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Fraternal Force: A Cultural Intervention to Alter the Way Fraternities Communicate and Conceptualize Sexual Violence

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One in four women will be victim/survivors of sexual assault by the time she graduates college (Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski 1988). In the decades since this shocking statistic was revealed colleges and universities have spent time, money, and resources to address sexual assault. Unfortunately, little has changed and it continues to be an epidemic (Abbey 2002, Fisher, Cullen, and Turner 2000, Lee et al. 2003, U.S. Department of Education 2010). In addition, fraternity men are more likely to perpetrate these crimes than their non-affiliated peers (Boyle 2015, Kingree and Thompson 2013, Murnen and Kohlman 2007). The prevention programs colleges and universities use lack evidence of their effectiveness (DeGue et al. 2014, Vladutiu, Martin, and Macy 2011).

This study takes an anthropological approach in understanding the emic perspectives of fraternity life. Through years of ethnographic fieldwork and interviews, this study explains why fraternity men remain an at-risk population for sexual assault perpetration due to the power dynamics, discourses, and lived reality of fraternal life. This fieldwork informed the creation of a new sexual assault prevention program for fraternity men. This study measures the effectiveness of the piloting of this new program.

Results indicated that the intervention showed some success. The fraternity men were open to the program and genuinely wanted to talk about sexual assault and consent. After exposure to the intervention the men gained a better understanding of what consent

entailed. They now understand that consent is a continuous process and that consent is needed for each aspect of a sexual encounter. The program was able to begin to normalize the topics of consent and sexual assault which allowed the men to discuss these concepts with their sexual partners and peers. The program needs some improvements in modeling consent to assist the men in changing their behaviors. These results provide guidance for ways to improve upon the program to garner stronger effects. Implications for dissemination of the intervention is also discussed.

Fraternal Force: A Cultural Intervention to Alter the Way Fraternities Communicate and Conceptualize Sexual Violence

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Fraternal Force: A Cultural Intervention to Alter the Way Fraternities Communicate and Conceptualize Sexual Violence

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Forward

"[Sexual assault] is not real until it happens to you or someone you know."

This quote was from a female student during an interview in my first year of doctoral research. At the time I was researching binge drinking and its possible health consequences. I knew that sexual assault was a problem but at the time it seemed like a small part of what I wanted to study.

Yet a few semesters later I found how true those words were. I was teaching an undergraduate anthropology course and the best student in the class, who I had also developed a personal rapport with, suddenly stopped coming to class and stopped completing her assignments. I asked the student if she was okay and she told me she was raped and was struggling after the assault. Suddenly sexual assault became real to me, just as the student stated. Once this happened I dropped my research and decided to put all of my efforts into sexual assault prevention.

Sadly, sexual assault on the college campus is not new. Male predation and gender inequality has led to sexual assault becoming a normalized behavior on campuses. Only now is the larger American culture trying to address these issues. Yet there are so few anthropologists doing this work. This research is dominated by psychology and public health, and the anthropological perspective is severely needed.

Sexual assault is not just an interpersonal problem; it is also a cultural problem. I found in my research that our culture perpetuates sexual violence but also demonizes rapists. Nearly all people strongly oppose sexual assault. Yet the same men who oppose

sexual assault do not understand that many of their actions are sexually violent. No one wants to demonize themselves, thus these men rationalize their violent behaviors. The things that these men say and do are horrific. Yet in order to make a true cultural change, those who work on prevention efforts cannot demonize these men. We do need to hold them accountable, but we also need to believe that men can come back from this. If we are going to be successful in preventing sexual assaults, then we need to focus on more than just the individuals. We need to create cultural shifts, and to do so we need more anthropologists do take on this work.

Terminology

Significant Terms:

Binge drinking: Excessive alcohol consumption. The US Centers for Disease Control defines binge drinking as a pattern of drinking that brings a person's blood alcohol concentration to 0.08 grams percent or above.[1]

Clery Act: The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act. Requires colleges and universities to keep and disclose crime information on and near campus.[2]

Consent: The unambiguous verbally communicated indication that all involved parties want and continue to want what is going to happen to occur.

Culture: Culture is a difficult term in define, even in the discipline of anthropology. Culture is the learned and shared thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors of a group. Culture can also be understood as the different groups who hold similar thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors. Throughout this dissertation I will talk about various cultures such as the American, college, hook-up, and fraternity cultures. These identities are not exclusive. Individuals may belong to subcultures within a larger societal culture. The multiple subcultures are also entwined. Individuals can belong to any number of these subcultures.

1 Centers for Disease Control. Alcohol fact sheet. http://www.cdc.gov/alcohol/fact-sheets/binge-drinking.htm

2. Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act. 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f) 2000

Thus belonging to a culture does not inhibit one's membership to another. It also does not require an individual to be part of another subculture. Some cultures are ones that individual self identifies into while others are created to categorize a group of people.

Greek: Refers to fraternal and sororal campus organizations in North America.

Hookup: The engagement in some type of sexual experience with a person with whom one is not in a relationship with.

Masculinity: The culturally determined idea of what characteristics, behaviors, and roles members of the male gender are supposed to exhibit.

Rape: The unwanted penetration of the body (oral, anal, vaginal, etc.) that occurs without the explicit consent of the person.

Sexual Assault: Any unwanted sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the victim.

Title IX: Part of the US Education Amendments of 1972. 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."[3]

3. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. Â§1681 et seq.

Acronyms:

BAC: Blood alcohol concentration

BI: Bystander intervention

IPV: Interpersonal violence

OFSL: Office of Fraternity and Sorority Life

RA: Resident assistant

RMA: Rape myth acceptance

STI: Sexually transmitted infection

TGR: Tau Gamma Rho (pseudonym of the fraternity I worked with)

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation and my research to all victim/survivors of sexual assault.

Especially those brave women that I worked with whose strength continues to inspire me.

Introduction: *An Overview of an Epidemic*

Project Summary

Fraternity men are considered among the most common groups on college campuses to be at risk of becoming perpetrators of sexual violence (Boyle 2015; Kingree and Thompson 2013; Murnen and Kohlman 2007). Therefore, as a fraternity man myself, I found it puzzling that almost no sexual assault prevention programs had been specifically designed for fraternity men that took into account the emic understandings of Greek Life (fraternities and sororities found in colleges across North America). Over the past six years, I have studied sexual assault and other forms of violence at a large university in the Northeast using qualitative and quantitative methods to understand the lived experiences of undergraduate students and their conceptualizations of sexual violence and consent. I used the results of my research and my positionality to help design, implement, and evaluate a sexual assault prevention program made *by* fraternity men (myself and a colleague) *for* fraternity men.

Since this topic branches outside of medical anthropology and into the mental health realm, I collaborated with one of my fraternity brothers who is a licensed mental health counselor at a nearby university to help design and implement this program. He is not only trained as a counselor but also administers sexual assault prevention programs to student groups, including fraternities. With the help of him and his colleagues, we designed a new sexual assault prevention program tailored specifically to fraternity men.

We worked with one fraternity president on the target university campus and delivered the intervention to his fraternity. I will refer to this fraternity as Tau Gamma

Rho (TGR, a pseudonym). In this dissertation, I present my formative research findings and discuss the structure, creation, and delivery of the intervention we designed. The effectiveness of the intervention and possible areas of improvement based on our pilot of the intervention with the TGR fraternity will also be discussed. Finally, I discuss the creation of deliverables for this intervention program (specific products that can be distributed to others to replicate the intervention) and how it can be implemented at other institutes of higher learning.

Statement of the Problem

Although college administrators may not like to admit it, violence and sexual assault have been major problems on college campuses for decades (Pezza and Bellotti 1995). In fact, a 1957 study titled "Male Sexual Aggression on a University Campus" found that 55.7% of female respondents were "offended at least once during the academic year" and that "20.9% were offended by forceful attempts at intercourse" (Kirkpatrick and Kanin 1957). In the 1980s, a groundbreaking study of over 6,000 students from 32 universities found that around 25% of women will be victim/survivors of sexual assault by the time they graduate college (Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski 1987). This led to what is known as the "One in Four" statistic that has become a motto in the campaign against sexual violence. Since the publication of the Koss et al. study, numerous other studies have replicated these results (Lee et al. 2003; Abbey 2002; Fisher, Cullen, and Turner 2000).

For several years now, sexual assault at universities has received frequent media attention and is a major focus in crime prevention efforts. In fact, sexual assault may be more prevalent on U.S. college campuses than in the American general public (Smithey

and Strauss 2004). In addition, sexual assault is called the "silent epidemic" because 95% of attacks go unreported to the police (Fisher, Cullen, and Turner 2000; Abbey et al. 2001) and 42% of women never tell anyone about the assault (Warshaw 1994). The topic gained national attention when both President Obama and Vice President Biden began speaking publicly about the issue. The White House recently released *The First Report of the White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault* (The White House 2014). Currently, there are over 124 colleges under federal Title IX investigations for allegedly mishandling students' reports of sexual harassment and sexual assault (Kingkade 2016).

Note on Terminology

Throughout this dissertation I will use the phrase "victim/survivor" to refer to anyone who has been through a sexual assault. This language is used intentionally because some individuals who have been through this trauma feel that neither title fully describes them and at times they identify as a victim and at other times a survivor. Thus, out of respect for those who have lived through this, I will use "victim/survivor" in this dissertation and dedicate it to all victim/survivors of sexual assault.

Chapter 1: *One in Four*

Overview

Twenty-five percent of women will be victim/survivors of sexual assault by the time they graduate college. This statistic has remained unchanged for nearly 30 years. This chapter examines the epidemic of sexual assault on the college campus. It provides a brief history of the programs and federal laws that have been enacted to combat this issue. This chapter also examines findings about the victim/survivors and the perpetrators of these crimes.

History of Sexual Assault on College Campuses

On April 5, 1986, Jeanne Clery, an undergraduate student at Lehigh University in Pennsylvania, was raped and murdered in her dorm room. Jeanne's parents blamed the university for not sharing vital information about campus safety issues indicating that campus security was unable to protect the students from an increase in crime. The Clerys worked, organized, and pressured the federal legislature to address campus violence on a national level. Their work eventually led to the *Clery Act*, which was signed into law on November 8, 1990 by President George H.W. Bush.

The act was originally called the *Campus Security Act* until 1998 when it was officially changed to the *Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act* (20 USC § 1092(f)). The law affects all colleges and universities that obtain federal money for student financial aid programs and is enforced by the U.S. Department of Education. Nearly every school (both public and private) receives federal funding and is subject to disciplinary action. The *Clery Act* stipulates that "colleges and universities need to disclose information about crime on and around their campuses".

[4]Schools that fail to comply risk fines of up to $27,500 per infraction and/or the loss of eligibility to receive any federal funds (Flowers 2009).

The law specifically requires colleges and universities to publish an annual security report by the 1st of October of each year. The information within the report must include the past three years' worth of data on crimes on campus, be publicly available, and be sent to the U.S. Department of Education. In addition to the annual report, schools must also maintain an active public crime log for their police or security departments. Information and crime statistics that occur on campus or areas next to campus must be publicly disclosed. If a crime or incident occurs and poses a serious or ongoing threat to students and employees the school must issue a timely warning to all students and personnel. Schools must also devise an emergency response notification policy that is regularly tested. The law requires schools not only to have specific plans in place for when a crime (such as sexual assault) occurs but also to have preventative strategies to stop such crimes from occurring in the first place. Since 1990, amendments have been made to the act:

> 1992: Schools need to afford victims of campus sexual assaults certain basic rights.
>
> 1998: An expansion on the reporting requirements was passed.
>
> 2000: A requirement regarding registered sex offender notification was added.
>
> 2008: Schools are required to protect victims, "whistleblowers," and others from retaliation of reporting.

4. Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act. 20 U.S.C. § 1092(f) 2000

In 1994, then Senator Joe Biden led the passing of the *Violence Against Women Act* (VAWA). This was a landmark law that federally addressed violence against women in America. VAWA required that states focus on prevention and not just the adjudication of sexual assault crimes. This led to a change in criminal laws, sentencing, victims' rights, and how evidence should be collected and understood. The law has since been amended in 2000, 2005, and 2013 and has provided increased focus and protection for people of color, immigrants, tribal and native communities, and LGBT individuals (Cohen and Kyckelhan 2010)

One of the most important aspects of the law was the creation of the Office on Violence Against Women (OVW) within the U.S. Department of Justice. OVW facilitates the creation of programs and policies and administers financial and technical assistance to communities. Establishment of the OVW is quite significant as it has awarded nearly $4 billion in grants to state, tribal, and local governments, non-profit organizations, and universities to end practices perpetuating violence against women. The creation of VAWA put national attention on the sexual violence that was occurring at universities and gave universities financial assistance to address and prevent these crimes (Cohen and Kyckelhan 2010).

The *Clery Act* and VAWA called for universities to create policies and structures that would keep students safe and assist victims of sexual assault. Unfortunately, these laws have had minimal effects and criminal behaviors, especially sexual assault, are still common on college campuses (Adams-Curtis and Forbes 2004). In addition, victim/survivors of sexual assault still face retaliation for reporting (Sarat 1997). In the mid 2000s, the failure of the *Clery Act* and VAWA led to student

victim/survivors invoking Title IX, an older law that aimed to eliminate gender discrimination at institutions of learning.

Title IX, introduced by Senator Birch Bayh, was a part of a series of amendments called the *Education Amendments of 1972* (Title IX, 20 U.S.C. §§ 1681 et seq). It specifically protects people from gender discrimination in educational programs. The law 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" (20 U.S.C. §§ 1681 et seq). The educational programs that fall under Title IX include primary, secondary, and post-secondary places of learning. It was signed into law on June 23, 1972 by President Richard Nixon and was renamed the *Patsy Mink Equal Opportunity in Education Act* in 1992.[5]

The original purpose of Title IX was to address discriminatory practices of the hiring of staff and acceptance of students based on gender at institutions of learning (Collingsworth 1981). Yet Title IX covered all educational activities such as clubs, academic fields, and athletics. It was the focus on high school and collegiate athletics that placed Title IX in the national spotlight. Schools had to ensure that expenditures and opportunities for students of both genders were allocated equally. If a school was found in violation, then it was subject to loss of federal financial assistance.

While the original intent of Title IX was to address gender inequality in educational institutions, the dawn of the 21st century saw the beginning of the

5. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, 20 U.S.C. Â§1681 et seq.

invocation of Title IX against sexual harassment and sexual assault. Prior to this, sexual violence was seen as a crime on campus rather than a violation of Title IX. From 1980 until 2011, the courts declared that a university was in violation of Title IX only when there was a deliberate institutional indifference. This meant that multiple incidences of harassment or assault occurred on the campus, the institution was aware of these crimes, and that the institution did not adequately address these crimes to keep them from happening again.

One of the first sexual assault cases that invoked Title IX was *Simpson and Gore v. University of Colorado at Boulder 2007*. In this case, football players and potential recruits of the football program sexually assaulted two female students. The students sued the university claiming that the school was aware of such practices and did not keep them safe. The university was found to be in violation of Title IX because there was a "deliberate indifference in institutional policies" that failed to respond to the educational rights of the victims" [6]

The use of Title IX changed again on April 4, 2011 with the release of the "Dear Colleague Letter" written by Russlynn Ali, the Assistant Secretary for Civil Rights under the Office of Civil Rights (OCR), a part of the US Department of Education. The letter served as a guidance document to schools on how to comply with Title IX. The letter stated "the sexual harassment of students, including sexual violence, interferes with students' right to receive an education free from discrimination" and that "sexual harassment of students, which includes acts of sexual violence, is a form of sex discrimination prohibited by Title IX" (Ali 2011). The document further explained that

6 Simpson and Gore v. University of Colorado at Boulder, 06-1184 [2007]).

such harassment "creates a hostile environment if the conduct is sufficiently serious that it interferes with or limits a student's ability to participate in or benefit from the school's program" (Ali 2011). The letter explained that the proof of a hostile environment does not require a repetitive series of incidents and clearly stated that "a single instance of rape is sufficiently severe to create a hostile environment" (Ali 2011).

The letter also laid out requirements to assist schools in meeting the obligations of Title IX and complying with the law. One important requirement was for each university or college to have at least one Title IX coordinator on staff. The coordinator is required to oversee all Title IX complains, meet and work with students and law enforcement, and keep the school in Title IX compliancy by reviewing and updating policies and proceedings. It should be noted that the Title IX coordinator is not an advocate for the victim. The coordinator is expected to remain neutral in all cases and ensure that the university stays compliant with the law.

The "Dear Colleague Letter" also required that schools have grievance procedures for resolving sexual harassment and sexual violence complaints and that schools should not dissuade students from reporting. In addition, the letter advises against mediation between the parties for sexual harassment and strongly states that it is not appropriate for cases of sexual assault. These grievance procedures are expected to be prompt and equitable to both parties by notifying both parties in writing of the outcomes and appeals and allowing an impartial investigation where both parties can produce witnesses and evidence. The letter states that such investigations should take "approximately 60 calendar days following receipt of the complaint" to complete (Ali 2011). Given that police investigations can take longer than 60 days, the police

investigation is not determinative of a violation of Title IX (Ali 2011). The letter also clearly states that the standards of a Title IX investigation are different from those of a criminal investigation. While a criminal investigation requires evidence beyond reasonable doubt, "the Supreme Court has applied a preponderance of the evidence standard in civil litigation involving discrimination under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Title VII), 42 U.S.C. §§ 2000e *et seq.* [7] Like Title IX," and stated that this standard should also be used for Title IX investigations (Ali 2011).

The letter also states, "if a school determines that sexual harassment that creates a hostile environment has occurred, it must take immediate action to eliminate the hostile environment, prevent its recurrence, and address its effects" (Ali 2011). Such actions include disciplinary action against the harasser, remedies for the complainant and changes in the school's services and policies (Ali 2011). The schools are required to train those to whom a victim/survivor may divulge an incident such as counseling and mental health services, law enforcement, resident assistants (RAs), and faculty and staff. The schools also are required to develop and distribute materials about what to do and to whom one can go if an incident of sexual harassment or sexual assault occurs.

The most important aspect of the "Dear Colleague Letter" is that for schools to be in compliance with Title IX they are required not only to address sexual assault but also to prevent such crimes from occurring. Schools need to use specific preventive education programs with multiple groups of students and not just a brief overview during student orientation, which was the norm before this (Ali 2011). This proactive strategy means that in addition to orientation, RAs need specific training in stopping

7 Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, 42 U.S.C. §§ 2000e *et seq.*

sexual assault since many instances of these crimes occur in the dorms. Such programs are also expected to educate student athletes who are often implicated in these crimes and for whom a focused prevention strategy is required. All of the programs have to define the types of violence and harassment covered by Title IX, explain the university's policies and procedures about complaints, and outline the consequences of perpetrating such crimes (even if a student is not found guilty through the criminal justice system).

Sexual Assault Crime on College Campuses

In the 1980s it was found that one in four college women will be the victim/survivor of sexual assault by the time that she graduates college (Koss et al. 1987). The typical age range for college students is 18-24 and this group has a higher rate of rape and sexual victimization than any other age group of women (Sinozich and Langton 2014). Of women who are raped in the United States, 80% were raped before their 21st birthday (Walters et al. 2013).

Sexual assault is an extremely gendered crime. 78% of victim/survivors of rape and sexual assault are female and nearly all perpetrators are male (Tjaden and Thoennes 2000). In a national study, almost 20% of women surveyed stated that they feared being a victim of sexual assault (Walters et al. 2013). Over 92,000 forcible rapes were reported to the police in 2006 and nearly all of these victim/survivors were women (Federal Bureau of Investigation 2010). Nationally, almost 5% of the female population reported being a victim/survivor of rape specifically (Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004).

The prevalence of rape on the college campus is nearly identical to the national average. Studies show that 3.0% to 4.7% of the female undergraduate population experienced rape or attempted rape within the nine-month school year (Karjane et al. 2005; Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004). The data show that a school with 10,000 students could experience as many as 350 rapes per year (Fisher et al. 2000). During the 2014-2015 school year there were over 18,000 undergraduate students on the University of Connecticut Storrs campus (University of Connecticut 2015). This means that up to 630 rapes may have occurred on the campus during the last academic year.

Although many are aware of the problem, the rate of sexual assault remains high on college campuses (Abbey 2002; Fisher et al. 2000; Lee et al. 2003). In 2009, there were 3,300 forcible sex offenses reported on college campuses across the United States (U.S. Department of Education 2010). A 2011 study of over 5,000 university students found that 11.3% had experienced sexual assault before coming to college and 13.7% had experienced sexual assault since entering college (Martin et al. 2011). This finding is concerning because the women who were assaulted before entering college are more likely to be sexually assaulted again while at school (Martin et al. 2011). Another study found that nearly 5% of first year female students experienced sexual assault within the first seven months of school (Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004). The students who seem to be at the most risk are first and second year students (Krebs et al. 2007), bisexual and lesbian women (Martin et al. 2011), and sorority women living in their chapter house (Abbey 2002; Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004). These students are most likely to be victimized in the first three months of the academic year on weekends (Krebs et al.

2007). This timeframe correlates with times that undergraduate students attend large house/fraternity parties and engage in binge-drinking behaviors.

