the Upstate South Carolina area, please use the ORC’s toll-free number, 866-297-3071. The Clemson IRB is a group of people who independently review research. The Clemson IRB will not be able to answer some study-specific questions. However, you may contact the Clemson IRB if the research staff cannot be reached or if you wish to speak with someone other than the research staff.

If you have any study related questions or if any problems arise, please contact Jimmy Howard at Clemson University at 302-482-8836 or Dr. Tony Cawthon at 864-656-5100.
Consent

By participating in the study, you indicate that you have read the information written above, are at least 18 years of age, been allowed to ask any questions, and are voluntarily choosing to take part in this research. You do not give up any legal rights by taking part in this research study.
Appendix F

Survey Sexual Violence Resources

Building a Model for Black Women’s Confidence in Campus Sexual Violence Policy and Practice

End of Survey Resources
Dr. Tony Cawthon & Jimmy Howard

The following message will be shown to all participants who complete the survey:

Thank you for your participation in this study!

Please feel free to share this study with other Black women currently attending college by using this link:

(Insert survey link)

If you are concerned about any of the topics covered in this survey, or if you would like more information or personal support regarding these topics, please contact one of the resources listed below:

**Sexual Violence Resources:**

- National Sexual Assault Hotline
  Phone: 800-656-4673 (HOPE)
  Online Counseling at [https://ohl.rainn.org/online](https://ohl.rainn.org/online)

- Rape Abuse & Incest National Network (RAINN)
  Phone: 800-656-HOPE
  [www.rainn.org](http://www.rainn.org)

**LGBTQ Sexual Violence & Domestic Abuse Resources:**

- Anti-Violence Project Hotline
  Phone: 212-714-1141
  [https://avp.org](https://avp.org)

- GLBT National Help Center
  Hotline: 800-246-7743

**Relationship Violence Resources:**

- National Domestic Violence Hotline
  Phone: 800-799-SAFE (7233)
  TTY: 800-787-3224
The principal investigators for this survey are Dr. Tony Cawthon and Jimmy Howard who can be reached at howard8@clemson.edu to answer any additional questions you may have about this research.
Thank you again for your participation.
Appendix G

Survey Instrument

Informed Consent

Information about Being in a Research Study
Clemson University

Exploring Black Women's Confidence in College Sexual Violence Policies and Practices

Description of the Study and Your Part in It

Dr. Tony Cawthon and Jimmy Howard are inviting you to take part in a research study. Dr. Tony Cawthon is a faculty member at Clemson University. Jimmy Howard is a student at Clemson University, running this study with the help of Dr. Town Cawthon. The purpose of this research is to explore what impacts Black women's confidence in college sexual violence policies and practices.

Your part in the study will be to answer a series of questions with scaled-responses with one open-ended question. It will take you about 10 minutes to participate in this study.

Risks and Discomforts

Participants may experience mild discomfort when answering questions about sexual violence, however significant precautions have been taken to reduce this discomfort by only asking questions that are relevant to the study. The researchers have crafted the study so that responses to the survey will be anonymous however participants could experience mild risk if the responses to the incentive list were leaked however as described below we will take significant precautions to see that this does not happen.

Possible Benefits

The potential benefits of this research are a contribution to helping college leaders understand how they can increase Black women's confidence in their sexual misconduct and violence resources, policies, and practices. As for participants, the survey will provide you an opportunity to share how they feel about campus policies and resources.

Incentives

Participants have the option to be entered in a drawing for five $20 and one $100 Amazon e-gift cards.

Protection of Privacy and Confidentiality

There will be no identifying information collected that could be connected with survey response. We will do everything we can to protect your anonymity and privacy. We will not tell anybody outside of the research team that you were in this study or what information we collected about you in particular. While we must request your email address for the incentive, email addresses will be removed as soon as the incentives have been distributed. Data is collected in a confidential and anonymous manner and will be maintained on password-protected computers at Clemson University. The research team will share the summarized results of the study but, no information will be provided that could possibly identify you.
personally. No social media (Facebook, Twitter, etc.) profile information will be collected during this study.