Who is the Typical College Rapist?

In the American cultural mindset, the image of the typical rapist is a stranger that physically attacks a young woman. Thus, female college students are taught to be wary of strangers. While this scenario does exist, it is rare because 80-90% of victim/survivors knew their attackers (Fisher et al. 2000; Krebs et al. 2007; Sinozich and Langton 2014). The perpetrators of these sexual assault crimes are often the victims' fellow classmates and friends (Fisher et al. 2000; Lisak 2004). In fact, 60% of completed rapes take place in the victim/survivor's dorm room (Fisher et al. 2000). Many of these assaults are not physical attacks and the use/threat of weapons is only found in 10% of sexual assault cases (Sinozich and Langton 2014).

Another popular image of the rapist is a male who drugs a woman with a date rape drug (e.g., rohypnol, gamma hydroxybutyric acid [GHB], and ketamine) by placing the drug in her drink. Like the previous perpetrator image, these men do exist but they are a minority of those who perpetrate sexual assault. A national study on campus sexual assault found that 88% of women never consumed a drink that was left unattended and 76% of women never consumed a drink given to them by a stranger (Krebs et al. 2007). In fact, only 0.6% of victim/survivors were given a date rape drug and 5.3% of all women reported being given a date rape drug (Krebs et al. 2007). Alcohol is actually the most common substance used to incapacitate victims (Hindmarch and Brinkmann 1999). Eighty-four percent of victim/survivors were

incapacitated and unable to give consent due to the ingestion of alcohol, rather than date rape drugs (Krebs et al. 2007).

Thus, the reality is that most sexual assaults on campuses are perpetrated by white males who the victim/survivors know who got them drunk with alcohol in order to lower their inhibitions so as to get them to have sex with them (Armstrong, Hamilton, and Sweeney 2006, Greenfield 1997). Since this reality does not align with the common cultural idea of a typical rapist, most of these men are not punished for the crimes they commit. It is estimated that at most, 35% of those who are actually charged with rape will be convicted of a felony charge (Cohen and Kyckelhan 2010). When unreported rapes are factored in, it is estimated that only about 2% of rapists will ever serve a day in prison (Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network 2015).

This problem extends outside of academia and is actually a problem with the American criminal justice system. Many times acquaintance rape has not been regarded as "real" or "legitimate" rape and the perpetrators have not been held accountable (Estrich 1987). In fact, this type of violence against women has become normalized in American culture and many times is not even considered rape (Brownmiller 1993). In the 2000s, it was found that only 13% of sexual assault cases received guilty verdicts (Rosenbaum 2005). Many times victim/survivors are not believed, are blamed for the violence done to them, and are re-traumatized by trying to hold their rapists accountable (Rosenbaum 2005). Often, law enforcement and colleges question the victim/survivor's claims and believe that she may be making up the story. Yet research has found that only 2-8% of sexual assault allegations are falsely made, which is the same rate as for any other felony crime (Lonsway et al. 2009).

Many victim/survivors never report their assaults to the police or university officials because of the long history of lack of justice and re-traumatization. In the United States between 2006 to 2010, 65% of rapes and sexual assaults were never reported (Langton et al. 2012), and less than 5% of completed and attempted rapes of college women were reported (Fisher et al. 2000). Because of this tendency not to report, only 16% of victim/survivors ever receive assistance from a victim services agency (Sinozich and Langton 2014). While it is true that some victim/survivors fear the backlash of reporting sexual assaults, this only applies to about 20% of rape victims (Sinozich and Langton 2014).

Data on victim/survivors show that there are a number of other reasons why women do not report. These include feelings of embarrassment, not wanting friends and family to know about the assault, believing that there is a lack of evidence to convict their rapist, and a lack of understanding about rape and sexual assault (Pitts and Schwartz 1993). It is this lack of knowledge and the normalization of sexual violence in our culture that helps to shield the perpetrators of sexual assault. In one study, nearly 50% of women whose cases met the legal definition of rape did not think that they had been raped (Fisher et al. 2000). Many times the victim/survivors believe that their experience is a personal matter and that they should not involve the police or university officials (Sinozich and Langton 2014). Other victim/survivors, especially those who were raped through coercive tactics, did not believe that their experience was severe enough to be considered rape and thus did not report it (Fisher et al. 2000; Sinozich and Langton 2014).

This raises the question of how many men on campus commit sexual assault? It is a difficult question to answer as the data on perpetrators of sexual assault on college campuses are inconclusive because they are based on self-reported behaviors. Some research claims that less than 10% of the males on a campus will commit sexual assault and that this small minority of men will commit multiple rapes each year (Lisak 2004). Other research states that the number of men committing sexual assault on a college campus is closer to 25% of the male population (Abbey and McAuslan 2004; Koss et al. 1987; Monson and Langhinrichsen-Rohling 2002; Swartout 2013; Thompson et al. 2011; White and Smith 2004). Since these data rely on self-reports it is difficult to ascertain the true number of perpetrators on a campus. One recent study found that around 33% of college men said that they would commit a rape if they knew that no one would ever find out and that there would be no consequences (Edwards et al. 2014).

Most men do not seem to be sexually aggressive and/or to be likely perpetrators of sexual assault, but not all perpetrators are the same. A recent study found that 9% of the men in the study perpetrated sexual assault before entering college and continued to perpetrate while in college. In addition, 8% of the men polled did not perpetrate prior to entering college but once on campus began to sexually assault women on the campus (Thompson et al. 2013). It appears, then, that about half of men who commit sexual assault during college may learn to be sexually aggressive after entering college. This may be due to the fact that it is often in college that students learn many of the assumptions and myths about rape that are reinforced by their fellow students, especially those in all male groups such as fraternities and sports teams (Lisak 2004). It

may also be a result of the cultural norms of the college lifestyle in which behaviors such as peer pressure to engage in sexual activity, ritualistic abuse of alcohol, objectification of women, and viewing sexual relationships as conquests can lead to aggressive sexual behavior (Adams-Curtis and Forbes 2004). Rape myths - the "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims and rapists" (Burt 1980) – also affect behavior such that the more rape myths an individual accepts, the more likely the individual is to perpetrate or not intervene in instances of sexual assault (Hust et al. 2013; McMahon 2010). In addition, research shows that men who hold more rape myths exhibit hyper-masculinity (beliefs, behaviors, and attitudes that males are stronger, dominant, and more aggressive than females, which perpetuates an essentialist idea of male sexual aggression), and are sexually coercive, and are more likely to be perpetrators of sexual violence (Farris et al. 2008).

Summary

This chapter outlined a brief history of sexual assault on the college campus and how the U.S. government and universities have responded to this epidemic. Specific laws such as the *Clery Act* and VAWA were put into effect. The *Clery Act* required colleges and universities to make information about crime and safety on campus public. VAWA took this one step further and made the institutions focus on protection of students and prevention of sexually violent crimes. The mid 2000s saw the invocation of Title IX when students claimed that their universities did not address their claims of sexual assault and harassment in the correct ways. By 2011, the "Dear Colleague Letter" stated that universities would be in violation of Title IX if they did not change the ways that they

addressed victim/survivors' claims and that a pattern of sexual crimes did not have to exist. A single case was enough to be found in violation of Title IX.

An overview of the magnitude of the issue of sexual assault and rape on American college campuses was also presented. Most of the victims of sexual assault are women and most of the perpetrators are men. Multiple studies have found that one in four women will be a victim/survivor of sexual assault by the time she graduates college. While this type of crime is common on campuses, it is vastly underreported. This may be due to cultural beliefs about sexual assault, the fact that victim/survivors often do not receive the help and assistance that they need, and that most perpetrators are not held accountable for their actions. Most students hold rape myths that are factually incorrect beliefs about sexual assault. These include that women falsely report to the police and that the typical rapist is a stranger who physically attacks a woman. Data show that, while both these occur occasionally, they are in the minority. Nearly all victim/survivors know who their rapist is. While many may picture a rapist as a man who forces himself upon a woman, most college rapists coerce their victims by giving them alcohol. In fact, alcohol is the most commonly used date rape drug with perpetrators using alcohol to incapacitate their victims and coerce them into sex. Given the fact that alcohol is so prevalent in sexual assaults, the next chapter will examine the role that alcohol has on the college campus and how it relates to sexual assaults on campus.

Chapter 2: Alcohol

Overview

In this chapter I discuss the drinking that is prevalent on college campuses throughout America. I examine the various quantities and methods that college students consume alcohol and explain why they engage in binge drinking. I also outline the negative consequences that are correlated with this drinking culture and highlight the dangers of students' binge drinking.

Alcohol Consumption

The consumption of alcohol is a regular part of the American culture. Culturally, one usually has a drink when going out with friends, to relax, with meals, to celebrate, and/or to enjoy the taste. About one-third of American adults do not drink, one-third drink in safe moderate amounts, and one-third are heavy drinkers (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism 2009). While variable by person, in the biological context a safe level of drinking for an average man is no more than four drinks in a day and no more than 14 per week, and a safe level for an average woman is no more than three drinks per day and seven per week (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism 2009). The reason for this gendered difference is that on average, women are smaller and their bodies have less water than men thus their blood alcohol content (BAC) increases at a faster rate than men's (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism 2009; Sun and Longazel 2008; Wechsler and Wuethrich 2002).

There are gender differences in the way that alcohol is broken down by the body. When the body size of each gender is the same, it appears that the male brain metabolizes alcohol quicker (Wang et al. 2003). Thus, men may have more impaired brain function

when under the influence than women. When questioned about whether they felt the effects of alcohol, females report feeling more intoxicated than the men, yet the biological data do not corroborate this (Wang et al. 2003). This shows the power that social norms and expectations can have on a person. If women are culturally told that they cannot tolerate alcohol as well as their male counterparts, then they expect to feel more intoxicated than they really are, while men may actually be more intoxicated than they feel because they do not expect to be drunk.

These social norms and expectations also relate to the concept of cultural models of drinking. This model states that there are culturally constructed beliefs about alcohol. These beliefs effect not only the ways that the individual conceptualize and feels about alcohol, but these beliefs also effect the individual's experience of alcohol consumption (Heath 1987a, Heath 1987b. Singer 2012). In the 1950s Dwight Heath studied the Camba, a tribal community in Bolivia. The Camba celebrated community festivals where the individuals would consume so much alcohol that many would black out. This alcohol consumption continued for days at a time. Heath found that the Western notional of consuming large quantities of alcohol will produce negative health and social consequences was not true for the Camba. Due to their cultural model of drinking, public intoxication was socially valued. This alcohol consumption did not lead to short or long-term consequences. The members of the community did not become dependent on alcohol, have any long-term negative health effects, and there was no an increase in aggression or violence (Heath 1958, Heath 1991, Singer 2012).

While excessive alcohol consumption is present in the general American cultural model of drinking, it is even more prevalent on college campuses in America. In fact, the

abuse of alcohol is present on nearly every college campus (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration 2009). Drinking at college is not a new phenomenon and dates back to the origin of the American university (Seaman 2005; Sloan and Fisher 2011; Sperber 2000; Vander Ven 2011; Weiss 2013, 14). Compared to their non-student peers (18-21 years of age), college students are more likely to abuse alcohol by consuming larger quantities of alcohol more often (Chen, Dufour, and Yi 2004; Neal and Fromme 2007; Weiss 2013, 15). Data show that over 60% of college students consume alcohol in a given month (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration 2009; White and Hingson 2014; Weiss 2013, 39), over half of college students binge drink on each occasion when they consume alcohol (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration 2009; Weiss 2013, 39), and 31% of US college students meet the criteria for severe alcohol abuse and dependence (Knight et al. 2002).

The cultural model of drinking on the college campus is binge drinking. In my ethnographic research I found that, like the Camba (Heath 1958), public intoxication is socially valued. Male students attempt to perform their masculinity by drinking more than their peers. While these behaviors would be considered problematic in the general American society, they are not problematic in the college environment. Even though many students would meet the criteria for alcohol dependence due to the ways they consume alcohol (Knight et al. 2002), I found that most students are not dependent on alcohol. After graduating nearly all of them changed their drinking habits to align with the general cultural standards. If the students were truly dependent on alcohol, then this switch would be much harder for them. Thus, the cultural model of drinking on the

college campus affects how students conceptualize their drinking and what general society views as their risky drinking behaviors.

Many students start to abuse alcohol before college and their consumption becomes riskier after they enter college (Borsari 2007). Historically, binge drinking rose when the US government changed the legal drinking age from 18 to 21 in 1984 (Gumprecht 2008; Sperber 2000). Both males and females engage in risky binge drinking, but men are more likely to consume more extreme amounts of alcohol (Weiss 2013, 40). Many students explicitly drink to get drunk (Neal and Fromme 2007; O'Grady, Arria, Fritzelle, and Wish 2008; Tewksbury and Pedro 2003; Weiss 2013, 16). Some of the riskiest drinking is done within the first year of college (Sher and Rutledge 2007; Weiss 2013, 44). The groups of students who have the highest rates of binge drinking are students engaged in Greek Life (Durkin, Wolfe, and Clark 2005; Mustaine and Tewksbury 2004; Hickson and Roebuck 2009; Wechsler and Wuethrich 2002; Weiss 2013, 16) and student athletes (Brenner et al. 2009; Meilman, Leichliter, and Presley 1999; Simons et al. 2005; Sperber 2000). Older students may engage in this behavior at bars or pubs (Buddie & Parks 2003; Kypri et al. 2010), while younger students who cannot legally drink are able drink at private residences and fraternity houses (Kypri et al. 2010).

While this very risky behavior may seem illogical, students are actually aware of their behavior and plan for their risky binge drinking episodes. Partying is a balancing act with academics (Weiss 2013, 48). Many students understand that they can only remain at their school if they do well in their classes, thus they mold their drinking calendars around their schoolwork. In addition, over 80% of students who consume alcohol engage

in what is called “pre-gaming”, which entails consuming alcohol prior to arriving at a bar or party (Weiss 2013, 57). When asked why they party before a party, the responses for such behaviors are logical and based on cost savings (Weiss 2013, 57). Younger students cannot be sure that they will be able to obtain alcohol at a party, and older students find that bars and pubs are expensive. Thus, students engaged in pre-gaming to guarantee the experience of an intoxicated state and to save money. At these pre-gaming events, over 50% of students do not just consume beverages but engage in drinking games (Kenney et al. 2010). Many students engage in such games to communicate and get to know people before going out to an event. While many students engage in these pre-gaming rituals in which dangerous amounts of alcohol can be consumed, there only seems to be a link with alcohol consumption and negative outcomes for those who frequently engage in drinking games, of which there are a great variety (Zamboanga et al. 2010). The main objective of the games is to become intoxicated in a fun and social environment instead of just consuming alcohol. The rules and objectives of the games differ. Below I discuss some of the most popular drinking games.

Beer pong (also known as Beirut) is the most popular of the drinking games and for many males this is the center of the party. To play the game, 20 cups that are partially filled with beer are arranged in a triangular shape on each side of a long table (10 per side). Each team is composed of two players and the players attempt to throw Ping-Pong balls into the opposing team’s cups. If a ball lands in a team’s cup they must consume the beer and remove the cup from play. The teams take turns throwing the balls until one team has eliminated all of their opponent’s cups. Usually the winning team will stay on the table and another team will face them.

Flip cup is another popular drinking game but unlike beer pong many partygoers can play at the same time. Two teams are lined up on opposite sides of a long table with a cup filled with beer in front each player. The objective is to finish drinking the beer as quickly as possible and then place the cup upside down on the edge of the table and flip it with your fingers so that it lands right side up on the table. If the player is unsuccessful, they must continue to try to flip the cup. The next person in line cannot start until the player before them successfully flips the cup. This continues down the line until the final person on the team flips the cup. The game ends when one team gets all their cups flipped before the other. Games usually go fairly quickly and multiple rounds are played.

There are a number of drinking games that require playing cards. One such game is called *bullshit*. Cards are equally distributed to each player. The objective of the game is to get rid of all of the cards. Play begins with the player who has the ace of spades. Play moves in a clockwise rotation. Each player has to play a card facedown that is the next increment of the cards (aces, then twos, then threes, etc.). Players can play one, two, three or four cards but must announce how many cards they are playing. For example, a player could say that they are playing three twos. A player does not need to actually have those cards but can bluff. Players can call a bluff on a player and check the cards. If the call was correct the player who bluffed must take all cards. If the person was incorrect, they have to take all of the cards. In addition, players are required to drink when they are required to take cards.

Asshole is like bullshit in that cards are played in a sequential order amongst players. The difference is that the cards are played face up and a player only needs to play a card higher than what is currently on the board so any card that is higher can be played.

Like in bullshit, play continues until all of the cards are gone. The drinking aspect of asshole deals with who wins each hand. The winner is considered the president for the next round and goes first. The vice president is the player who finishes second and will go second in the next round. The asshole is the player that finished last and will go last in the next round. The president can make any other player drink whenever they want to. The vice president can do the same but cannot make the president drink. The asshole has no power and must do all of the work. This includes shuffling, dealing, getting refills for players, etc. The goal is to not become the asshole. The role of asshole can change from hand to hand.

Kings is another card game but with very different rules. There is no limit on the number of players. Players sit in a circle and all of the cards are placed facedown on a table. Players take turns picking a card and showing it to the other players. Each card is associated with an action. Some make the player drink while others make other players drink. Other cards are associated with specific things that players must perform or say. The last person to perform the action (or if a player messes up the words) is required to drink. Different variations have different actions associated with each card.

A *power hour* is a dangerous drinking game where everyone decides that a certain amount of alcohol will be consumed in a given hour. For example, players must drink a beer every five minutes or take a shot every 10 minutes. Many times players cannot last the full hour and the players try to go as far as they can to gain prestige.

Edward 40-hands is a game based off of the movie *Edward Scissorhands (1990)*. In the movie, the main character had scissors for hands. In this game, participants duct

tape 40 oz. bottles of beer to their hands. They cannot remove the duct tape until both 40s have been consumed.

Quarters is a game that requires at least one quarter and a container (usually a shot glass or cup). A player attempts to bounce the quarter off of the table and into the container. If they are successful they make other players drink. Players continue until they miss, then it is the next player's turn.

Many students also play drinking games related to TV and movies. Rules for such games are usually found online. The basics of the game are that when something happens in the program those watching drink or perform an action and the last to perform the action has to drink. This could include a catch phrase or an action by a certain character.

In sum, the aim of the games is to increase alcohol consumption in the company of others.

Why Students Drink

There are many reasons why college students engage in risky drinking behaviors. Psycho-biological factors may be one such reason. College is a time when adolescents move away from their families. It is also the time when the adolescent's prefrontal cortex is still maturing and the individual has a lower cognitive capacity to influence decision making and this may increase risk-taking behaviors (Casey et al. 2011; Galvan et al. 2006; Gogtay et al. 2004; Hare et al. 2008; Sowell et al. 2003). Thus, being away from adult supervision and wanting to be adventurous can lead to risky drinking (Casey et al. 2011). Another explanation might be that alcohol use at this age is part of growing up in the American culture. For example, young people in Europe tend to learn to drink safely and moderately at younger ages. This is not the case in the United States for the most

part. Thus, American youth usually learn how to manage their intoxication through trial and error. Thus, the beginning of college is a time when students begin to experiment with alcohol, to learn their bodies' reactions to alcohol, and to figure out acceptable drinking practices so that after they graduate they can “grow up” and engage in safe drinking behaviors (Vander Ven 2011).

It is important to note that while the drinking behaviors that students engage in may be similar to those of people who have alcohol dependency issues, most students are not addicted to alcohol. After graduation most students continue to drink but change their behaviors to meet socially acceptable drinking patterns (Bogle 2008). This suggests that there may be less of a biological reason for risky alcohol use during college and more of a cultural one.

One of the best ways to explain college binge drinking is the influence of social expectations. Many students enter college with expectations of what college will be like and how they should behave. They believe that they will be expected not only to drink alcohol while in college but also to binge drink regularly. While the increase in the drinking age correlated with higher rates of binge drinking, excessive alcohol consumption was an issue on college campuses before this time (Igra and Moss 1979, Banks and Smith 1980). Since generations of students have held the same belief, it has become the social norm. Once binge drinking became the social norm on college campuses, students began to believe that it is normal and expected to engage in risky binge drinking behaviors (Neighbors et al. 2007; Pederson, LeBrie, and Kilmer 2009). While these peer norms are important, there are also institutional norms that perpetuate binge drinking in college (Thompson, Swartout, and Koss 2011; Weiss 2013, XIV). For

example, university administrators and police services expect students to engage in risky drinking behaviors. Most Residential Assistants (RAs) know that risky drinking occurs on the dorm floors they supervise, but they do not stop this. In fact, it seems that it is expected that the students be intoxicated on the weekends. The students I interviewed told me that their RAs tell them that they know parties will happen on the floor but to keep the parties in their rooms, keep the noise down, and keep each other safe. The students also stated that the police on campus reinforce these norms by treating the students as if they are drunk whenever they have contact with the students on weekends. This cultural expectation and ignoring the behavior contributes to the normalization of binge-drinking as being part of the college culture and experience (Borsari 2007).

While binge drinking is present on all campuses, some universities are nationally recognized as party schools. These are universities where a "disproportionate number of students [are] eager to boast of their party-delated 'accomplishments' in surveys" (Weiss 2013, xv). At these universities binge drinking is more socially accepted and there are large public binge drinking events. Party schools are usually four-year public universities that have their own college town and have a successful sports program (Weiss 2013, 3). Many times these universities are located in places that are cut off from other towns or cities. Since many students have to live on campus there is not much else for them to do for entertainment so students may engage in alcohol consumption. Boredom itself can be a characteristic of alcohol consumption and abuse (Beck et al. 1995, Krueger et al. 2007). These students are mostly middle class and between 18-24 years of age. They usually have access to resources to pay for alcohol and can afford to engage in this practice (Weiss 2013, 38). While administrators may worry about the safety of their students, this

party school designation can be a useful tool for administrators. Academia has become a business where fundraising is the most important part of the presidential duties. While many administrators will not admit this, being a party school can be a useful recruitment tool to attract new students and may result in alumni giving more generously to the university because they had fun and enjoyed their time in college (Weiss 2013, 136). Many students who attend universities with this reputation aspire to the identity of being a partier and apply to these institutions because of their reputations as party schools (Weiss 2013, 49).

Because of perceived social expectations and the normalization of binge drinking students often overestimate how much alcohol they consume (Mallett et al. 2006; Nguyen et al. 2013; Patrick and Lee 2010). Such overestimates of alcohol consumption may be caused not only by the social acceptance of binge drinking but also the social status that one can gain by engaging in the behavior. From telling and retelling drinking stories, students often consciously or subconsciously overestimate their drinking (Park et al. 2009; Patrick and Lee 2010). These overestimates may increase the number of alcohol drinks students consume because they may feel pressured to live up to these expectations in social situations (Baer et al. 1991. Borsari and Carey 2003, Larimer et al. 2011, Larimer et al. 2004, Lewis and Neighbors, 2004

Students may also experience a loss of status by not engaging in risky drinking and this can lead them to experience a sense of pluralistic ignorance, which is a bias that can be found in social groups. Each member of the group personally rejects the norm but assumes that the others in the group accept it (Katz and Allport 1931; Krech and Crutchfield 1948). This is common in regards to binge drinking on the college campus.

Many students actually overestimate their peers' alcohol consumption and believe that they consume less than their peers, and that at times they try to match their peers' drinking patterns while in reality, their peers also drink (or want to) drink less but wrongly assume that everyone else is binge drinking (Borsari and Carey 2001; Kypri, Gallagher, and Cashell-Smith 2004; Kypri and Langley 2003; Lewis and Neighbors 2006; Perkins 2002; Saunders et al. 2004). This may be another causal factor contributing to binge drinking (Perkins 2002).

Another possible explanation for students' binge drinking is that engaging in such practices creates bonds between those participating due to their shared experiences (Weiss 2013, 38). Since partying is viewed as a positive experience, students who engage in these behaviors believe that they are having a good time and creating memories together. They are able to develop stories about their party behavior and use these stories to bond with each other and to build prestige. Research shows that both the binge drinking of alcohol (Brenner et al. 2009) and the use of illicit drugs (Simons et al. 2005) can create bonds between those who use these substances with one another. Many students view their party behaviors, especially their binge drinking stories, as badges of honor, and surviving such experiences may even be viewed as a rite of passage (Weiss 2013, 70).

Negative Outcomes: Injury

A number of negative outcomes are associated with the consumption of alcohol. In fact, research has found a causal link between acute alcohol intake and injury (Watt et al. 2004), other health problems, and mortality (Hingson, Zha, and Weitzman 2009). For example, it is estimated that each year at least 1,800 deaths and 599,000 injuries occur on

college campuses in the United States due to alcohol consumption associated with motor vehicle accidents, falls, and alcohol poisoning (Hingson et al. 2009; White and Hingson 2014). It is also estimated that 2.7 million college students operate a motor vehicle while under the influence each year (Hingson et al. 2009; White and Hingson 2014) and that 20,000 students are hospitalized for alcohol poisoning annually (White et al. 2011; White and Hingson 2014).

Binge drinking can also affect a student's academic status at school. Each year over 110,000 students are arrested due to alcohol violations such as public drunkenness or driving under the influence (Hingson et al. 2002; White and Hingson 2014). It is also estimated that 8.5% of students were arrested or had trouble with police because of drinking alcohol (Presley and Pimental 2006; White and Hingson 2014). These run-ins with the law can be a stain on a person's record and may jeopardize a student's standing in the school. Binge drinking can also affect a student's academic performance. Around 35% of students have academic problems because of their partying behaviors (Engs et al. 1996; Wechsler et al. 2002; White and Hingson 2014). Students may also miss classes or miss completing assignments because of the after-effects of a night of drinking. Binge drinking can also affect brain function, and 27% of binge drinkers experience memory loss (Wechsler et al. 2000; White 2003; White and Hingson 2014).

Negative Outcomes: Crime

In addition to an increase in personal injury, there is also a correlation between binge drinking and an increase in crime on college campuses. There are certain "hot spots" on campuses that promote crime. These hot spots are places where there are a large number of possible victims and perpetrators and a lack of authority such as RAs

(Weiss 2013, 73). Bars, off-campus houses, and fraternity houses are examples of these hot spots. Once alcohol is added into the equation, the chance of crime greatly increases. Possible victims can become easy targets because they may be unaware of the perpetrators due to the effects of alcohol. Individuals may become perpetrators due to the effects of alcohol that can create "careless, reckless, impulsive, and aggressive" behavior (Weiss 2013, 73). Since there is a lack of authority figures to make sure crime does not occur, the perpetrators can go unchecked.

In addition to drunk driving, property crime victimization is a common crime found on college campuses. This includes acts such as burglary, vandalism, and larceny/theft. In one study 50% of students had been the victims of such crime (Weiss 2013, 74-80). Of property crime victimization, vandalism is one of the most common crimes on campuses (Brown and Devlin 2003). Much of the vandalism that takes place is not malicious or for political protest but rather celebratory. This is especially true after a sports team wins a championship, as I found in my ethnographic observations. If the administration or police were to try to stop the "celebration" they would be seen as anti-student by the participants (Weiss 2013, 35-36). Many students not only believe that such behavior is normal but that they are entitled to behave in such a way, almost as if they have a right to party and destroy property (Weiss 2013, 94-97, 104-108, 115-119).

Interestingly, along with believing that students have an entitlement to party and engage in illegal behavior, many students do not actually view their behaviors as wrong or illegal. When students are the perpetrators of crimes, such as vandalism, they do not view it as a serious offense but rather as something that everyone does (Weiss 2013, 93-94), and when students are the victims of such crimes, many feel that they have an

allegiance to their peers and rationalize that their victimization could have been worse (Burn 2009; Weiss 2013, 125-127).

Crime data on college campuses rely mostly on reports made to the police or other authorities. Many students do not report crime because they believe that a crime has not taken place. There are also other reasons why students may not report a crime or that they were the victim of a crime. One possible reason is that, as with drinking behavior, students may actually be experiencing a sense of pluralistic ignorance. Everyone may realize that the actions are wrong but they do not want to stand out amongst the crowd and be the only one to vocalize the problem. Thus they believe that everyone else is okay with the crime and do not report or intervene (Coker et al. 2011). A similar possibility is the bystander effect in which a crime has occurred in front of multiple witnesses. Each witness believes that at least one person has already contacted the authorities and that they personally do not need to do so (Michener and DeLamater 1999**).**

Another possibility is that a student believes that that their victimization is a private matter and the victim does not want to involve the police or other authorities. This is especially true when victims want to protect themselves or their friends, who may have been the perpetrators (Weiss 2013, 119-123). The reasons for this may be their sense of self-preservation especially if the victim has used illegal substances such as drugs or is drinking underage. It is for this reason that students should receive amnesty for medical and emergency situations so that they will call emergency services and not have to worry about being disciplined for substance use (Fabian et al. 2008).

Unfortunately, property crime victimization is not the only type of crime that is correlated with alcohol use on campus. Violent crime victimization, which includes

physical assaults, interpersonal violence (IPV), and fighting, is correlated as well. It is estimated that each year 646,000 physical assaults occur on campuses (Hingson et al. 2009; White and Hingson 2014). Other research shows that around 18% of the student body is victimized by such crimes (Weiss 2013, 80-84).

The act of drinking appears to be a causal factor in violent crime (Parker and Auerhahn 1998). Binge drinking in particular is linked with physical aggression and fighting (Buddie et al. 2003; Engs and Hanson 1994). Specifically, in certain cultural contexts (such as bars, parties, and places where men attempt to prove their masculinity through drinking) alcohol can lower the individual's inhibitions and ability to control themselves and thus increases their aggression. Thus, the likelihood that an individual will be provoked into a physical altercation greatly increases when one binge drinks (Buddie and Parks 2003; Harford et al. 2003).

The consumption of alcohol can also be linked to interpersonal violence (IPV). In America, the cultural context for drinking often occurs in places where many individuals are not close friends or kin. These are places such as bars, fraternity houses, and parties. In these environments the higher one's blood alcohol count (BAC), the more likely that IPV can occur (Lutha & Gidyez 2006; Roudsari, Leahy, and Walters 2009). Since these places usually have large crowds of people who do not know each other well, and there is a cultural belief that alcohol intoxication can lead to aggression, misunderstandings and violence are not uncommon. The data on IPV are difficult to understand since, like property crime victimization, many students do not view themselves as victims of IPV. It is estimated that 13-42% of college students experienced and/or perpetrated physical violence in a relationship. In addition, 24% of students reported receiving or perpetrating

two or more acts of violence (Miller 2010). Not all victims will be physically assaulted. Many perpetrators assault their partners through verbal abuse and at times pressuring the victim into having sex (Abbey et al. 2003). Many men use coercion in their relationships to gain power and control (Lavoie et al. 2000). Another reason that seems to explain why men perpetrate such crimes is the level of significant stress the man is under or perceives himself to be under (Gormley & Lopez 2010). Some data also show that certain personality types are more likely to engage in such violence. If an individual has autonomy (is self-endorsed and goal oriented) then he is less likely to perpetrate physical violence than a man with a controlled orientation (that focuses on rewards and punishments; Hove et al. 2010). In any case, alcohol use increases the risk of IPV.

Negative Outcomes: Risky Sexual Practices

Alcohol and sex are highly correlated among college students. Many students engage in what is known as a *hookup*, which is generally defined as engaging in some type of sexual experience with a person with whom they are not in a relationship. The hookups usually occur between strangers or acquaintances and can range from kissing to full penetrative intercourse. Alcohol is often directly linked to such activities (Abbey et al. 1996, 2003; Ullman et al. 1999; Krebs et al. 2007; White and Hingson 2014). Due to the nature of partying and drinking, many times the sexual acts are unplanned (Abbey et al. 1996, 2003; Ullman et al. 1999; White and Hingson 2014). This has been shown to be a factor in individuals engaging in unprotected sex (Weiss 2013, 72). It is estimated that on college campuses over 400,000 students engage in unprotected sexual practices and many of these were initiated in hookup social episodes (Hingson et al. 2002; White and Hingson 2014).

Not all hookups are consensual and binge drinking is correlated with more violent and extreme forms of sexual assault (Abbey et al. 2001, Abbey et al. 2003; Parkhill et al. 2009; Ullman et al. 1999; White and Hingson 2014). It is estimated that there are around 97,000 sexual assaults on college campuses each year (Hingson et al. 2009; White and Hingson 2014). Women are more likely than men to be victims of such crimes. One study found that 9% of the females in the sample were victim/survivors of rape and 42% of these women were raped in their first year of college. The vast majority of assaults were not perpetrated by strangers; the victim/survivors knew the perpetrator in 87% of these cases and 87% of the cases occurred in the victim/survivor's dorm room or home (Weiss 2013, 84-91).

There is also a clear link between alcohol use and sexual aggression. Over 70% of rapes occur when the victim/survivors were so intoxicated they were unable to consent or refuse (Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004). Multiple studies found a link in the perpetration of sexually violent crimes and drinking (Abbey et al. 2001; Abbey et al. 2007; Abbey, Jacques-Tiura and Lebreton 2011; Greene and Davis 2011; Koss and Dinero 1988; Locke and Mahalik 2005; Oumette 1997; Rapozza and Drake 2009; Schwartz et al. 2001). Research shows that binge and heavy drinking are also correlated with an increase in sexual assault (Abbey et al. 1998, 2006, 2011; Johnson and Knight 2000; Parkhill and Abbey 2008). Alcohol consumption itself is often linked with the expectation of sexual relations. The chance of sexual assault perpetration is increased by the perpetrator's level of binge drinking (Wilson, Calhoun, and McNair 2002), hostile sexism (Lisco et al. 2012), general hostility (Abbey, Jacques-Tiura, and Lebreton 2011), coercion

(Tewksbury and Pedro 2003; Wechsler and Wuethrich 2002), and lack of empathy (Gallagher et al. 2010).

Research in the field of psychology has tested the effects that alcohol has on sexual aggression via an experiment where men watched a video that showed a date rape (Davis et al. 2006). The control group only watched the video, while the experimental group drank alcohol before watching the video. After the video the men were asked several questions about the violence they watched in the video. Multiple researchers have used this model and found very compelling links between alcohol use and sexual aggression. One study found that the men who drank alcohol actually had an increase in sexual arousal after watching the date rape video (Davis et al. 2006). Other studies found that the men who drank alcohol were more likely to believe that the woman enjoyed the sex in the video, making it seem less like rape (Abbey et al. 2003; Davis et al. 2012; Gross et al. 2001; Norris et al. 1993, 1992, 2002). In a similar sense, these men also believed that the man in the video acted appropriately (Abbey et al. 2003; Davis 2010; Noel et al. 2009). This may be because those who drank experienced increased anger and a stronger sense of entitlement to sex (Davis et al. 2010, 2012). One study even found that the men in the experimental group were more likely to act the way the man did in the video than the men in the control group (Norris and Karr 1993). Thus, alcohol use may be a causal agent to sexual aggression. The men who drank were significantly more likely to agree that they would use force if they had high levels of sexual alcohol expectancies (Norris et al. 2002), sexual dominance (Noel et al. 2009), and hostility (Abbey et al. 2009).

Even with strong data like this, women continue to be blamed for being victims of sexual assault. Research shows that women who binge drink are more likely to be victims of rape while they are intoxicated (Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004). Yet data also show that if a victim had used a substance (drugs or alcohol) the perpetrator nearly always did as well (Brecklin and Ullman 2010). Thus, there is a higher likelihood of rape if both the perpetrator and the victim are drinking (Abbey et al. 2001).

Data like this is dangerous because it can lead to victim blaming (Abbey et al. 2001). That is why it is vital for people to know that it is not the victim's alcohol use that is important but the perpetrator's level of alcohol consumption because this is linearly related to their increased sexual aggressiveness and more severe forms of sexual assault (Abbey et al. 2003). Furthermore, once the drunken male becomes aggressive, rarely does the male or those around him attempt to calm him and halt the aggression (Abbey et al. 2003; Taylor and Chermack 1993).

Most perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug in order to get women to have sex with them. Yet these men may not always use alcohol. Rather, they use whatever they can to convince women to have sex with them (Parkhill and Abbey 2008; Zawacki et al. 2003). These include "seduction techniques" such as: pick-up lines, sexual coercion, lying, and negging (a backhanded compliment used to make fun of the victim and showcase the seducer's power). Nevertheless, alcohol is usually the easiest tool they can use to achieve their goals. Thus, it appears that these men know that they are using alcohol to incapacitate their victims and look at this as a seduction strategy rather than rape (Abbey et al. 2003; Martin & Hummer 1989; Mosher & Anderson 1986). Most perpetrators do not view themselves as perpetrators of sexual assault. Many have been

known to underreport the amount of alcohol the victim drank to make it appear that sex was consensual and that the victim had the capacity to consent (Abbey et al. 2003). Of the men who engage in this type of criminal behavior, fraternity men are more likely to use date rape drugs and alcohol and are also more likely to hold rape myths (rape myths were introduced in Chapter 1 and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4; Boswell and Spade 1996; Menning 2009).

Even though sexual assault is a common crime on college campuses, many students do not report their victimization to the police or to the university. This is because the act of rape is usually perceived as physically holding a person down and not a perpetrator using alcohol to incapacitate a victim or coerce his victim into having sex. Thus, these types of rape are “less recognizable” in the hookup culture where these behaviors are viewed as normal and alcohol is used as an excuse by both the victim and the perpetrator (Weiss 2013, 84-91).

Many women end up blaming themselves for their victimization (Weiss 2009, 2010, 2013, 129). The women do not view themselves as victims or what was done to them as a crime (Burn 2009; Weiss 2009, 2010). For many forms of sexual assault, women do not think their victimization was a "big deal." For example, only 2% of unwanted touching is reported to the police (Thompson and Cracco 2008). Ultimately, our male-dominated society makes the victim look guilty for what happened by blaming the woman for her “provocative” clothes or actions (Weiss 2010, 2011). Thus, by blaming the victim, the perpetrators and others who agree with this line of thinking can maintain their power over women (Lerner 1980; Weiss 2013, 128).

Negative Outcomes: Why Binge?

Given that binge drinking is dangerous for one's health and that such behavior can increase an individual's likelihood to be a perpetrator or a victim of crime, we are left wondering, why do college students continue to binge drink? Research suggests that demographic factors such as being male or having a family income above $75,000 are predictors of college binge drinking (Substance abuse and mental health services administration 2009). Some psychological research that used self-determination theory suggests that students with lower autonomy are more likely to binge drink (Hove et al. 2010). According to this study if an individual is intrinsically motivated then they are less likely to binge drink, while those whose behavior is based more on rewards and punishments are more likely to binge drink.

While data such as these are useful, they do not explain why college students binge drink. Many studies have utilized the alcohol expectancy theory to address this. This theory postulates that "choices to engage in drinking are influenced by perceived outcomes of drinking and whether these outcomes are viewed as desirable" (Fossos et al. 2007). If an individual believes there will be negative consequences from their drinking, then they are less likely to binge drink. Negative consequences range from simple things like waking up with a hangover to serious things like being a victim of rape or alcohol poisoning. The only way for alcohol expectancy theory to work is for the individual to assess the cons of binge drinking heavier than the pros.

Alcohol expectancy theory works well and is a reliable measure for the general American population. However, it does not necessarily apply to college students, as the majority of college students do not view the consequences of binge drinking as harmful

(Fosses et al. 2007; Palmer et al. 2010). In fact, they report having had more positive than negative experiences when they binge drank. In the college environment binge drinking may lead to sex, which can be a powerful pro for many students. So it is not that college students do not know that they should use protective behavior strategies (such as not accepting drinks from a stranger, drinking water, not driving home drunk, drinking less alcohol in a given night, etc.) but rather that they do not believe that they need to use such strategies to remain safe (Palmer et al. 2010).

Ethnographic data support these results. Many students view the negative consequences of binge drinking as an acceptable risk (Weiss 2013, 67). I found in my interviews that many students actually share their negative experiences as "war stories." They glorify not only the drinking but also the consequences of drinking too much. They also view physical injuries as a way to measure how "wild" the night was and how much they enjoyed the experience (Weiss 2013, 68). Given this information, we cannot look at college students the same way that we do the general population. College students actually view many of the negative experiences associated with overconsumption of alcohol as positive experiences and are unlikely to alter their behaviors unless their perspective changes, which usually happens as they "age out" of college life. This is why the emic perspective from students themselves is so vital to understand how to improve alcohol and violence prevention and why I gathered such data for several years. More information about my ethnographic data will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Summary

In this chapter, I showed that even though alcohol consumption is common in America, it is even more prevalent on college campuses. Over 60% of students drink and

50% of students binge drink. Students do not just drink to experience a buzzed feeling but most drink to get drunk. There may be some biological factors to explain this behavior such as the changes that occur during this stage of adolescent development. Yet it is likely that societal expectations can explain why students binge drink. It is culturally expected that students will abuse alcohol while in college. In addition, a sense of pluralistic ignorance, in which most students assume that their peers are drinking more than they really are, feeds into the perpetuation of college drinking. Another reason for engagement in this behavior is that in the college culture one gains status and prestige from binge drinking and there is a pervasive belief that drinking creates bonds with other partygoers and lifelong memories of the college experience. In addition, academic institutions may benefit from this drinking culture and may play a part in perpetuating these beliefs and behaviors to attract students.

There are many serious consequences related to binge drinking. Students can be hurt by physically injuring themselves while drunk, through alcohol poisoning, and by DUIs. From these, there are over 1,800 student deaths each year. There is also an increase in crime due to binge drinking. Crimes such as vandalism are common and often celebratory. Students rarely think of their celebrations as acts of criminal activity. There is also a correlation between binge drinking and violent crime since alcohol can increase a person's aggression.