The results of this study may be published in scientific journals, professional publications, or educational presentations; however, no individual participant will be identified.

Choosing to Be in the Study

You may choose not to take part and you may choose to stop taking part at any time. You will not be punished in any way if you decide not to be in the study or to stop taking part in the study.

Resources

If you are concerned about any of the topics covered in this study, or if you would like more information or personal support regarding these topics, please contact one of the resources listed on this website: http://bit.ly/geneallresources

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about your rights in this research study, please contact the Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) at 864-656-6636 or irb@clemson.edu. If you are outside of the Upstate South Carolina area, please use the ORC’s toll-free number, 888-297-3271. The Clemson IRB is a group of people who independently review research. The Clemson IRB will not be able to answer some study-specific questions. However, you may contact the Clemson IRB if the research staff cannot be reached or if you wish to speak with someone other than the research staff.

If you have any study related questions or if any problems arise, please contact Jimmy Howard at Clemson University at 302-482-8630 or Dr. Tony Cawthon at 864-656-5100.

Consent

By participating in the study, you indicate that you have read the information written above, are at least 18 years of age, been allowed to ask any questions, and are voluntarily choosing to take part in this research. You do not give up any legal rights by taking part in this research study.

Do you want to participate in this study?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study about Black Women’s confidence in sexual assault practices and policies. The following survey will take about 8-10 minutes to complete.

Be assured all answers you provide will be anonymous & kept confidential.

Affective Commitment Scale
The following questions ask you about your commitment to your college.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attending my college has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a strong sense of belonging to my college.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy discussing my college with people outside of it.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really feel that any problems faced by my college are also my problems.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I attend my college.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel emotionally attached to my college.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college does not deserve my loyalty.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would be happy to attend my college until I graduate.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not feel like part of a community at my college.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perceived Institutional Support**

The following questions ask you about your perception of support from your college.

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My college really cares about my well-being.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college shows little concern for me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college is willing to help me if I need a special favor.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college takes pride in my accomplishments.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if I did the best job possible, My college would fail to notice.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college strongly considers my goals and values.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college would ignore any complaint from me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My college disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Campus Safety Sub-scale**

The following questions ask you about your perceptions of safety on your campus.
Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements, please note that the responses are measured on a different scale than the previous questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Filing a harassment or discrimination complaint is confidential.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are campus safety measures to protect students.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are clear and visible procedures for reporting crimes.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are campus policies and procedures that protect students from harassment and discrimination.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel safe from student-related violence.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel safe on campus.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My daily decisions are not determined by concerns for safety.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I won’t be put at risk because of my gender.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I won’t be put at risk because of my ethnic background.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel safe from social pressures of drug and alcohol use.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Campus Sexual Assault Resources

The following questions are about your perspectives on your college’s sexual assault resources at your college.

Please indicate your level of agreement for the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with the prevention and awareness programs my college makes available to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am familiar with the crisis resources my college makes available to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If someone I knew experienced a sexual assault as a student, I would know where to go on campus to get help.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident that The university has adequate prevention and awareness programs to educate students about sexual assault.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident that The university has adequate crisis resources to assist students who experience a sexual assault.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gendered Racism Scale

Please think carefully about your life as you answer the questions below.
Select the response that best describes events in your entire life (from when you were a child to now) according to these rules:

Once in a while (less than 10% of the time)
Sometimes (10-25% of the time)
A lot (26%-49% of the time)
Most of the time (50%-70% of the time)
Almost all of the time (more than 70% of the time)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Never has happened</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Alot</th>
<th>Most of the time</th>
<th>Almost all of the time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by teachers or professors because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your employer's boss or supervisors because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your co-workers, fellow students or colleagues because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by people in service jobs (by store clerks, waiters, bartenders, waitresses, bank tellers, mechanics and others) because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by strangers because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by people in helping jobs (by doctors, nurses, psychiatrists, case workers, dentists, school counselors, therapists, pediatricians, school principals, gynecologists, and others) because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by neighbors because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times have you been treated unfairly by your boyfriend, husband, or other important man in your life because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many times were you denied a raise, a promotion, tenure, a good assignment, a job, or other such thing at work that you deserved because you are a Black woman?</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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How many times have you been really angry about something oppressive that was done to you because you are a Black woman?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How many times were you forced to take drastic steps (such as filing a grievance, quitting your job, moving away, and other actions) to deal with something oppressive that was done to you as a Black woman?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How many times have you been called a name like bitch or slut because you are a Black woman?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How many times have you gotten into an argument or a fight about something oppressive that was done or said to you as a Black woman or other Black women?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How many times have you been made fun of, picked on, pushed, shoved, hit, or threatened with harm because you are a Black woman?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How many times have you heard people making inappropriate or degrading jokes about Black women?

- Never
- Once
- Sometimes
- A lot
- Most of the time
- Almost all of the time

How different would your life be if you HAD NOT BEEN treated in an unfair way as a Black woman?

- The same as it is now
- A little different
- Different in a few ways
- Different in a lot of ways
- Different in most ways
- Totally different

Demographics

What is your current age?

What is your current class standing?

- Freshman
- Sophomore
- Junior
- Senior
- Graduate Student
- I am not currently enrolled in college

What is your race (as you define it)? (Mark all that apply)

- American Indian or Alaska Native
☐ Asian  
☐ Black or African-American  
☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander  
☐ White  
☐ Other

What is your current gender identity? (Mark all that apply)
☐ Male
☐ Female
☐ Transgender
☐ Gender queer/ Gender-nonconforming
☐ My gender identity is not listed

Are you a member of a Greek Letter Organization?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Where in the United States is your college located?

What type of college do you currently attend?
☐ 4-year college
☐ 2-year college

Do you attend a public or private college?
☐ Public
☐ Private

Do you attend an HBCU or other minority serving institution?
☐ Yes
☐ No

Experience with Sexual Violence

The following question is about your experience with sexual violence during college.

If you need help please refer to the resources listed on this page, this list will also be available following the survey: http://bit.ly/genearesources
For this study sexual violence includes unwanted sexual encounters such as attempted rape, completed rape, coercive sex, and unwanted touching.

Have you experienced sexual violence SINCE you started college?

☐ Yes
☐ No

Closing

Is there anything else you would like us to know?

Do you want to be entered into a drawing for either a $20 or $100 Amazon.com Gift Card? (If you select yes, you will be redirected to a separate survey where your email will be collected)

☐ Yes
☐ No

Follow-up Sexual Violence Questions

The following questions are about the resources available following the sexual violence you experienced.

If you need help please refer to the resources listed on this page, this list will also be available following the survey: http://bit.ly/genearlresources

What resources were you aware of following your experience with sexual violence? (Please select all that apply)

☐ I didn't report the sexual violence
☐ Reporting to the Police
☐ Reporting to School Counselor (K-12)
☐ Reporting to College Administrators
☐ Reporting to a Faculty Member
☐ Medical care
☐ Counseling Services
☐ Speaking with a Sexual Assault Survivor Advocate
☐ Speaking with a Confidential Source
☐ Speaking with the Title IX Coordinator
☐ Filing Student Conduct Charges
☐ Filing a Title IX Report
☐ Others Resources
What resources did you utilize following your experience with sexual violence? (Please select all that apply)

☐ I didn't report the sexual violence
☐ Reporting to the Police
☐ Reporting to School Counselor (K-12)
☐ Reporting to College Administrators
☐ Reporting to a Faculty Member
☐ Medical care
☐ Counseling Services
☐ Speaking with a Sexual Assault Survivor Advocate
☐ Speaking with a Confidential Source
☐ Speaking with the Title IX Coordinator
☐ Filing Student Conduct Charges
☐ Filing a Title IX Report
☐ Others Resources
Appendix H

Study Variable Scatterplots by Dependent Variable Confidence

Simple Scatter of Confidence by ExpSexViolence

Simple Scatter of Confidence by GenRacism
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