Alcohol is also linked to the sexual experiences that students engage in. Sexual violence is directly linked to alcohol and binge drinking due to men using alcohol to incapacitate their victims. There are at least 97,000 sexual assaults on campuses each year and most are never reported. Over 70% of victim/survivors were under the influence

of alcohol, but the perpetrator was almost always drunk as well. In fact, the perpetrator's alcohol consumption is a better predictor of sexual violence than the victim's. While alcohol is used as a weapon and a date rape drug against women, some research also shows that being under the influence increases the likelihood that men will be sexually aggressive. Most students are aware of the dangers associated with binge drinking but this does not seem to curb their behaviors. Many of the consequences are seen as acceptable risks and sometimes even badges of honor that can be used to increase their prestige. Students believe that they are having fun.

Over the course of these first two chapters, I have shown how fraternities are linked to sexual assault and binge drinking. Fraternity houses are often places where binge drinking occurs and underage students have access to alcohol. Fraternity men are more likely to be sexually aggressive and use date rape drugs and alcohol than unaffiliated men. In the next chapter I will examine fraternities and the Greek system in more detail and explore this link between fraternity men and sexual violence perpetration.

Chapter 3: Fraternities

Overview

In the first two chapters I explored the epidemic of sexual assault on the college campus and how binge drinking is related to this behavior. This chapter explores fraternities as many studies have shown that fraternity affiliation is associated with both a higher likelihood of perpetrating sexual assault and with binge drinking. I begin with a brief history of fraternities and explain how the current state of fraternities came to be. I then examine fraternities' relationship to binge drinking and sexual assault and examine why the men behave the ways that they do.

History of Fraternities in America

Fraternities date back to the founding of the United States. The first fraternal organization was Phi Beta Kappa, founded on December 5, 1776 at the College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia. Phi Beta Kappa and the other early fraternities began as *secret literary societies*. Public literary societies also existed on college campuses at this time. These organizations trained students in skills such as debate, oration, essay writing, and discussion of papers and were encouraged by the faculty. The university administrations limited the number of literary societies to two per campus. This resulted in intense competition between the societies with each trying to recruit more members. The founders of Phi Beta Kappa and most of the other fraternities that were founded before the Civil War did not like this system of literary societies. Most were looking for a society that could strengthen their academic skills but could also promote cooperation instead of competition. These secret societies wanted to remain

small in order to foster close friendships and fictive kinship ties of brotherhood between their members. This led to the birth of the *social fraternity*.

Since the universities did not recognize social fraternities many remained secret for quite some time. Like fraternal organizations today, these early groups had rituals, oaths of fidelity, grips (secret handshakes), mottos, badges, backgrounds of high idealism, and strong ties of friendship within the group. Such groups began gaining popularity and additional branches were founded at other colleges, but still remained secret societies.

This all changed during the Civil War when collegiate activity was weakened as young men joined the armies. In fact, in the South collegiate activity was suspended. Membership weakened without the addition of new members and after the war most of the southern branches were not reestablished since the status of the South was uncertain and most of the fraternities were founded in the North. This led to new southern fraternities being founded mostly by men who had had prominent military careers (Baird 1935).

In the early years of Greek Life, membership was open only to upper classmen. In fact, outgoing seniors even founded some of these fraternities on the premise that the bonds would last beyond their undergraduate careers. With the growth of new fraternities, as with the old literary societies, the fraternities wanted more members and began to compete for membership. This eventually led to the inclusion of younger men and the tradition of fraternal rushing in which the fraternities courted freshmen men to join their organizations. The competition between organizations continued and eventually the fraternities agreed among themselves that individuals could only belong to a single

organization. In order to keep alumni interested, local alumni chapters were founded in populated areas.

Each branch of a fraternity located on a college campus became known as the local chapter. Prior to the Civil War, each chapter was self-governed and ran itself with no input from the other chapters. Only the name and common principles of the organizations connected these chapters. Chapters were founded at other campuses without any organized effort or input from the current chapters. With the increase in number of chapters each large fraternal organization (or general fraternity) recognized the need for an organized governmental structure to coordinate the chapters. This resulted in each general fraternity choosing a "grand" or "presiding" chapter to run the administration of the fraternity for a year. To keep the system democratic this "grand" or "presiding" chapter rotated every year amongst each of the chapters within that general fraternity.

The general fraternities also established conventions to which each chapter would send a delegate. At these conventions each delegate would vote and the group would conduct all business (e.g. chapter finances and chapter membership) and address any problems that arose. Between conventions the presiding chapter would handle any urgent business. Eventually this system also became unmanageable and led to the development of governmental bodies and boards of trustees for each general fraternity and its chapters. The board took the place of the presiding chapter but the ultimate power rested within the legislative body of the delegates at conventions. This led to the development of administrative offices with full-time administrative staff to oversee the workings of each general fraternal organization.

Fraternities retain an element of secrecy in the esoteric nature of many of their signs and symbols. The motto, handshake, badge, etc. have significance and meaning behind them, but what is most important is the actual name of the fraternity. Each fraternity's name is made up of two to three Greek letters. These letters actually represent Ancient Greek words that symbolize the meaning and value of a particular fraternity and represent the values to which the members aspire. While each general fraternal organization may hold different values they all basically work to make the individual a better person. Anthropological research on secret societies show that the groups enhance the mysteries surrounding the secrets but the secrets themselves are not important. The goal of these societies is to strengthen the bonds of the members through feelings of being part of something greater than themselves (Little 1949).

There are several different types of Greek organizations. Fraternities have (usually) exclusively male membership while sororities have (usually) exclusively female membership. The most common type of Greek organization is the social fraternity/sorority. The official purpose of the organization is to "promote the development of character, literary, or leadership ability" of the individual for a social purpose (Baird 1935). The social aspect does not indicate that the organization should be social in the sense of partying but that the social aspect revolves around the relationships of its members' growing bonds with one another. Yet the unofficial purpose of individual chapters is to be social in the sense of hosting alcohol parties and developing organizational relationships with sororities. There are also professional fraternities/sororities and honor societies that celebrate academic achievement, especially within a specific major or school. There are also service organizations that focus on

serving the local community and helping those in need. Finally, there are cultural fraternities/sororities that focus on celebrating a particular cultural or ethnic group. While one does not need to be of that cultural heritage, most of the members are. This dissertation focuses only on social fraternities.

Historically, university administrations would not recognize fraternal organizations and could expel students if their affiliation became public. Fraternities were forced to be secret societies whose very existence weakened university administrations. January 12, 1848 became a turning point in fraternal history, which is known as the Snowball Rebellion. The administration of Miami University in Ohio was so anti-fraternity that fraternity men (from multiple organizations) began packing snow on the doors of the most used hall on campus after a large snowstorm. The university was unable to operate without this building. The president of the university threatened to expel the students responsible. Instead of being a deterrent more men packed snow the following day. Even when men were expelled, more men continued to defy the administration. This led to the firing of the president and the hiring of a new president who developed a pro-fraternal culture on campus. Administrations all across the United States began to shift their attitudes about fraternities fearing a similar incident might occur on their campuses.

Originally, fraternities were small and only had a few members. Thus, meetings were held in a brother's dorm room. As numbers increased, the organizations were forced to rent out halls. Over time it became common for organizations to own a lodge or a house, which at first was only used for meetings or social gatherings, but in the 1850s these houses became places where the brothers lived. This had several effects. First, it

kept alumni more involved since they usually owned and cared about the house. In these early years the houses benefited the universities because the schools needed to house fewer students and with the increase in alumni support the universities they were able to get more money from donations. The houses also made it necessary for the groups to have officers, especially a president who would act as the liaison between the local chapter and the university.

During the early years of fraternity houses, the honor and reputation of the fraternity were the most important things to the members and this helped to discipline the men and also fostered pride and brotherhood bonding. Yet the houses also had negative consequences and made the already exclusive fraternities even more so. It also led students to believe that the reputation of the fraternity was based on the current membership rather than the legacy of former students and the current membership became conceited and thought of themselves as superior to other men on campus (Baird 1935). As the houses became more popular so did the fraternities and their membership quickly grew. Since they were not university property this led to a lack of supervision in the houses.

Even before World War II, society questioned the existence of social fraternities. Many viewed them as exclusionary and classist organizations. Even with the strong focus on values and academics, the introduction of the fraternity house introduced a degree of debauchery and vice. While this was not the norm, fraternity houses were more likely to allow such behavior than other places since the university did not own and could not control what happened in the fraternity house. In fact, proverbs such as “All work and no

play make Jack a dull boy" were used to justify the "social" behaviors of fraternity men to relieve the stress of college (Baird 1935).

The Changes in Fraternal Life

The culture of fraternities has changed since 1848. Today the fraternity man is not one who espouses the picture of a gentleman questioning authority. Instead what people think about is: parties, alcohol, and engagement in dangerous practices such as hazing and sexual assault. Some would like to blame the media's portrayal of Greek Life in movies such as 1978's *Animal House* as a reason for this change (Fetters 2014). Yet art reflects what is already happening in society and the sea change had already begun well before the Deltas in *Animal House* drank their way into movie history.

Several historical factors led to changes in fraternities. The first was the changing demographics of the college system. Historically, academia was an extremely elitist institution for privileged white men whose families had land and money. This significantly changed after World War II when the GI Bill was enacted in 1944. The bill gave tuition benefits to those who served the U.S. armed forces and over two million people entered the college system in its first few years (Olsen 1973). The real change occurred in the 1960s when men who had served in Korea and Vietnam, many of whom probably suffered from PTSD, began to enroll at colleges and universities. Many of these men engaged in the same dangerous behaviors that we now associate with fraternity men. In fact, at the University of Connecticut (UConn), the North Campus dormitories were nicknamed The Jungle, after the environment the veterans lived in during the war. The vets that lived in the dorm became notorious for binge drinking and riding motorcycles through the halls (UConn Advance 1988). This type of behavior became celebrated and

other groups of students, especially fraternities, started to engage in and adopt similar behaviors.

The influx of veterans to universities brought cash from federal and state governments. Universities (especially state colleges) had more money to invest in their schools. Thus, they were able to build more dorms, offer more classes, and ultimately take on more students. Since the 1920s, the college population rose, but from 1970-1983 the population increased by 47% (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Studies 2015). Some call this the start of the corporatization of academia where the focus shifted to universities being run as businesses. All of this resulted in the schools taking many more students than ever before. Since their founding, fraternities have questioned the authority of the campus and rebelled against the system. The act of belonging to such a group was a form of rebellion in itself and helped to bond the members of the group together.

As the demographics of colleges changed so did the culture of the institutions on campus. The rebellious history of fraternities remained, but the culture itself changed along with the times. In the 1960s and 1970s, college students began to use and abuse alcohol and drugs and this is still reflected in fraternities today. The fraternity can be thought of as a reflection of the campus culture, amplified due to the ease that it can be branded and that the culture can be recognized through a small group of people.

Another factor contributing to the change in fraternities was the change in the legal drinking age in America. In 1933, prohibition was repealed and each state set its own legal drinking age. By 1976 most states had lowered the drinking age to between 18 and 21years of age. Many freshmen who entered college after that time were able to

engage in the consumption of alcohol. This time period also saw an increase in drunk driving and motor vehicle accidents leading some states to increase the legal drinking age back to 21. In 1984, the federal government set the legal drinking age officially at 21 (The National Minimum Drinking Age Act of 1984).

As Seaman (2005) shows, many students did not agree with or abide by this law. Students who entered college in 1983 could drink alcohol their freshman year but then could not in their sophomore year, and many of them rebelled by drinking anyway, and sometimes used binge drinking as a way to protest. Even those in charge of students such as the Resident Assistants (RAs) did not agree with this law (Seaman 2005). The forced raising of the drinking age provided students an opportunity to rebel without much push back from authorities.

The biggest thing that changed fraternal behavior, however, was the institution of the fraternity houses. As previously stated, most houses are not owned by the college or university; thus, the school cannot police or control the behaviors inside the house. The men can party, drink, and have sex as much as they want and do not feel that they need to be held accountable for their actions. These “bad” behaviors go against the normative values of society and are not what the university and the larger society expect of young adults attending college. Originally, universities were favorable to fraternity houses since they left more space for the university to house more students and make more money. Yet as the drinking age increased in the ’70s and ’80s, the fraternity houses became havens for alcohol consumption. Since the schools could not regulate their behavior, the fraternity men had nearly free range to do what they wanted. Thus, changes in the drinking age laws actually privileged these houses by making them the "speakeasies" of

the post ’70s where underage individuals could drink, creating the predominant fraternal culture that we think of today.

Fraternities Today

Data from the 2013-2014 academic year showed that there were 372,090 active undergraduate fraternity men of whom 98,561 were initiated that year (North American Interfraternity Conference 2015). There were 6,136 fraternity chapters on some 800 campuses in the United States (North American Interfraternity Conference 2015). At least 10% of the one million males who enrolled as first-year students in four-year degree-granting institutions in the United States joined fraternities (Kingree and Thompson 2013; National Center for Education Statistics 2009; Pike 2003; Weitzman, Nelson, and Wechsler 2003). While men may join Greek life for a variety of reasons, ultimately these private organizations promote the social lives of their members (Kingree and Thompson 2013). This may be a benefit to them after college when the men are establishing their careers. The social networks are also valued during the undergraduate years for the party lifestyle (Norris et al. 1996). Men may join such groups so they can easily consume alcohol and have sexual encounters. Female students who are not part of these groups also value these social networks. Sorority women often regard these networks as valuable for potential sexual partners and social affiliations to build group relationships (Norris et al. 1996). Non-affiliated women regard fraternities as places where they can easily obtain alcohol, whether underage or not, and usually drink for free (Norris et al. 1996). At fraternity parties, the fraternity men usually require non-affiliated men to pay a cover charge to get in but let female students in for free in the hope of having sex with them.

Because fraternity men enhance both their own and other students' possibilities to be social and to drink, many students find value in their existence.

Risky Behaviors

Compared to their non-affiliated student peers, fraternity men engage in riskier behaviors more often. Risky behaviors include things such as: physical injuries, physical fights, driving under the influence (DUIs), unprotected sex (Ragsdale et al. 2012), cigarette smoking, sex with multiple partners, and sex under the influence of alcohol or other drugs (Scott-Sheldon et al. 2008). Another risky behavior usually associated with fraternity men is hazing in which the group requires pledges (potential new members attempting to gain access to the group) to engage in certain risky or humiliating behaviors to gain membership. Some of the more extreme acts are the requirement to consume alcohol or other concoctions until the pledges vomit or lose consciousness and submission to physical, sexual, and/or verbal abuse (Sanday 2007). In America each year at least one death is attributed to fraternity hazing (Korry 2005; Ragsdale et al. 2012). It should be noted that the fraternity national organizations outlaw such practices. It is the local chapters that engage in these behaviors as a local requirement for admission into their particular chapter.

With respect to my research, one of the most important risky behaviors I observed was the link between fraternity men and alcohol consumption. Fraternity men not only drink more alcohol than other students (McCabe et al. 2005; Park et al. 2009; Patrick and Lee 2010; Ragsdale et al. 2012; Scott-Sheldon et al. 2011) they also binge drink more often (Scott-Sheldon et al. 2008; Shook et al. 2000) and are more likely to be dependent on alcohol (Grekin and Sher 2006; Patrick and Lee 2010). In fact, in a nationwide survey

of Greek men, 97% of participants used alcohol, 86% were binge drinkers, and 64% were frequent bingers (Caudill et al. 2006; Ragsdale et al. 2012). The data show that there is a clear correlation between membership in Greek Life and dangerous drinking (Borsari et al. 2009; Cashin et al. 1998; Caudill et al., 2006; Larimer et al., 2004, 2011; Lo and Globetti 1995; Park et al. 2008; Patrick and Lee 2010; Ragsdale et al. 2012; Sher et al. 2001; Wechsler et al. 1995, 2002). This is important because, as the first two chapters showed, sexual assault and alcohol consumption are also linked.

Why Do Fraternity Men Binge Drink More?

In order to address fraternity men's binge drinking it is vital to understand the reasons why this group of students binge drinks alcohol more than other students. One reason that may help us understand this phenomenon is that sexual aggression and binge drinking are socially acceptable in fraternities. As Chapter 2 indicated, the American culture expects that students will engage in at least some risky drinking while they are at college. This expectation is even more salient for fraternity men (Ragsdale et al. 2012) and may be related to the ways that Greeks are portrayed in movies and television (such as *Animal House*) where extremely risky binge drinking is glorified. These risky behaviors can become part of the local chapter's culture due to such cultural expectations and how fraternal peers normalize their binge drinking with each other and measure status by how much alcohol one consumes (Borsari et al. 2009; Ragsdale et al. 2012).

As discussed in Chapter 2, substance use is influenced by overestimation of how much people think their peers drink (Javier et al. 2013). This overestimation is even more pronounced in Greek life (Bartholow et al., 2003; Carey et al. 2006; LaBrie et al., 2008; Larimer et al., 1997, 2004, 2011; Lewis et al. 2011). Many times these overestimates are

related to peers through the telling and retelling of stories in which heavy alcohol use was supported and remembered as a positive experience (Park et al. 2009; Patrick and Lee 2010). Under this form of peer pressure, students tend to drink to be more like their peers, who they think drink more than they actually do (Borsari and Carey 2010).

Another reason why binge drinking is highly correlated with fraternity membership is because of bonding. Drinking in college has been found to create bonds between participants (Brenner et al. 2009). This is especially true when participants engage in illegal behavior such as drinking under the age of 21. The creation of bonds between members is a core aspect of Greek Life. The creation of brotherhood bonds between members coupled with this engagement in illegal behavior may help to explain why fraternity men have comparatively higher rates of binge drinking than other students (Durkin, Wolfe, and Clark 2005; Hickson and Roebuck 2009; Mustaine and Tewksbury 2004; Wechsler and Wuethrich 2002).

As previously discussed the existence of the fraternity house itself also contributes to binge drinking. For underage brothers, it is easier to obtain alcohol since older brothers can easily buy alcohol and bring it to the house. Since campuses do not allow underage students to consume or have alcohol in their residences and the national organizations of the sororities prohibit drinking and parties in their houses (Ragsdale et al. 2012), fraternity houses become a haven for the consumption of alcohol. The houses host large house parties where drinking and socializing occur (Gumprecht 2008; Sperber 2000). Research shows that the location of a party matters because it can facilitate heavy drinking and dangerous environments (Kypri et al. 2010). The fraternity house is one such environment and is associated with some of the highest and riskiest binge drinking

(Lewis et al. 2011; Paschall and Saltz 2007). Since most of these houses are off campus they do not have to abide by the housing rules that the university enforces (Ray 2013).

The Role of Hyper-masculinity

One of the biggest issues that all men in America face is understanding and coming to terms with the concept of masculinity. Masculinity is the culturally determined idea of what characteristics, behaviors, and roles members of the male gender are supposed to exhibit. During the formative years of college, young men are still trying to figure out who they are and how to understand this concept. Many young men, especially fraternity men, exhibit hyper-masculinity (behaviors and attitudes that suggest males are stronger, dominant, and more aggressive than females, and perpetuate an essentialist idea of male sexual aggression). This makes them competitive with one another as they try to attain superiority over others (Martin and Hummer 1989). Men who are unsure or insecure in their masculinity may attempt to be hyper-masculine to demonstrate their masculinity to others and to themselves (Kilmartin 2000; Murnen and Kohlman 2007).

Part of the problem is that these ideas of masculinity have become normalized in American culture. The media constantly bombards men with messages about how they should behave and think (Tough Guise).[8] This is not a new phenomenon. David and Brannon (1976) found that American culture promotes four main rules of masculinity:

1. Be a big wheel: A man needs to be successful.
2. Be a sturdy oak: A man needs to be tough, confident, and independent.
3. No sissy stuff: Anything that is stereotypically feminine is bad
4. Give ‘em hell: A man needs to be aggressive and win competitions.

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8 *Tough Guise 2: Violence, Manhood & American Culture.* Directed by Katz, Jackson, Sut Jhally, Jeremy Earp, David Rabinovitz, and Jason T. Young. Northampton, Mass.: A Media Education Foundation, 2013.

Little has changed in the past 40 years regarding how men view themselves and the other men around them (Kimmel 2009). This is especially important for all-male groups like fraternities. All-male peer groups view these ideas of masculinity as desirable and work to maintain such standards, which leads to hyper-masculinity (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Goldfarb and Eberly 2011; Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Schaffer and Nelson 1993). Data show that fraternity men have a greater adherence to these traditional gender roles (Murnen and Kohlman 2007) and more support for anti-female behaviors (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Sanday 1996).

Interestingly, the ways that anthropologists study masculinity cross culturally is similar to David and Brannon's (1976) rules. According to Guttman (1997) the four areas of study are:

1. Anything men think and do.
2. The specific things that men think and do.
3. How men prove their masculinity amongst other men.
4. How the feminine is the opposite of masculinity.

When looking at both lists (David and Brannon 1976 and Guttman 1997) the idea that American men need to be successful and act tough would fall under the traditional study of what men in a culture think and do. It is interesting that both lists specifically use the concepts of male competition and aversion to the feminine to determine masculinity.

Hyper-masculinity can be a problem when it is highly valued (Martin and Hummer 1989). When men feel that their masculinity is in question, they may resort to violence in order to prove how masculine they are (Messerschmitt 2000). Men also use this type of thinking to legitimize violence against women (Murnen and Kohlman 2007). All-male groups like fraternities promote morals, values, beliefs, and attitudes that can

lead to sexual aggression and rape (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Boswell and Spade 1996; Godenzi 2001). This encourages men to be sexually aggressive in order to show their dominance and masculinity (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Goldfarb and Eberly 2011; Murnen and Kohlman 2007). Sexually aggressive men may resort to sexual coercion, and studies show that sexual assault and sexual aggression are directly linked to these ideas of hostile masculinity (Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Voller et al. 2009). In fact, in most studies hyper-masculinity is the strongest predictor of sexual aggression (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Murnen, Wright, and Kaluzny 2003). Fraternities can, thus, create a rape-prone social context (Martin and Hummer 1989) where the men are so focused on proving their masculinity that they view women as bait, servers for their own pleasure, sexual prey, or pawns for their game, and they use this to rationalize their own violent behavior (Martin and Hummer 1989).

One way that men display their masculinity in a fraternity house is through the consumption of pornography. Pornography is "media used or intended to be used to increase sexual arousal" (Carroll et al. 2008, 8). Fraternity men are more likely to display degrading pictures of women and to watch more pornography than students who are not in fraternities (Bleeker and Murnen 2005; Foubert, Brosi, and Bannon 2011). This is significant because men who view mainstream pornography (pornography produced by the official studios in California as compared to amateur or fetish pornography) have a higher likelihood of committing sexual assault and rape (Allen, D'Alessio, and Emmers-Sommer 1999; Foubert, Brosi, and Bannon 2011; Jensen 2007; Malamuth, Addison, and Koss 2000; Vega and Malamuth 2007). Even mainstream pornography displays types of violence against women making men think that such behavior is acceptable (Bridges,

Wosnitzer, Scharrer, Sun, and Liberman 2010; Foubert, Brosi, and Bannon 2011; Malarek 2009).

Fraternity Men and Sexual Assault

The discussion above may help to explain the robust and repeated correlation between being in a fraternity and a higher likelihood of committing sexual violence. Fraternity men are more likely to exhibit sexual aggression than non-affiliated men (Boyle 2015; Kingree and Thompson 2013; Murnen and Kohlman 2007). They are also more likely to commit sexual assault (Bleeker & Murnen 2005; Boeringer 1996, 1999; Bohmer and Parrot 1993; Boswell and Spade 1996; Boyle 2011; Copenhaver and Grauerholz 1991; DeKeseredy 1990; Foubert, Garner, and Thaxter 2006; Franklin et al. 2012; Humphrey and Khan 2000; Kanin 1967; Lackie and de Man 1997; Loh et al. 2005; Koss and Gaines 1993; Martin and Hummer 1989; McMahon 2010, 2011; Mohler-Kuo et al. 2004; Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Sanday 1990, 2007). In fact, fraternity men are three times more likely to commit sexual assault than other college men (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Boeringer 1999; Boyle 2011; Foubert, Newberry, and Tatum 2007; Loh, Gidycz, Lobo, and Luthra 2005). Over half of the gang rapes that occur on college campuses are committed by fraternity men (O'Sullivan 1991). These men are also more likely to believe that women want to be dominated (Boeringer 1999; Foubert and Newbury 2006) and to approve of coercing women to engage in sexual behavior (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013, Boeringer 1999; Foubert et al. 2007; Murnen and Kohlman 2007).

A clear correlation also exists between fraternity affiliation and the objectification of women. Many fraternity men view women as sexual objects and use dehumanizing

language when talking about them (Rhoads 1995; Sanday 2007). Women are often blamed for being promiscuous (Ehrhart and Sandler 1985; Sanday 2007). Many fraternity men have hostile representations of women (Ehrhart and Sandler 1985), especially in all-male living spaces (Bohmer and Parrot 1993; Sanday 1990). These men may condone the sexual exploitation and abuse of women (Franklin et al. 2012) and actually view themselves as passive in sexual assaults and not the aggressors (Sanday 2007).

The fraternity party setting can also promote sexual assault (Armstrong, Hamilton, and Sweeney 2006; Boyle 2015; Gumprecht 2008; Sperber 2000). It is where affiliated men are allowed access to the party (non-affiliated men must pay a fee) and any female can attend for free. There is usually loud music so conversations are not the purpose of the party (Humphrey and Khan 2000). The party is a sexualized event where dancing and physical touching are encouraged. When alcohol is added it may be hard for men to understand the social cues and body language of their guests (Sanday 2007).

The idea of obtaining consent can be very difficult in these fraternity party situations. Many men feel that asking for consent would ruin the moment (Foubert, Garner, and Thaxier 2006). It is also difficult because both people are usually intoxicated. Normally there is ambiguity in both verbal and nonverbal cues (Foubert, Garner, and Thaxier 2006); this is increased when people are intoxicated. Many men who commit sexual assault do not view themselves as rapists (Sanday 2007) and many actually believe that they obtained consent (Foubert, Garner, and Thaxier 2006).

In addition to these facts, fraternity men are more likely than other male students to use date rape drugs (e.g., rohypnol, gamma hydroxybutyric acid [GHB], ketamine) to get women to have sex with them (Boswell & Spade 1996; Menning 2009). While the

use of these date rape drugs is very disturbing, many people do not understand that alcohol is the number one date rape drug. They do not think of alcohol this way because the perpetrator is not placing a substance in a drink, yet they are using the altered state of their victim to make her do something without consenting. Fraternity men are more likely than other men to use alcohol as a weapon to obtain sex (Abbey 2002; Abbey et al. 2003; Boyle 2015; Brecklin and Ullman 2010; Felson and Burchfield 2004; Kingree and Thompson 2013; Koss and Gaines 1993; Martin and Hummer 1989; Muehlenhard and Linton 1987; Ullman, Karabatsos, and Koss 1999).

Research shows that it is not just the men within the fraternity but the fraternity culture itself that causes these problems. Men who join fraternities increase their perceptions of peer approval of forced sex and peer pressure to have sex, as well as increased high-risk drinking and number of sexual partners compared with men who did not join a fraternity (Kingree and Thompson 2013). Fraternities promote specific attitudes about masculinity and gender that support and pressure men to be sexually violent (Boyle 2015; Franklin et al. 2012). In fraternities, men have been shown to demonstrate their masculinity by showing off their sexual prowess and sharing tales of their sexual conquests (Hirschorn 1998; Koss and Gaines 1993; Martin and Hummer 1989).

Self-selection plays a part in perpetuating these beliefs as well because men tend to identify with the characteristics of the fraternity that they join (Boyle 2015; Ehrnhart and Sandler 1985). Many fraternity men learn social scripts for sexual relations from their older fraternity brothers. These sexually aggressive attitudes and behaviors develop over time and many men do not have them prior to their fraternal affiliation (Mumen and Kohlman 2007). In these scripts, they learn not to be compassionate towards women but

to be manipulative in order to get women to have sex with them (Sanday 2007). Even if an individual does not agree with these ideas, in fraternities the group values become more important than the individual's own values. So the individual may engage in behavior that he normally would not in order to belong to the fraternity (ibid). Thus, many fraternity men become part of a culture that normalizes hostile masculinity and sexual promiscuity (Voller et al. 2009).

The men's status within the fraternity can be an extremely strong motivator and many men strongly commit to their hyper-masculine roles (Boyle 2015). These norms actually start during the pledge process before one becomes a full brother. Some chapters instill a sense of pride in the pledges for being a man and promote the idea of adhering to the masculine ideas of the group. Other chapters' pledge processes actually promote bonding through anti-female rituals (Sanday 1990). In these chapters, the pledges have a low status so they bond by having power over the lower status women (Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Sanday 1990). The group norms actually work to reinforce attitudes that promote sexual coercion (Boswell and Spade 1996; Foubert and Newbury 2006). These ideas can start simply as hostile talk that oppresses women. Over time the men become accustomed to it and this can also alter and affect their behaviors (Capaldi et al. 2001; Foubert and Newbury 2006).

The entire purpose of a fraternity is to build bonds between its members. This builds bonds of loyalty amongst the group and the men may become committed to protecting the group over a person who is not part of the group (Boyle 2015; Martin and Hummer 1989). This can be done by protecting a brother, even when he has done something wrong or by showing hostility to those not in the group (such as women). In

fact, these two factors are most prevalent among fraternities that are considered high-risk for sexual assault (Humphrey and Kahn 2000; Murnen and Kohlman 2007).

Summary

In the first chapter, I examined the problem of sexual assault on college campuses across the country. In chapter two, I discussed alcohol's role in the sexual assault epidemic. In this chapter, I examined fraternities and how they perpetuate alcohol abuse, hyper masculinity norms, and sexual assault. In the next chapter I will explore some of the current sexual assault prevention programs that are used on college campuses.

Chapter 4: Sexual Assault Prevention Programs

Overview

Sexual assault on the college campus is not a new phenomenon and many schools have tried to address this epidemic. Sadly, most schools have not addressed this appropriately. Karjane, Fisher, and Cullen (2005) conducted a survey of around 2,500 schools that examined each school's sexual assault response policies. Most of the schools in the study did not have such a policy that was publicly available on their websites and only half of those that did, listed actual specific policy goals. Less than 40% of the schools offered any type of sexual assault training for campus security and around 25% provided safety training for residence hall staff. Less than a third of the schools offered acquaintance rape prevention programs and only a third were fully compliant with the *Clery Act* at the time of the study.

Since 2005 there has been more emphasis placed on sexual assault policies and the need for schools to address the requirements of Title IX and the *Clery Act*. As discussed in Chapter 1, the Title IX coordinator ensures that the school is fully compliant with Title IX and cannot be held liable (Weiss 2015). Their jobs require them to focus on compliance before prevention. Even those who work as victim advocates on campus can be restricted. These professionals usually work for Women's Centers on campus but they are still part of the administration. Both Title IX and Women's Centers are understaffed and underfunded. If a situation occurs on campus the Title IX investigations usually start with these victim advocates. To save face and remain compliant the schools can use the advocate as a scapegoat, stating that it was not the school but the advocate who did not do

enough for the student. Thus, even those who care about student safety need to focus on compliance to keep their jobs so that they can continue to protect students (Weiss 2015).

Current Strategies

Schools have tried a number of different approaches to address the sexual assault epidemic. This portion of the dissertation briefly outlines several of the most popular approaches and explains the limitations of each.

Rape Myth Acceptance

One of the most popular prevention approaches addresses Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA). Rape myths are the "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (Burt 1980; McMahon 2011). Examples of common rape myths include ideas like the following:

> A husband cannot rape his wife.
>
> Women signify that they want sex by the way they dress.
>
> Rape is only when a man physically forces sex on a woman.
>
> Women falsely accuse men of rape as a means of getting back at them.

These falsely held beliefs excuse perpetrators, blame victims, and perpetrate the idea that violent stranger rape is the only "real rape" (Boyle 2015). These rape myths are important because research shows that men who believe more rape myths exhibit hyper-masculinity, are sexually coercive, and are more likely to be perpetrators of sexual violence (Boyle 2015; Farris et al. 2008). Even men who do not commit such crimes are also impacted by RMA. The more rape myths individuals accept, the less likely they are to intervene to stop instances of sexual assault (Hust et al. 2013; McMahon 2010, 2011).

There are a number of ways that rape myths are propagated among college students. First, many students enter college already believing many rape myths. Second, men seem to have greater RMA than females and can spread this among their male friends (Boyle 2015). This is especially prevalent in party environments where individuals' attitudes about drinking seem to correlate with rape and gender myths (Boyle 2015). Another significant place where rape myths are spread is through pornography. Men who view more pornography are significantly more likely to hold rape myths then other men (Bleecker and Murnen 2005; Foubert, Brosi, and Bannon 2011; Murnen and Kohlman 2007).

It is not just men who hold rape myths, many women do as well. Such beliefs make women less likely to view themselves as victims or to classify non-consensual sex as rape. Women are also likely to blame the victim/survivors for wearing provocative outfits, consuming too much alcohol, or putting themselves in dangerous situations that led to their assaults. By doing this, women are able to continue to feel safe on campus (Sanday 2007). If victim/survivors were viewed as victims, then society would be forced to focus on the perpetrators and realize that these men live in the community and that we are more vulnerable than we believe.

Men who live in all male housing tend to have higher RMA (Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Schaeffer and Nelson 1993). There is also a clear link between these myths and sexual aggression (Bannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013; Burt 1980; Boeringer 1999; Murnen and Kohlman 2007). Specifically, fraternity men tend to hold outdated traditional ideas about gender roles (Murnen and Kohlman 2007; Schaeffer and Nelson 1993), male dominance over women (Kalof and Cargill 1991; Murnen and Kohlman

2007), and rape-supportive attitudes (Bannon, Brosi & Foubert 2013; Bleecker & Murnen 2005; Boeringer 1999). Even the language that fraternity men use to objectify and degrade women can create a sexually hostile environment (Boyle 2015; Kilmartin et al. 1999; Loh et al. 2005).

Due to their level of RMA most men never realize that what they are doing is wrong, since they usually think of sexual assault as stranger-rape where women are physically forced into sex. They do not view coercion or using alcohol to get a woman to agree to sex as rape. This is referred to as "working out a yes" (Sanday 1990). The fraternity men know that they need consent for sex not to be considered rape, so getting the women drunk is one way of coercing them into agreeing to sex.

RMA programs use education to combat RMA. The idea behind educational programs is that if men learn the truth about rape, then they will accept fewer rape myths and be less likely to sexually assault and more likely to intervene. Some schools have adopted online workshops that students are required to complete before entering school that are similar to those for alcohol and drug awareness. Students must receive a passing grade on these tests. The problem with such programs is that students usually receive the information only once and it is rarely retained because the programs are frontloaded at the beginning of the school year (Hayes-Smith and Levett 2010). Some programs have students complete the online quizzes during their freshman and junior years (to serve as an introduction to material during the freshman year and as a follow-up during the junior year) but these are also limited because the students do not really buy into them and feel that they are forced upon them (Barnett et al. 2007; Hayes-Smith and Levett 2010).

Research into these types of interventions show that they are not effective (Barnett et al. 2007; Hayes-Smith and Levett 2010).

In addition, the concept of RMA is contentious because while there may be a correlation between the acceptance of rape myths and the perpetration of sexual assault, a causal effect has not been discovered. Just because an individual holds a belief does not mean that person will behave in a way that is consistent with the belief or that the individual does not have other beliefs that impact his/her behavior. Not to say that RMA is not important but rather that it alone cannot account for the sexual violence that we see. In addition, years of enculturation about gender norms cannot simply be broken by the addition of new information alone. Many others believe as I do and have created programs in which RMA is only a portion of a larger intervention program.

Empathy

Empathy is the "set of constructs having to do with the response of one individual to the experiences [and feelings] of another" (Davis 1996, 12). It is widely believed that in American culture men are less empathetic than women (Borden 1988). Part of the traditional male gender role is that the men are emotionally distant from others. This is important as it pertains to sexual assault prevention because perpetrators of sexual assault tend to be extremely low in empathy (Seto and Barbaree 1995). Many of the early intervention programs had a strong focus on creating empathy in participants. The belief was that if men could be more empathetic and relate to victim/survivors then this would change their beliefs and behaviors in the future.

Unfortunately, these programs showed little or no change in empathy among those men who participated in them (Borden1988). In fact, one study had men watch

victim/survivor panels and found that the men actually sexualized the panels and did not empathize with the women (Berg, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald 1999). Even though they have not been effective, the lack of empathy among men, especially fraternity men, continues to be a probable contributing factor to sexual assault on the college campus (Kimmel 2009).

Today, empathy and RMA interventions have been combined into what is commonly known as Men's Programs. The idea of these programs is to take a small group of men, and have intimate conversations about masculinity and about what it means to be a man. These types of interventions weave RMA and empathy into the programs, but for them to be successful they require that men opt into them rather than be forced upon them. These programs typically last several weeks because interventions are more successful when there are multiple doses of the information that are facilitated by males so the participants can better identify with the presenters (DeGue et al. 2014; Foubert and Marriott 1997; McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011; Wantland 2005). The goal of these programs is to help the men learn and grow so they can begin to create changes in their social groups by helping their friends learn what they did.

This kind of program seems to be extremely effective for the individuals who participate in them and many men go through a personal transformation. Yet these programs are rarely effective in creating actual long-lasting cultural change in their peer groups. Sadly, the men who opt in are often those who are least likely to need the intervention (O'Donohue et al. 2003), and they do so largely because they already oppose sexual assault, which is a personal issue for them. Thus, they are already more invested in the program and less likely to commit sexual assault than those not so inclined (Piccigallo

and Miller 2012). The men who truly need this type of information are not likely to voluntarily sign up for it, and even if one of these men were to sign up for such a program, the odds of him attending multiple sessions are extremely low (Loh et al. 2005). Another issue is that even if a young man goes through a transformative change this does not mean that he will be successful in bringing about change in his fraternity. The kind of men who volunteer for these programs do not generally have the cultural capital that earns them the prestige and respect needed to make change. New members are unlikely to question or go against the words of the older members (Kimmel 2009). However, the older men who hold the cultural capital for change usually hold the greatest number of rape myths, drink the most, and have the most sex. It is extremely difficult for the men who would attend such a program to actually make any change due to their lower status.

Some programs have tried to do mini Men's Programs with fraternities in which the entire chapter is involved, however there are also limitations to these programs. First, as stated, one and done interventions do not work (DeGue et al. 2014). Second, the men who hold the biggest rape myths typically do not buy into the workshop and feel that it is forced upon them. They also usually do not identify with the facilitator. Typically, the facilitator is a man but he is unlikely to be a fraternity man. Anecdotal evidence shows that the men often feel that they are being preached to and do not take the interventions seriously (Moffatt 1994).

Bystander Intervention

Bystander intervention (BI) is probably the most common type of intervention in use on campuses today. The idea behind BIs is that sexual assaults can be reduced if the people witnessing such incidents act to stop them because only a small percentage of men

actually commit sexual assault and that they do it multiple times a year (Lisak 2004). In these instances, at least one third of such assaults are at least initiated in front of a bystander who could have stopped it (Sulkowski 2011). If individuals were made more aware of the signs of impending sexual assault they might be more likely to intervene when they see it.

Research suggests that individuals are more likely to act in cases of extreme and overt forms of violence (McMahon 2011; McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011). Such forms of violence are the use of weapons or physically forcing sex upon a person. It is the less extreme forms of violence such as plying someone with alcohol, sexual coercion, verbal harassment, and sexist jokes that are not challenged and tend to be overlooked. Bystander programs look at violence on a continuum in which intervening should be made at all levels and studies suggest that even intervening at the lower levels is effective (McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011).

Bystander interventions work by trying to get people involved through addressing both RMA and empathy (McMahon 2011; McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011). They work by promoting the idea that the members of the campus are part of a community and that the members of that community have a duty to look out for one another. These programs focus on more than just the individual level to address the beliefs and attitudes of peer groups (Banyard and Moynihan 2011). They try to get the entire community to buy into the program and focus especially on all male groups like fraternities where intervention is rare, hyper masculinity is prominent (Sanday 1996), female objectification is rampant (Brannon, Brosi, and Foubert 2013), pornography is regularly used (Foubert,

Brosi, and Bannon 2011), and sexist language and jokes are common in daily discourse (McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011).

One of the more popular BIs is the Green Dot Campaign that uses a public health model in which a map of the community with red dots on it that show all the instances of sexual assault on the campus is used to raise awareness. A green dot will then be placed every time that a bystander steps in to stop an incident. The focus is not just on the individual but also the environment (Mosher 2001). This approach tries to show the community that the bystander intervention is working as the green dots take over the map, making the red ones difficult to find.

There are some major flaws with the BI model. The biggest issue is that it is a "band-aid" solution that only reacts to the problem and does not really prevent sexual assault. The focus is on teaching students that if they "see something, then do something." What actually happens is that while the students may stop the single assault, the possible perpetrator faces no accountability and is left to assault someone else. This is actually similar to the ways that administrators tend to handle perpetrators of sexual assault. If an individual is found guilty of sexual assault that student may be expelled, but he is still free to go to another university where he may assault somebody else.

The other major issue with this intervention is that it lacks self-reflection by those who go through it. It teaches that "if you see something, then you need to do something." Yet it never talks about what it is that you see or what specific scenarios indicate impending sexual assault. What happens if the individual does not recognize that what they and/or their friends do is wrong? Thus, individuals are still only likely to intervene in the more overt cases and extremes forms of violence and otherwise not question what

they and their friends are doing that could likely lead to assault (Vladutiu, Martin, & Macy 2011).

Focus on Fraternities

Many interventions focus on changing individual beliefs in the hope that this will change behavior. Yet these programs are not geared towards fraternities where cultural beliefs about women, rape, and social pressure to drink and to have sex are often strong motivators for fraternity men to behave in ways they probably would not were that they not in that specific environment (Sanday 2007). Only a few sexual assault prevention programs have been designed specifically for fraternities. Programs such as the Fraternity Peer Rape Education Program (FPREP) developed by Deborah Mahlstedt (1998) try to address this issue with fraternity men. Unfortunately, programs like these have not translated into a lower incidence of sexual assault or a lower acceptance of rape myths (Hayes-Smith and Levett 2010).

It is difficult to get fraternity men to talk candidly about these issues in a manner that can produce attitudinal change (Piccigallo and Miller 2012). Many of the current sexual assault programs are useful in teaching men about sexual violence but these programs do not necessarily change the men's attitudes or the ways they view their own behaviors (Anderson and Whiston 2005). To date, few anthropologists have studied this issue and existing interventions (such as Men's Project, Bringing in the Bystander, One in Four, and the Green Dot Campaign) have typically been developed by psychologists, who may be less familiar with the emic perspectives of Greek Life. One promising intervention is Mentors in Violence Prevention (MVP) developed by Jackson Katz. The strength of this program rests on the fact that it was developed specifically for and

administered to athletes, whose social milieu has many aspects in common with fraternity culture and the added pressure and opportunity associated with the celebrity status of campus athletes (Katz 1995). As Katz tailored his intervention to student athletes I tailored my intervention to the perceptions and experiences that fraternity men have in relation to their lived experiences in Greek life.

Values are very important to Greek Life. A fraternity is a values-based organization in which all members are expected to live up to the organization's values. As such, intervention programs should utilize these values and not simply blame the men in the program for rape. Programs that blame men for sexual assault do not work because the men become defensive and do not "believe in" the intervention (Hillenbrand-Gunn et al. 2010). Therefore, the intervention I created focuses on challenging fraternity men's current views of themselves and the tension between those views and the reality of sexual assault on their campus without placing blame on the men. The men never assume that they are wrong or are perpetrators. Instead, the intervention has the men explain the values that their fraternity has (which are supposed to be held by each member) and the values related to being a "gentleman." This leads to a discussion that compares their behaviors and beliefs surrounding sexual coercion to these broader-based fraternal community values to show the men that there is a cognitive dissonance between their actions surrounding sexual predation/coercion and their belief system.

Summary

In this chapter, I described the most popular sexual assault prevention programs currently used on college campuses. While each tries to decrease violence, none of them

has been able to do so significantly. Focusing only on rape myths, empathy, or bystanders is not enough. A holistic approach is needed to bring all of these programs together and take into account the lived experience of fraternity men. This is where an anthropologically informed intervention can be useful. The next chapter describes this new intervention and the research that led to its creation.

Chapter 5: Preliminary Research

Overview

As a fraternity man and someone who is close in age to the undergraduate population, I believed that I could take advantage of my positionality to make tangible changes in the fraternal culture on campus. In order to do this, I first had to understand the current undergraduate lifestyle and how beliefs and attitudes, sex, parties, and alcohol consumption combined to create the dangerous behaviors that are seen on campuses (i.e., binge drinking, accidents, interpersonal violence, sexual assault). I have been researching this topic since 2009 and have conducted several ethnographic observations and interviews about the undergraduate lifestyle. In this chapter, I describe my formative research and explain the process undertaken to create and test the efficacy of a new sexual assault prevention intervention for fraternity men.

An Ethnographic Decision Tree Model of US College Students' Condom Use

IRB Protocol #H10-259, SI Bulled, PI Singer

To gain a better understanding of undergraduate sexual practices I worked on a research team that examined college students' sexual practices and condom usage. For this research, we conducted structured interviews with 155 undergraduate students (See Appendix page 268 for interview questions) and created a model that we hypothesized could accurately predict whether a person would use a condom in a sexual encounter. To test this model, we then created an online survey for undergraduate students to take anonymously; 236 students participated in this second survey. While the model was not successful in predicting behavior, the structured interviews were informative for my research.

Results

The structured interviews gathered information needed to create our condom use model. While the survey was mostly composed of yes/no questions the students found that the questions themselves were too limited and voiced their opinions about this after completing the survey. While this qualitative data was not expected, it proved invaluable. Over 20 (13%) of the interviewees expressed their frustration with the survey, and I talked with them to understand their concerns about question structure and content. The students stated that their perceived level of intoxication was more nuanced than being sober or drunk. While we thought of sober as an absolute state the students stated that there were levels of being sober. This was also found in the types of relationships the students were in. Terms such as *committed* and *casual* did not resonate with the students. From these conversations I was able to gain a better understanding of the sexual practices and behaviors of the undergraduates. This led to my interest in understanding how they conceptualized alcohol use and violence on the college campus for which I conducted a series of semi-structured interviews with individual students on these topics.

Students' Perceptions: Alcohol Use and Violence

Protocol #H11-069, SI Colon, PI Erickson

I undertook this pilot study to obtain a broader understanding of the student culture surrounding alcohol use and its sequelae. While this topic has been widely researched across campuses, the unique culture of alcohol use in each school's student body and its relationship to violence has not been addressed using an ethnographic approach. Therefore, I studied the emic perspective of students to understand how they thought about this topic via semi-structured interviews (see Appendix page 272). I did not

ask students to disclose their actual behaviors concerning alcohol but rather their general understandings and perceptions of issues surrounding alcohol and violence on their college campus. Each interview lasted over an hour and a total of 11 interviews (7 female, 4 male) were conducted.

Results

From this study I learned that the students had two primary concepts about violence on campus. The first was that while students know that violence exists they do not actively think about it. As one student said, "It is not real until it happens to you or someone you know." When students do think of violence they usually think of the most extreme forms (such as weapons or physically hitting another person). Interestingly they did not think of sexual assault as a form of violence until I brought it up in the interview.

The second theme I found was that students believe in a sense of community between them and their fellow undergraduates on campus. This sense of community is so strong that many students feel safe and do not believe that the other members of the community would do them harm. In fact, when violence does occur it is nearly always blamed on outsiders who are not part of the community.

There appeared to be a cognitive dissonance between the violence that was occurring on campus and how the students conceptualized violence. In regards to sexual violence, a student summed this up in the following quote where she is talking about waking up in a stranger's bed: "We [female students] blame ourselves for getting drunk and hooking up with random guys. We are not thinking about sexual assault."

Ethnographic Data Collection

After gaining an understanding of students' sexual practices and their beliefs about alcohol and violence, I observed students' actual behavior in party situations by conducting several waves of ethnographic observations of public behavior over a three-year span (2009-2012). I attended a number of large public gatherings that any person could attend. These large gatherings included Spring Weekend, a three-day celebration that was held towards the end of each academic year. During each night of the weekend around 15,000 individuals congregated in a public space (such as a parking lot on campus) and consumed alcohol openly and drank in excess. Following the death of student in 2010 the university ended this tradition and used a heavy police presence to stop individuals from congregating and partying.

I also attended the celebrations held after UConn teams won national championships in basketball, Homecoming, Halloween, and any other public gatherings where students partied. At these gatherings I walked around and noted students' behaviors. I did not use any type of recording device or write down any identifiable information in my field notes. I also did not conduct any interviews since most of the students were under the influence and could not consent. These participant observation studies allowed me to understand how students behaved in these large gatherings.

Students who knew I was interested in this topic also invited me to several private parties that took place off campus at an apartment or a house where the student lived in. I attended 28 of these parties over the years. At such parties I was a guest of the student who invited me. Out of respect for those at the party I did not record information of any

type and I did not take any field notes. The observations at these parties led me to identify general trends in behavior, protecting the anonymity of those observed.

Results

Through these ethnographic observations I was able to witness students' alcohol consumption, partying behavior, and engagement in violence at these events. Many students consumed alcohol by pre-gaming before the event and by participating in drinking games at the event (see Chapter 2 for specifics on these behaviors). I also found that most students are not aware of how much alcohol they actually consume at these events. When students make mixed drinks (meaning they use liquor not wine or beer) they fill their cups up to a mark on the cup (e.g., red Solo cup). This mark is not equivalent to one shot but is actually 3.3 shots of alcohol. In addition, when students engage in drinking games they rarely keep track of how many beers they drink. These games usually require the participants to drink many small amounts of alcohol. When someone has finished their drink they obtain another one in order to continue playing the game. I also found that when asked how many drinks someone thinks they have consumed in a night the students usually only think about the drinks consumed at the party and not those consumed during pre-gaming.

While drinking alcohol is a main theme at these parties I observed other behaviors students engaged in at these events. I found that these behaviors were extremely gendered. For male students the focus of the party was the drinking games, specifically beer pong. Almost every male wanted to play even those who were not drinking at the party. The participants who were not drinking had their teammate consume the alcohol

for them, which led to the partner drinking for two people. The males would congregate around the beer pong table and create a wait-list to ensure that they had their turn.

For females the focus of the party was the dance floor. At almost all of these parties a living room, basement, or other common area was cleared of furniture and speakers were set up. The women congregated in these places and danced with many individuals. Sometimes they danced with men and other times they danced with the women that they had come to the party with. According to interviews I conducted many men were on the dance floor to "hook up" with a female partner, while most females danced to have fun and were not looking for a hook-up (see Chapter 2 for information about hook-ups).

These observations also allowed me to see some of the kinds of violence that occur at these events. I found that the smaller parties were more intimate and most people in attendance knew each other. These parties seemed safer in that less alcohol was consumed, participants seemed to look out for each other more, and fewer individuals were looking to hook up. The larger house and fraternity parties were more predatory on women. At these events women were allowed into the houses and if the men did not know the hosts they were either not allowed in or forced to pay cash (usually $5-10) as an entrance fee. This appeared to be a tactic to remove a female from any male friends that she may have come to the party with. These larger parties also had many more men and women looking to hook up for the night.

Surprisingly while there were many altercations between participants very little physical violence occurred at these events. These altercations usually occurred at the larger parties that were outdoors or in a house between male guests. The men would get

into arguments about bumping into one another, over a female, over a drinking game, and being disrespected. In nearly every situation right when physical violence was about to occur the friends of the men stepped in and stopped the men from hitting each other. On one night during Spring Weekend I witnessed five physical fights but saw over 40 instances of friends intervening to stop the violence from occurring.

From these observations I concluded that the bonds of community and feeling that one is connected to others can change behavior and reduce violence. When students knew each other they were less likely to harass each other verbally or physically. If a person was about to engage in some type of act that could get them in trouble or put them in danger, the members of their social groups would intervene to keep their friends safe. What was most interesting was that I saw this instance of community play out during an incident where two students who did not know each other were about to engage in physical violence because one threw a half full can of beer and it accidentally hit the other. Right when they were about to physically assault each other the two men realized that they were both members of the same community (UConn) and that they were celebrating the same thing (Spring Weekend). In this instance the men embraced in a hug and introduced their friends to each other. Just realizing that they were part of the same community stopped them from engaging in violence with one another.

Board of Trustees

During the early stages of my ethnographic research I served as the Graduate Student Trustee on the University's Board of Trustees. As a Trustee I had full voting rights and served on a number of committees. The most important of these committees was the Student Life Committee, which examined student life on campus and worked to

make sure that the members of the board were up to date on current trends in student life and to address issues of concern to prevent harm to the student body. During my tenure on the board we specifically examined the Spring Weekend events that occurred on campus in regards to binge drinking and violence. We gathered data and conducted several town hall style meetings in which we interviewed and listened to the different constituents who were affected by Spring Weekend including: students, alumni, police, fire, EMS, local hospitals, residents of the town, the mayor, the infirmary, RAs, faculty, etc.

Results

Our report stated that all constituents with the university were in agreement that the annual Spring Weekend event posed a dangerous threat to the safety of the students and others who attended the event. Even the students agreed with this although they did not want to see the event end because it was an important UConn tradition that showed they took pride in their university. While this may have been true, I also found that many students wanted to keep the event because of the experience. It was a way to engage in a massive event that allowed them to openly consume alcohol in public and while underage. This was because with 15,000 attendees the police only focused their efforts on stopping violence to protect people. The best analogy that I can give for this event is Mardi Gras where people engage in public drinking and behaviors that they would not typically engage in.

Like Mardi Gras, we also found that there were a large number of people who traveled to the event. While most attendees of the event were students there were also thousands of individuals who were not affiliated with the university. Some of these

people did not know anyone on campus and just came for the event. All groups stated that the problems were not caused by students but by these outsiders who were not part of the community. The data provided by the police also supported this in that a majority of those arrested were not affiliated with the university.

While we were not able to place an exact dollar amount on how much money and resources were being used on the three-day event, it was clear that this event was costing the university, neighboring towns, and the state a lot of money. The emergency responders (police, fire, and emergency medical services) on campus were too few to handle the vast number of people. So the state troopers and responders from other towns were sent in. We found that most towns and cities in the state sent at least one unit to the event. In addition, we found that helicopters were flown above the wooded areas on campus and used infrared equipment to find people passed out in the woods.

Our committee offered several suggestions on how to address the dangers of the event to make it safer. Some of these were to hold students accountable for their behaviors and their guests' behaviors. We also recommended that steps should be taken to restrict outsiders from coming onto campus. One of the recommendations was to set up police checkpoints and turn people away who did not have a university affiliation, to close the parking lots, and to enact a guest policy for students. One thing that was clear from the review was that banning the event and stopping it completely was too dangerous to enact. This was actually attempted in 1998; the students rioted and the National Guard had to be called in. All constituents from the students to the State of Connecticut General Attorney stated that canceling the event was not a good idea.

Interestingly, the university actually did end the event completely in 2011 by imposing some of the Board's recommendations. I believe that the university was able to do this because of six factors that occurred during the Spring 2011 academic semester. During Spring Weekend in 2010, a student named Jafar Karzoun was killed. Jafar and a non-student got into a physical altercation and Jafar fell, hit his head on the concrete, and went into a coma from which he never awoke. The university was well aware of the dangers of Spring Weekend and after our committee's report the university was forced to respond. It was no longer able to allow Spring Weekend to go on as it had in the past.

The second factor dealt with the economic recession of 2008. The entire state was in a budget crisis. Other towns could no longer afford to send their emergency personnel to the event. In addition, the university was facing a deficit of millions of dollars and could not use resources on Spring Weekend as it had done in the past. The third factor was the timing of the event. Spring Weekend was always the weekend before the last week of classes during the Spring semester. In 2011, this just happened to fall on Easter weekend when many students leave campus to spend time with family. Even though the university remained open, there were usually very few students on campus during Easter weekend. This proved to be true in 2011 as well and many students left campus leaving fewer people to go to the Spring Weekend events.

The fourth factor was the weather. In years past the weather for Spring Weekend had been conducive to outdoor festivities. But that weekend in April 2011, the weather was extremely cold and rainy. Due to the weather many people did not want to be in a giant open space getting wet and cold.

The fifth factor dealt with a property dispute between the university and a local townsperson. For years the university leased a parking lot called X-lot that had always been the venue for the final night of Spring Weekend. Given that this was “owned” by the university and that UConn is a state school it was considered public property where the public had access. The university was in talks with the owner of the land to purchase X-lot, but there was a dispute about how much the land was worth due to a faulty appraisal. The two sides were unable to come to an agreement at the time and the university did not renew its lease on the land, which made X-lot private property and the owner told police that if anyone was on his land on the Saturday of Spring Weekend they should be arrested for trespassing. This information was related to the student body and may have scared students away.

The sixth and possibly most important factor dealt with the administration of the university. In 2010, President Michael Hogan suddenly resigned. While the university was conducting an active search for a new president an interim president was needed. Phillip E. Austin, who served as president before Michael Hogan, took the position for the single school year until a new president was hired. Since President Austin did not plan to continue in the position he was able to make unpopular decisions and take the students' blame for cancelling Spring Weekend, while still allowing the incoming president to have a positive relationship with the student body.

In addition, many unpopular and controversial rules were put in place during Spring Weekend 2011 which essentially ended the event. The recommendation by the Board to limit access to campus and close parking lots was followed. The university also enacted a guest policy by requiring students to sign up guests in the weeks prior to Spring

Weekend. While this had been done in the past, the rule was not always followed by students but became mandatory with the closing of campus to non-students who were not registered guests. In 2011, Resident Assistants (RAs) actually stood outside the doors to buildings and made each student swipe their card to get into the building. If an individual did not have a card, the RAs checked their ID to see if they were on the approved guest list and if not they were denied entry. This was applied not only to guests of the students who lived in the dorm but also to other students who lived on campus. During any other time, a student could swipe into their dorm and bring their friends in. During this weekend even other students were denied entry if they did not live in that specific building.

The end of Spring Weekend changed the campus culture for that time of year for the better and channeled student energy into final exams and graduation activities. Alternate activities are still held during this time but the old Spring Weekend is gone much to the relief of the university and surrounding community.

Summary

In this chapter, I described the results of the preliminary research I conducted that led to the development and testing of my intervention. By interviewing students about their condom usage I learned a lot about the sexual behaviors on campus and the kinds of relationships students had. I also found that the terms the students use for relationships, drunkenness, and sexual assault were more nuanced and complicated than I had anticipated. From my observations I also discovered that many students were unaware of how much alcohol they actually consumed in a single night, mostly due to pre-gaming

and the drinking games they played at the events. All of this meant that the language to be used in the intervention needed to be very specific so it would not be misinterpreted.

From my semi-structured interviews with students I learned about how the students conceptualized violence on campus. I found that both male and female students did not think much about violence at all until it affected them or someone in their social circle. I also found students did not talk about sexual violence until I brought it up in the conversations. The most important thing I learned was that the feeling of a sense of community and connectedness amongst students on campus made them more likely to trust and protect each other and less likely to be wary about the potential of other students to perpetrate sexual assault or violence. Essentially, the students felt safe among other students in the community, and this became apparent from my years of ethnographic observations of parties where I witnessed the actual behaviors of the students. I saw many acts of violence but even more examples of violence being prevented by peers. I saw first hand the power of community and how this was able to diffuse volatile situations.

From my time spent on the university's Board of Trustees I gathered a more holistic perspective of party and violent behavior. I was able to understand the power structures that exist and the different stakeholders that benefit and lose from the students' behaviors. I learned about the great cost to the university and surrounding communities due to the students' behavior during Spring Weekend and important athletic events and the strategies the administration used to curb students' partying behavior.

From all of this research I gained a better sense of the party scene and the sexual behaviors of students and how these were affected by alcohol use. This was important because it gave me insight into the student culture, but I still needed to understand the

ways that fraternity men fit into this structure in order to create the intervention. The next chapter describes the results of my research with fraternity men, the design of the intervention, and the first trial of the intervention program.

Chapter 6: Methods

Overview

In this chapter, I explain the process my colleagues and I went through while creating a new intervention program to prevent sexual assault among fraternity men. I discuss the results of interviews I conducted with fraternity men and describe how the information from my preliminary research discussed in the preceding chapters and from the interviews with fraternity men informed the design of the intervention, which took a holistic approach with multiple stakeholders. I then describe the piloting of the intervention.

Research Objectives

1. Determine how fraternity men currently view sexual assault and consent and understand why they feel that sexual violence is not a problem in their fraternities. *Projected Outcome*: Describe fraternity men's views about sexual assault and consent.
2. Create a social setting that supports fraternity men in talking openly about sexual violence and promotes a continuation of informal discussion of this topic.

   Projected Outcome: Enlist the president of the fraternity to continue discussions about sexual violence and consent in chapter meetings and events after the completion of the formal intervention.
3. Change the way the fraternity views its relationship to sexual assault on campus.

   Projected Outcome: After participating in the intervention, the fraternity men will be able to: 1) recognize and explain what consent is and when it is given, 2)

explain how their behaviors and attitudes do not currently align with their fraternity's values and their own self-conceptions as gentlemen, and 3) commit to aligning their behaviors with their values by acting like the "gentlemen" they aspire to be.

4. Test the efficacy of the intervention using pre-post tests (immediately post intervention and five months after) of knowledge and attitudes guided by the hypotheses below:

> *Null hypothesis 1*: The intervention will not significantly change the knowledge, skills, and behaviors of the respondents.
>
> *Null hypothesis 2*: If the intervention does significantly change the knowledge, skills, and behaviors of the respondents, these changes will not be sustained over time and the respondents will revert back to their original ways of thinking.

Phase 1. Qualitative Data Collection

Interviews with Fraternity Men: Understanding Greek Life Stereotypes

IRB Protocol #H14-108, SI: Colon, PI: Erickson; Certificate of Confidentiality CC-AA-15-08 Issued by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism

The literature on drinking, violence, and sexual assault on college campuses constantly focuses on fraternity men as perpetrators of such crimes. I decided to focus my research on understanding how fraternity men conceptualized sexual violence. In order to do so I first had to make sure that I understood what life was like for fraternity men. Being a fraternity man myself allowed me some emic understandings of fraternity life, but I had been an undergraduate from 2001 to 2006 and I needed to know whether and how things changed in the intervening decade.

To gain this knowledge I conducted 10 semi-structured interviews with fraternity men to understand their perspective about current fraternity life (see Appendix page 275 for the list of questions). The men I interviewed were from five different fraternities on campus since different fraternities tend to have somewhat distinct "cultures". I created a semi-structured interview where the men could talk about their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors regarding sex, alcohol/drugs, and violence. The semi-structured interviews each lasted roughly an hour and allowed me to gain insight into the current culture of fraternity life on campus. My affiliation as a fraternity man granted me almost instant rapport with the men - they believed me when I told them that I would not judge them and that I truly wanted to understand their perspective.

Results

Since these men belong to all-male organizations I wanted to see what their views on masculinity were. I found that their ideas of masculinity were externally motivated and that the men had to prove themselves to others. The men believed that being a man was about being more powerful than other men. This power could be demonstrated through accumulation of wealth, domination, strength, being in charge, and by drinking the most alcohol and/or having the most sex. The men held essentialist ideas of masculinity in that men were biologically driven to be stronger than women and would naturally compete with each other for mates. They used language such as “be the alpha” and having a “top dog mentality” where they had to be better than the other men around them.

When I asked the men about the difference between being a man and a fraternity man they all responded with the same phase: “being a gentleman.” When asked what

this meant they recited the values of their fraternities without even thinking about what they were saying. In addition to their fraternal values they would say things such as being respectful towards women, treating others with respect, doing good in the world, and holding themselves to a higher standard as part of a team. One man described this higher standard as "doing what is best for the organization rather than yourself".

While the men were from different fraternal organizations they all believed that their fraternity was diverse. Yet this diversity was based on a diversity of interests rather than ethnicity. All of the respondents stated that their fraternities were made up mostly of Caucasian men. One thing that interested me was how the men felt about the stereotypes that society applies to them such as partying too much, trying to have lots of sex, and being exclusive. Interestingly the men did not have problems with these stereotypes because they believed that the stereotypes were somewhat true. Nearly all of the men used the phrase "work hard, play harder" as a badge of honor for a fraternity man. This phrase referred to how the men could do well in their academic pursuits and also engage in copious amounts of binge drinking. Only two of the men talked about the personal growth that they underwent because of their fraternal experience. They stated that being in a fraternity allowed them to be vulnerable with other men and not have to prove their masculinity. The rest of the men talked about how being in a fraternity was a positive thing because it provided them with an active social life and it allowed them to drink more alcohol. One informant explained that the parties have sober monitors who are supposed to make sure that no one drinks too much and to take care of anyone who does. He stated that he liked this because he felt that he could drink more than he

normally would because his brothers would look after him. The men also liked that the parties increased the opportunity for them to engage in sexual encounters.

The men all stated that alcoholic parties were a big part of fraternity life and for some it was the reason they joined. The men engaged in two different types of parties. The first was "day drinks." These were only open to the members of a single fraternity. The focus of these events was not to get too intoxicated but to get together with the brotherhood and enjoy each other's company. The second type of event was the large-scale parties. Alcohol was served in mass quantities at these events. One informant explained, "We probably spent a thousand dollars per party on booze. Like three kegs and probably 20, 15 bottles of Dubra [a brand of Vodka], and that's for jungle juice [a mixture of vodka and Kool-Aid fruit drink] and that's it. So that's a lot". The men also spoke about the use of illicit drugs at these parties such as marijuana, cocaine, and MDMA. While the men admitted that they came to the parties to drink and use drugs, the real focus of the party was hooking-up with young women.

All of the men talked about how their fraternity needed to manage risks at these events and had to limit access to the parties. They feared that if just anyone were allowed entry they would be putting their guests at risk and themselves in legal liability. Interestingly, there was a cognitive dissonance the men held about this because limiting access to the parties was reserved only for other men, meaning that any woman could walk into the parties. Some fraternities denied unaffiliated men access while others forced them to pay admission. While the men talked about keeping their parties safe this rule was put in place to get women into the party so the members could try to engage in sexual encounters with them with less competition from other men.

Finding that the purpose of these large events was to engage in sexual acts with female students, much of our conversations focused on the specifics of the party hook-up. The men explained that alcohol was probably the most important aspect of the hook-up. Most of the men talked about using alcohol as a form of "liquid courage" for themselves so they could approach and talk to the women. Yet one informant blatantly stated, "That's the goal. Play the music really loud, we pump these girls full of alcohol, so we can scoop them up and bring them home and push them out the next morning. That is the goal. That's not my goal, I'm just saying. That's the goal of the fraternity".

When questioned about how the men would engage in these hook-ups I found that they were using pick-up artist (a person who tries to seduce people) techniques. Several men told me about pick-up artist books that they read to learn these techniques including The Game by Neil Strauss (2005) and Models by Mark Manson (2011). Even the men who did not read these books were aware of them and said that they learned techniques from friends and brothers who had read these books. These books use dehumanizing language when referring to potential sexual partners. For example, the first chapter of Strauss' book is called 'Select a Target'. One informant stated that, "Realistically, it's a game. It's a game. It has rules, and it has strategies.... at the end of the day, we are all players. That's where the expression comes from. Don't hate the player, hate the game".

The men stated that in order to engage in a hook-up they had to make moves on their potential sexual partners. I anticipated some of the moves they talked about such as: making eye contact when talking with someone, using a bad or "cheesy" pick up line, making jokes to make the person laugh, bumping into someone to get their

attention, isolating the person from their friends, or engaging in negging (a backhanded compliment used to make fun of a victim and showcase a seducer's power). Interestingly, the men also believed that treating a woman as a human being with common decency was considered a pick-up technique as well. For example, they stated that if you listened (or pretended to listen) to them, were kind to them, got to know them, respected them, made the person feel comfortable, and basically had been a good person then you could probably take them home.

The men all believed that they could easily tell if a woman was interested in them sexually by reading her body language. They believed that there were "sexual undertones" to behaviors such as the women making eye contact, smiling, laughing, playing with their hair, and making any type of physical contact with the men. The biggest indicator for these men was whether or not the woman would dance with them. One informant explained, "Nowadays, a lot of the dancing is grinding. So, that's automatically like, you're pretty much dry humping. If you're doing that, then that most likely leads into the hook-up. If not, then she leaves". In fact, three of the men stated that at some parties, individuals would engage in sexual acts on the dance floor.

I found that the men's conversations about sex were both superficial and graphic at the same time. The men mostly discussed who they had sex with. One fraternity even had a special title (I cannot state what the title was since doing so might expose the identity of the fraternity) for a woman who had sex with at least seven different brothers. The men would graphically talk about their sexual partners' bodies and the other brothers would make fun of the individual or congratulate him. Occasionally the men would offer tips and advice about sexual techniques, but these mostly were about how to

get a woman to have sex with you rather than how to have good sex. This was about all the men would share with each other.

Specifically, the men would only talk about women that they hooked up with but not about their brothers' girlfriends. One man stated that he would not talk about his own girlfriend because, "I care about her and I feel that that's demeaning to her". Another informant stated that it would be inappropriate to talk about another brother's girlfriend because, "It's a respect issue. It's your brother's girlfriend then, I mean, you shouldn't really be talking smack about her in the first place". While the men said that it is about respecting a brother's girlfriend it seems that this respect is not for the woman but rather for their fellow fraternity brothers.

I also found that the men did not talk about safe sexual practices. One informant stated, "It just never gets brought up. We never ask, oh did you use a condom, or something like that". The men felt that they had been lectured about condom usage frequently in high school and that everyone knew the information and did not need to hear it anymore. In four of the five fraternities in the sample, the men believed that only half of the chapter used condoms. Of those that did not use them, some had a long-term relationship with a monogamous partner and others bragged about not using condoms. What was frightening was that one fraternity was institutionally against condom use. Members of this fraternity said things such as "No. We do not believe in safe sex. Yeah we uh, yea we are like all against condoms" and that condoms were "evil". This last informant also stated that the chapter had a phrase that related to this belief: "Raw dog or no dog." The men from the chapter stated that the reason behind this was that condoms took away from their pleasure and they wanted the best sexual experience for

themselves. If the brotherhood found out that a fellow brother used a condom they would actually mock and make fun of him.

All of the men stated that their greatest fear regarding sex was not sexually transmitted infections (STIs) but rather pregnancy. The men stated that they got checked regularly for STIs and they believed that their partners did the same. They also believed that the Greek community is very close and that if anyone contracted an STI then the rest of the community would hear about it. I specifically questioned the brothers from the fraternity that did not use condoms about what they did to prevent pregnancy. These men assumed that all of their sexual partners were on some form of birth control and that condoms were not necessary. To be "safe" though they stated that they used the "pull out method" meaning that the man would pull his penis out of the woman's vagina before he ejaculated. I asked these men what would happen if they were unable to pull out in time and they stated that it was expected that the brother would purchase Plan B (the morning after pill, which helps prevent pregnancy if taken within 72 hours of unprotected sex) for the woman the next morning because it was his fault that he did not pull out. When asked how often this happens one informant stated, "Everyone in my pledge class has at least had to buy it twice". One informant even made reference to this being a gentlemanly act.

In regards to sexual assault and its prevention, I found that while the men took consent seriously they did not truly understand it and rarely talked about it with others. Every chapter is required to hold risk management events that educate and keep the members safe. The men stated that a risk management event about sexual assault prevention was not necessary for their chapter because this topic was already covered in

the new Greek member program. This is a workshop that is put on by the university's Office of Fraternity and Sorority Life and teaches newly initiated members some of the specific responsibilities about being in Greek Life. It seemed that the fraternity men on campus were opposed to having outsiders come to their chapters to give presentations. One informant remembered one time they had a guest speaker come to their weekly chapter meeting and that his brothers disrespected her and did not pay attention. Another informant stated that when he was the president of his chapter he tried to bring a guest speaker to chapter but the rest of his executive board voted his idea down.

It actually is not surprising that the chapters believe these workshops and interventions are unnecessary. All of the men expressed the same sentiment about sexual assault on campus, "it is a problem with fraternities on campus but not with mine." I think that this has to do with the fact that as men, sexual assault is not something that they regularly think about so it is not real to them. As one informant stated, "So, I guess, with anything, until you're involved, it doesn't really matter to you. You know?" The men also expressed the idea that they trusted their brothers and that they could not see themselves as friends and brothers with someone who sexually assaults another person.

I believe this is because the men have a very strict view of sexual assault as one of the worst crimes a person can commit. All of the men were strongly opposed to sexual assault and would say things such as, "It's kind of like an unwritten rule where like you just don't do it. And if you do do it, I can probably find five members in our chapter who would kick the shit out of you" and another man said "Yea. If you do that, then you're just, you are a scumbag. You are a low life. I do not at all condone that behavior. That's absurd. Your parents should have raised you better than that. You

should know. You should have morals and know that that's, that's uncalled for. If you don't then you're just a bad person. Someone's gonna find out. Zero tolerance".

When I asked how they defined sexual assault all of the informants provided the same basic response that it was sex without consent and that if someone was too drunk then they could not give consent. It is clear that the men were confusing sexual assault with rape so I asked them what rape was and they responded that rape was violent and aggressive. For example, informants stated that "He might just be really mad and um try to take his anger out on her" and "Um, I think rape more is, you know, actually holding a girl down and forcefully penetrating". All of the men talked about what they called "date rape" where the woman was too drunk and was unable to give consent. For the men being too drunk meant being passed out, meaning that they still believed that a person who was clearly intoxicated was still able to give consent.

There was also confusion about consent because the men believed that a clear "no" was necessary before something would be considered sexual assault. Many of the men felt that the woman had to continuously say no to the man, "If she says no once back away, fine. If she has to say no twice, then you're sexually assaulting her, or at least harassing" and "Going past the girl's wishes continuously, continuing on that process beyond a reasonable doubt of them saying no I don't want to do this". One man said that pressuring someone into sex was considered sexual assault but even he stated that one would have to pressure someone "too much" for it to be considered sexual assault. The men stated that there could be problems of communication and that a "no" might not always mean no, "Sometimes girls will say no, playfully, sometimes it's hard to decipher whether it's playful or not and you'll kind of pursue that".

I pressed the men about whether a partner who was drunk could give consent. The men realized this but also stated that the legal interpretation of consent and intoxication does not fit within the worldview of the student culture. When asked how you know if your partner gave consent one man responded, “You don’t. You don’t. You’re hammered. And she’s hammered. And as far as girls and guys know in college, that is completely okay. Not according to the rules and regulations of the United States and the university. That is totally not okay”. He went on to express his frustration that only men get accused of sexual assault when both parties are under the influence. “Cuz I don’t believe a girl’s intoxicated, a guy's intoxicated, and you both decide to put yourself in that position. I believe you’re both responsible for your actions. I don’t think a girl ever deserves to be sexually assaulted, so it’s a grey area and it doesn't fit into reality. Well she had a shot, well then apparently you raped her.”

Many of the men also believed that false allegations were common. They believed that women would often regret a sexual encounter and say they were raped. For example, “I mean, it’s very hard to understand girls, and especially in college because there are situations where girls get drunk, have sex, and regret it. And then they say like they were like sexually assaulted or whatever and like it’s kind of like if you get drunk to the point of blackout and you hook up with a guy and you say that they sexually assaulted you, like that’s kinda your fault cuz you drank too much and that’s kind of your own fault. But I’m not saying like if you rape a girl it’s her fault. It’s clearly not”.

While the men were vehemently against sexual assault, it was clear from their stories about hooking up that the men and their fraternity brothers were sexually assaulting women. Nearly all of the sexual encounters involved alcohol and the men’s

sexual partners appeared to be under the influence and legally unable to give consent. In addition, there were times when the men were assuming that consent was given. According to the men consent occurred in the following way, “You make a move, and you see if she does anything about it…. Keep going until she says no". If a woman said no or expressed disinterest (as in pushing your hands off of her) it was common for the male to attempt again. As discussed in Chapter 1, this was similar to the concept of “working out a yes” found in Sanday’s research (2007).

The men clearly viewed the lack of a no as consent. For the few men who did ask for consent, many assumptions were made during these exchanges. The men would ask questions such as “do you want to go home with me?” or “should I get a condom?” The men viewed consent as a simple yes or no question and the moment a woman responded with a yes the men believed that she had consented to all sexual activity for the night.

The men also stated that they and their brothers respected women. Yet I found that the respect and safety was not for the woman but actually for themselves and their brothers. One reason the men might alter their behavior is that they did not want to tarnish the brand and image of their fraternity. “Make sure everyone be respectful to girls. Obviously, you’re, what you do here is a reflection upon all of us, not just yourself”. Another reason why someone might alter their behavior is that it could negatively impact their lives in the future. “Don’t do it. It’ll make you look bad, you’re never gonna get a job. And in the future, that’s what we want. We want to make money".

In the rare instances when a brother would get involved in a possible sexual assault, rarely would he stop his fellow brother from having sex during the party. Instead he would wait until after the assault occurred and "send them to the judicial board…You're scummy, you're weird, and like that'll kind of reinforce the negativity of their behavior".

Ultimately it became apparent that being a gentleman had less to do with how one treats another human being and more to do with protecting the brand and membership of the fraternity. The men said that they would stop a sexual assault from happening if they ever saw it. Yet these assaults were happening in front of them and at times they were the perpetrators. Clearly the men needed to learn more about sexual assault and reflect on it in relation to their own lives.

Phase 2. Intervention Design and Delivery

IRB Protocol #H15-064: Being a Gentleman: Understanding Consent. SI: Colon, PI: Erickson

The research findings discussed above were used to inform the development of the sexual violence prevention intervention that I tested for my dissertation research. I examined many of the current sexual assault prevention programs and researched their effectiveness. There are many promising programs but not all have been tested for their efficacy. Thus, I did not want to create a new intervention based on past theory and research without also testing it to see if it worked (Nation et al. 2003).

One of the biggest flaws of many of the current intervention programs is that they were not designed for specific populations (McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011). I wanted to create an intervention that was designed specifically for and by fraternity men

based on what I knew about fraternity culture. Thus, I enlisted the help of a colleague and fraternity brother, Matthew Barry, who is a licensed mental health counselor at a nearby university to assist in the design and implementation of the intervention. He currently works with undergraduate students, including fraternity men, on sexual assault prevention and runs similar workshops at his university. He is well versed in the existing sexual assault intervention programs. After studying the current interventions, we found that Jackson Katz's Mentors in Violent Prevention (MVP) program was the most promising for us to model our intervention after because it was designed for and by athletes, another at-risk group of men targeted in the literature on sexual assault. We adapted the existing intervention from the MVP program using our own emic understandings of fraternity life and the information gathered from my previous studies to modify the intervention.

We decided that this intervention needed to be appropriately timed (Nation et al. 2013). Seeing that fraternity chapters are in the news every week in association with sexual assault perpetration, we used this discomforting fact as a way get those in Greek Life to buy into the intervention. We wanted to create an intervention that treated the men as human beings and meet them where they were in their thinking about the topic (Rappaport and Posey 1991). We began from the idea that fraternity men were not "bad people" and ultimately did not want to do harm to others, a theme that emerged from my interviews. We also wanted to promote the positive relationships that exist, especially for the men in their all-male groups (Nation et al. 2003), while at the same time changing some of their beliefs about sexual assault and women. Unlike bystander interventions that teach men to do something when they see someone victimizing another person, we wanted the men to question their own beliefs and behaviors and to see that they may

actually be perpetrating sexual assault themselves and also that the fraternity lifestyle may be perpetuating the culture of sexual assault on campus in behaviors surrounding alcohol, parties, and sexual conquests. The intervention needed to reflect the current culture of the participants so that it would fit in with the men's worldview (Nation et al. 2003).

We spent months developing the intervention, collaborating with many different groups on campus to get a broader perspective (Payne 2008). We worked with the Women's Center, Violence Against Women Prevention Program, The Office of Fraternity and Sorority Life, and my colleague's team of mental health counselors at his university. From these conversations we designed the intervention to be comprehensive and to talk about more than just sexual assault (Nation et al. 2003). In our survey of other interventions, we discovered that alcohol use is not routinely a part of most interventions (Krebs et al. 2007; Lippy and DeGue 2014). Thus, we made the consumption of alcohol a component of the intervention because of its importance in the normalized predatory environment of fraternity parties. We also made issues of sexual consent a core focus of our intervention since I had learned from my interviews that most men truly believed that they had obtained consent from their partners, while their conversations about their sexual relations showed otherwise.

The goal of the intervention was to normalize the conversation about sexual consent because among themselves, men (especially fraternity men) rarely have conversations about consent, masculinity, and sexual assault (Anderson and Danis 2007). We felt that in order to normalize talking actively about consent, we needed to change the subculture of the fraternity in which the men live, including the accepted values, norms,

rituals, and rewards of their party lifestyle (Weiss 2013, 145). We focused on the personality characteristics, situational factors, and socialization that occur in fraternity life that can lead to sexual assault and sexual coercion (Rappaport and Posey 1991). In order to make a lasting cultural change, we would help start the conversation on these topics, but we needed the men to continue these conversations long after the intervention ended.

The dilemma that we faced was that most current programs required that the men opt into them but that the only men who opted in already believed that sexual assault was an issue and were committed to the cause of eliminating it (O'Donohue et al. 2003). The men who needed the intervention the most would likely not attend. In addition, interventions like these need to be administered in multiple doses because one-and-done interventions are not effective because the participants do not retain the information after a single workshop (DeGue et al. 2014; Foubert and Marriott 1997; McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick 2011; Nation et al. 2003; Wantland 2005). To field what we hoped would be a successful intervention we needed to employ a new approach to these types of interventions. First, we would have one entire fraternity chapter participate in the intervention together as one large group. This would eliminate the need for the men to self select by opting in or out of the program. Fortunately, this format fit into the already existing requirements of the fraternities on campus since the Office of Fraternity and Sorority Life (OFSL) requires chapters to hold several mandatory chapter-focused risk management seminars or programs each semester. Topics generally include things like alcohol abuse, hazing, sexual assault prevention, etc. It is up to each fraternity to implement their own programming but to remain in good standing they must complete

the seminar or program and at least 80% of the fraternity must attend. OFSL approved our intervention to count towards this requirement. Thus, I was able to offer a free program to a chapter and all they would have to do is show up.

The second problem was that the men needed multiple doses of the information for retention of the material. Getting them, especially those who were possible perpetrators, to agree to go to more than one group intervention session would be extremely difficult and unlikely. Instead of making the men go to more programming I decided that the best way to approach the multiple dose problem was to make the programming part of their regular chapter conversations. Since the men have to meet for their weekly chapter meetings, I wanted to get them to talk about these issues during the chapter meetings to serve as additional doses of the intervention without burdening them with additional programming.

The ideal way to get the programming into the chapter meeting would be to have the student leadership of the chapter agree to take this on, which led us to decide to try a new approach. Instead of creating and delivering the intervention to a chapter we decided that we wanted to make the fraternity president a co-facilitator with us. This required finding a president who not only agreed to do the extra work but who also had progressive ideas about sexual assault prevention. It should be noted that this could be a limitation of our intervention because not every chapter's leadership can be expected to have the requisite values to implement it. Happily, we found one that did.

The intervention was conducted with one fraternity on campus. The target fraternity, Tau Gamma Rho (TGR), was selected from the ten largest social fraternities on campus, which are composed mostly of white men. The intervention targets these

chapters rather than the cultural fraternities because binge drinking and sexual assault are less likely to occur in the cultural fraternities (Black, Belknap, and Ginsburg 2005). The men completed the pretest survey one week before the intervention began. The intervention was comprised of two parts. The first was a two-hour workshop that was facilitated by my colleague who is a mental health counselor, the president of TGR fraternity, and myself. The second part consisted of two discussion-based conversations that were facilitated by the chapter president during the weekly chapter meetings following the workshop.

Since the president of the fraternity is voted into office by his brothers, having him as a co-facilitator helped establish rapport and allowed the fraternity men to engage and collaborate with the program since their elected leader was part of the facilitating team. This helped to put the men at ease and make them feel that we were not outsiders speaking down to them about issues of alcohol, consent, and sexual assault. By having the president of the chapter on board we created a grassroots program that was peer-delivered and delivered in part by an older, respected member to younger members (Anderson and Danis 2007; Fachini et al. 2012; Weiss 2013, 145). The OFSL recommended several presidents whom they thought would be good candidates to do the program. I emailed the recommended presidents of these organizations and after meeting with each one chose the fraternity chapter we would collaborate with on the intervention. After we selected TGR we worked with the president, Ben (not his real name), in the creation of the content of the intervention. Ben wanted to focus the intervention on consent since he felt this was what the group needed to talk about most. He was also interested in the other subjects but wanted to save those for future discussion topics. Prior

to the intervention I trained Ben in presentation skills so that he could take the role of lead facilitator in order to create a grassroots feel to the intervention and to increase buy-in from the brothers. Matt and I assisted him in the presentation of intervention materials and all three of us delivered the intervention together.

Ben delivered the repeat doses of the intervention by himself during the weekly chapter meetings. Prior to each chapter meeting Ben and I met and prepared for these repeat doses of the intervention. The topics of these sessions were varied, and Ben could choose from several possible topics we agreed on for discussions (e.g., masculinity, consent, alcohol intoxication, how to intervene, and living your values). The format was a 10-15 minute discussion with other activities in which the men could participate. At the chapter meetings, Ben presented the topics that he felt needed to be discussed at that time based on his assessment of the men's interests and needs.

By implementing the intervention with the active participation of the president of the fraternity we were able to deliver the program to the entire chapter of some 60 men at once rather than to just those who opted into it. We were also able to provide the men with repeat doses of the program over the following weeks without them feeling overburdened by having to take time to attend additional programming. We were also able to make discussions of unhealthy masculinity, sexual assault, and its prevention part of the conversations that the men had on their own at weekly chapter meetings without the researchers present.

The Workshop

The workshop program lasted two hours and 60 of the men in the chapter attended. Due to time constraints we had to remove certain parts of the proposed

workshop. The full outline of the workshop can be found in the Appendix on page 278. The following is a description of the parts of the workshop that were actually delivered to the men.

Ben, the president of the chapter, reserved a classroom on campus for us to conduct the workshop. As an incentive for participation, pizza and soda were available in the back of the room and as the men came in we told them to help themselves to the food. Since the men were used to Ben leading their events, he led the opening of the workshop. He explained that the purpose of the workshop was to "have an open and honest conversation about consent and sexual assault." Ben introduced Matt and me by explaining that we were fraternity men and consultants who work on sexual assault prevention and education. Matt and I briefly introduced ourselves to the men and made it clear to them that we were pro-Greek Life and that everything said during the workshop would remain confidential.

A necessary component of these programs is to set up the expectations and ground rules for the participants. Matt led this part of the workshop by asking the men what their expectations of the day were and then adding in some of our expectations. This list of expectations was written on the board and the men verbally agreed to abide by these rules:

1. Everything will remain confidential.
2. We will all respect each other.
3. Everyone will actively listen to each other.
4. Matt, Ben, and I will answer questions to the best of our ability.
5. There will be no recording of the workshop.
6. Everyone will participate at a level that they are comfortable with.

Since I was familiar with the literature on the subject, I ran the next part about why we were having this workshop. I presented the men with many of the statistics I

discussed in Chapter 1. As a group we talked about how often we see stories about sexual assault in the media and how it is usually associated with fraternities. The men then expressed their frustration about being labeled perpetrators of sexual assault just because they are in a fraternity.

The interviews showed that those respondents were unaware of the differences between sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape. Matt led this part of the program where he went over the legal definitions of these terms. The following definitions were used:

> *Sexual harassment*: any unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical harassment of a sexual nature.
>
> *Sexual assault*: any type of sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the other person. To give consent the person must be of legal age and in a mentally competent state of mind.
>
> *Rape*: a type of sexual assault that involves sexual penetration without a person's consent. Penetration can be vaginal, anal, oral, or any other type of orifice.

One thing that I learned from the interviews was that there was a cognitive dissonance between the ways that the fraternity men truly thought of themselves as gentleman and the ways that they actually treated women. So for the next section of the program, Ben led a discussion on the fraternal values shared by the men. As expected this led to the phrase "being a gentleman." Ben then had the men discuss ways that they demonstrate gentlemanly behavior and ways that their behavior is may be unbecoming of a gentleman. This then led to a short discussion about why there was a contradiction between the values the men held and the actions that they took.

Before we led the men to question their own behaviors we wanted to empower them, so we included a short bystander intervention program in the workshop. I started

this section by presenting some of the facts and figures about how often sexual assaults could have been stopped if someone had intervened. Working off of the idea of being a gentleman, Matt introduced the idea of "being a stand-up guy." He explained that as gentleman we should take a stand and do something whenever we see something going on that is not in line with our values. Ben then facilitated a discussion based on the following vignette:

> You are at a party. You see a guy trying to get an obviously drunk woman to go home with him. She's not just buzzed; she's stumbling over her own feet. You know the woman and she seems reluctant. What should you do?

Ben had the men first write down a list of options that they could use in the situation and then choose which they thought was the best option. He then had the men pair up and discuss their responses with their partners. Matt and Ben then facilitated the discussion as a chapter so the men could discuss as a group what the best option was. As expected, the group decided to intervene and be an active bystander. Most interventions that are currently used provide more vignettes and continue to reinforce this idea of being an active bystander. The next section was the point of departure for our intervention.

I took the lead on the next section of the workshop in which we wanted to reframe the idea of "the typical rapist" to the men. I started by having them discuss their feelings about men who commit rape. They responded with the same responses as the men I had interviewed saying that rapists were horrible people and that they would kick someone like this out of their chapter. I then explained to the men that very few rapists use physical force or date rape drugs like roofies on their victims. I explained that alcohol is actually the most used date rape drug and that most rapes occur because the victims were not able to consent because they were under the influence of alcohol. I also explained that

most of these perpetrators do not view themselves as rapists and would be considered "good guys" in their social circles.

We wanted this new idea about alcohol being a date rape drug to sink in for the men so we devoted the next section to the concept of consent. All three facilitators participated in this. Ben and Matt started by defining consent and discussing what was and was not consent. The definition that they used for consent was: unambiguously communicated indication that all parties want what is going to happen to happen. They explained that an affirmative consent is needed, meaning that the lack of a no is not consent. They also explained that it must be clearly communicated and continuous throughout the sexual encounter.

I then provided a scenario to the men in which the male makes a move and sees if the woman does anything about it. If she does not, then the man moves further. As a group we discussed how common this scenario was and that consent was not given in this scenario. Matt and I each presented analogies to the men to reinforce the fact that this is not consent. I then presented a second scenario where the man believes he received consent through the woman's body language. The men came up with a list of these perceived signals. I explained how the psychological literature shows that men constantly misperceive sexual intent in women and that they see signals that are not there. I further explained that when the man is under the influence of alcohol himself it is even harder for him to read another person's body language and signals.

Matt then discussed with the men how "clear" signals do not actually mean that the individual consented. Matt further explained that consent is a continuum and that each part of a sexual encounter needs consent. A yes to one thing is not a yes to all things. He

also explained that consent needed to be maintained for the entire duration of the sexual encounter and that a person can change their mind at any time. He stressed that if the men were in a situation where they were not sure if their partner consented then they should ask.

The next part of the program was probably the most important because it was about what consent looks like in the real world. From all of the research I conducted I found that everyone knows that they must get consent but very few actually know what this looks like in the bedroom. In fact, TV shows and movies almost never demonstrate positive consent scenarios and skip to the sexual scene. So we needed the men to actually see what is and what is not consent. I started by stating obvious examples such as a person being unconscious or holding someone down. I then showed some very short clips from a YouTube personality named Laci Green who gives examples of how one should not ask for consent and how one could see signs and read body language that shows the partner is not into the sexual encounter. The men agreed with this information but were unsure of what actual consent would look like in the bedroom.

I then played two video clips that showed unrealistic expectations of consent. The first was a humorous sketch and the second was an actual public service announcement (PSA). The men laughed at how the PSA demonstrated a completely unrealistic sexual encounter. I showed the men two more clippings of Laci Green's YouTube episode[9] of how one can actually ask for consent and the body language one can read to ensure that the partner is enjoying the sexual encounter. I then played a short clip from the film

9. Laci Green. Online video clip. Youtube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=x_CpIbhkZco.

Friends with Benefits (2011)[10] where proper consent techniques were used even though it was used comically. As a group we dissected the clip and went over all of the proper techniques that the characters used.

Matt led the next part of the program in which we wanted the men to actually practice and role play proper consent techniques. The idea was that Matt and a volunteer would act out the dialogue that one might find in a sexual encounter. As a group, the chapter would critique the encounter and talk about when consent was and was not given. We then planned to have the men partner up and act out scenarios in which they would try to get consent from each other. We then planned to debrief the men and talk about what happened during the scenarios.

In reality, this part of the program was unsuccessful. While we had several more sections of the program planned we were beginning to run out of time so the men may have been starting to feel that the program was going on for too long. In addition, the men could not get over the fact that they were role playing a sexual encounter with another man. While we told the men that this might be awkward and uncomfortable it proved to be too much so and the men were not able to take the scenarios seriously. We feel that this is an important component of the intervention because it provides an opportunity for the men to practice the ways to obtain consent, but this section of the intervention would need major revision in the future.

The next part of the program dealt with what I called problematic sexual encounters. In this section I wanted to show the men how some of their behaviors are not

10. Friends with Benefits. Dir. Will Gluck. Perf. Justin Timberlake, Mila Kunis. Sony 2011. Film

only predatory but go against everything that we were talking about in the previous sections. I introduced the three types of problematic sexual encounters that I came up with:

1. Targeting sexual partners
2. Persuading, pressuring, or lying to a partner
3. When one or both partners is too drunk to give consent

We had originally planned to present the men with a variety of scenarios where they could discuss these ideas and show how consent was not given and how sexual assault was actually happening. Unfortunately, we were nearly out of time and had to skip this entire part of the program. Instead, we asked the group if they ever saw these types of encounters and everyone agreed that they had. We explained that the men were not bad people if anyone committed any of these acts or did not intervene to stop the sexual assault from happening. Instead we told men that they did not realize that these behaviors were wrong because our culture does not teach the men this. We also shared examples from our time as undergrads where we should have intervened but did not. We wanted the men to see that they too, could have made mistakes but that they have the opportunity to change their behavior. We explained to the men that they may not have been at fault for their past actions/inactions but now that they had this knowledge they would be at fault from here on out. We closed this portion of the intervention with Matt, as a mental health counselor, talking to the men about any of the feelings and emotions they might have been experiencing in response to what they had learned today. We offered the men information on counseling resources through the university in case they needed them.

Ben then led the closing of the program. He returned to the values of the fraternity and explained that if the men wanted to call themselves gentleman then they needed to make sure that their actions aligned with their values. Ben then finished with a chapter goal setting session. The men came up with a series of possible goals that the chapter could address in the future. The men agreed that they would think about updating their risk management policy and pledge education program to address the topics covered in the program. The men also agreed to devote a portion of each of their chapter meetings to further talk about the topics brought up in the program. Matt, Ben, and I thanked the men for their participation. I then asked the men to take the second research survey, the pretest having been completed at a chapter meeting one week before the intervention.

The Chapter President's Discussions During Chapter Meetings

As was planned, I was not present for these discussions. The chapter president, Ben, led two discussions during the fraternity's chapter meetings before the semester ended. Ben and I met before each discussion and briefly went over what topic would be discussed and how Ben could best lead the discussion. The first discussion was a continuation of the fraternity's discussion of values. Ben wanted the members to take each of their values and show ways that the membership was not living that value in relation to the subject matter from the program. He then wanted the men to come up with strategies for how the chapter could address this and prevent it in the future. Ben reported that the discussion lasted 15 minutes. He said that the discussion went well but that the strategies were more individually based than organizationally based so it would be hard to measure their effectiveness.

The second session that Ben ran was on masculinity, a topic chosen by him. While this was only a tangential part of the original program he felt that much of the problematic sexual encounter behaviors were a result of the men trying to prove their masculinity to others through sexual conquests. Ben and I talked about the idea of healthy masculinity and I directed him to the documentary *Tough Guise* by Jackson Katz (1999) for specific ideas. Ben reported that this conversation went extremely well. He had only planned for a 10-minute discussion but the men wanted to continue the discussion and he said it lasted well over 20 minutes.

Phase 3. Evaluation and the Efficacy of the Intervention

The evaluation used a pre-post and test-retest questionnaire design to assess change in knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors as a result of the intervention over time (see Appendix page 287). The men completed the same questionnaire a total of three times: a pre-test that the men completed one week prior to the intervention, a post-test immediately following the intervention, and a follow-up post-test at the beginning of the following semester. This measured the immediate effectiveness of the intervention in changing knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors (KAB) about sexual violence and whether the men retained the information several months after the intervention was completed.

The questionnaire included two instruments that measure knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors (KAB) regarding consent. The instruments included the *Consent to Sex Scale* (Jozkowski and Peterson 2014) and the *Sexual Consent Scale-Revised* (Humphreys and Brousseau 2010). Both of these instruments are validated, evidence-based questionnaires that have been used with college students. At each of the three time points, the participants answered the questions in person using paper and pen format. The

instruments specifically examined the behaviors, beliefs, and attitudes the men had regarding sexual consent. Statistical analysis of the results across the three time periods measured whether KAB changed after the intervention and the longevity of the changes immediately post intervention and roughly five months later during the following semester.

Summary

In this chapter, I explained the process of designing and implementing the intervention. I started by interviewing the fraternity men to get a better idea of what Greek Life is like for the men. I found that they had very rigid and outdated ideas of masculinity. The men truly believed that they were gentlemen but also held a cognitive dissonance. They did not realize how their own and their brothers' behaviors were sexually violent. The men engaged in the pickup artist culture and specifically used parties and alcohol to have sex with women. I also found that there was confusion about the concept of consent.

In designing the intervention program, I took a multi-disciplinary approach and worked alongside a licensed mental health counselor who runs prevention workshops on his campus. I also consulted with various programs and administrators on campus to best incorporate their knowledge into the intervention. I then explained how I chose a fraternity to participate in the intervention and how I trained the president to help facilitate the workshop.

Finally, I detailed the specifics of the intervention and what occurred during the workshop. I found that I had gained rapport with the men and they were very receptive to the information in the program. Most of the intervention components appeared to work

well except for the section where the men were asked to practice consent through role-playing with their fellow brothers. This was ineffective due to the awkward nature of this type of role-play, thus this section requires further revision in the future.

The next chapter will explain the evaluation process for the intervention and discuss its efficacy, particularly which components of the intervention worked well and which did not.

Chapter 7: Results and Discussion

Overview

In this chapter I examine the efficacy of the intervention. I describe the survey instrument used and how the responses were organized for data analysis. I show correlations between demographic variables and responses. Finally, I examine each of the items on the survey and discuss whether the intervention was successful in changing the men's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors about sexual assault and consent.

The Survey Instrument

The 61-item survey began with eight open-ended demographic items: age, gender, sexual orientation, relationship status and duration, semester standing, ethnicity, and year of initiation into the fraternity. Following this were five open-ended questions that I contributed that focused on the men's knowledge about consent. The open-ended format was chosen so as not to limit the participants in their responses. The other three questions I contributed focused on the men's sexual behaviors and were scattered throughout the survey. The rest of the survey consisted of 45 items from a slightly modified version of the Sexual Consent Scale-Revised (Humphreys and Brousseau 2010) that were presented as a series of statements that rated agreement on each item on a seven point Likert-scale (a copy of the survey can be found in the Appendix on page 287).

For evaluation of the intervention, the men completed the survey three times. The Pre-Test (baseline data) occurred one week before the men's participation in the intervention (late in the spring 2015 semester), the first post-test (Post-Test 1) occurred immediately after the intervention session, and second post-test (Post-Test 2) occurred five months later after the men returned in the fall from summer break. A total of 59

respondents completed the intervention and Pre-Test and Post-Test 1, but only 33 men completed Post-Test 2. This is due to the fact that 26 of these men had either graduated or did not return to campus for other reasons. In order to evaluate the intervention adequately over time, the analysis used only the 33 respondents who completed all three surveys.

Data Analysis

The aim of the study was to measure the effect of the intervention on changing knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors surrounding issues of sexual consent. The analysis examined whether exposure to the intervention significantly changed the men's responses and whether the changes produced were maintained over time. SPSS, a statistical software program, was used for data analysis.

All respondents completed the surveys using paper and pen. The respondents completed the Pre-Test (Baseline) one week before participation in the intervention, Post-Test 1 immediately after completing the intervention, and Post-Test 2 five months later. Some of the response items that used Likert response scales had reverse order of scaling in the original items to limit response fatigue. These were reversed for analyses so that all the responses were in the same direction with 1 being the theoretically preferred response and 7 the least preferred. The data were analyzed in this fashion but the graphs and charts are presented are in the original response format. Missing data were replaced with the modal answer for each question

59 respondents completed the Pre-Test and Post-Test 1 but only 33 completed Post-Test 2. The 26 respondents who did not complete all three surveys were removed from the analysis (these were largely men who graduated or left the university for other

reasons). The results presented here are for the 33 respondents who completed all three surveys. Qualtrics was for the descriptive analysis and cross tabulations

The demographic characteristics were analyzed to see if there was any correlation between a certain characteristic and the way a person responded. A Pearson's Correlation was run on each of the demographic characteristics against each of the survey items. This test was run on all three sets of data (Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, and Post-Test 2). The test used a significance level that was less than 0.05 (see Tables 7.6, 7.10, and 7.14). A cross tabulation was created for any correlated pair (demographic variable and survey item) that indicated significance. These tabulations can be found in the Appendix on page 298. Each cross tabulation was used to construct charts of each correlated pair that is discussed below.

I contributed five open-ended questions to the survey in order to elicit how the men conceptualized consent. These questions were influenced by the interviews I had with fraternity men. In those interviews the men would give almost rehearsed responses to structured survey questions but when I allowed them to talk it was clear that their behaviors and thoughts differed from their survey responses. I wanted to ensure that this survey had a similar format. Since the questions were open-ended I sorted the responses into groups based on the themes from the data (see Tables 7.1 to 7.6)

To better understand whether there were pre-post test changes for each of these open-ended questions questions, the responses for each question were dichotomized as described below according to the standard preferred answers about guiding interventions to increase men's understanding of consent. The responses were coded as 1 (preferred response: indicating that they correctly understood/received consent) or 2 (incorrect

response: indicating that they did not understand/received consent). Since this dichotomous data are nominal and non-parametric, chi-square tests were run on the three different data points -- Pre-Test to Post-Test 1, Post-Test 1 to Post-Test 2, and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2 -- for each of the five questions using the McNemar test of symmetry. If the result of the McNemar test was lower than 0.05 the test showed a significant change in response. Of these five questions, a significant change was found for Questions 1, 2, and 3, which are described below after discussion of the results of the descriptive data. These dichotomized variables were used in the Pearson's rho correlations with demographic characteristics. Tables 7.1 to 7.5 show the men's responses for the five open-ended questions across the three surveys. The items in bold show the dichotomized variables for each question that were used in the data analysis. The set of responses immediately before each dichotomized variable are the responses that were sorted into that variable.

Table 7.1. Item 1: Themes and Dichotomized Responses (N=33)

	Response:	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
Question 1: How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Completely understands	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (6%)
	Focus on verbal affirmation	11 (33%)	22 (67%)	15 (45%)
	Verbal agreement to have sex and they are sober	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	4 (12%)
	Verbal included in definition	**15 (45%)**	**25 (76%)**	**21 (64%)**
	Focus on agreement from both partners	8 (24%)	6 (18%)	7 (21%)
	Both parties agree and are not under the influence	3 (9%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Yes to sex but no mention of communicating this to partner	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Focus on being sober	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Approval to have sex (not mentions how this is communicated)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	3 (9%)
	Agreement throughout the encounter	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (6%)
	Does not understand at all	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Not explicit consent	**18 (55%)**	**8 (24%)**	**12 (36%)**

Table 7.2. Item 2: Themes and Dichotomized Responses (N=33)

	Response:	Pre-Test	PostTest 1	PostTest 2
Question 2: What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Verbal yes and body language	7 (21%)	5 (15%)	20 (61%)
	verbal and continuous	1 (3%)	9 (27%)	1 (3%)
	Verbal consent and checking in with partner	**8 (24%)**	**14 (42%)**	**21 (64%)**
	Giving a verbal yes	16 (48%)	19 (58%)	12 (36%)
	They initiate	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Verbal yes and are sober	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Making assumptions from their actions	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	No Consent/Consent only at beginning	**25 (76%)**	**19 (58%)**	**12 (36%)**

Table 7.3. Item 3: Themes and Dichotomized Responses (N=33)

	Response:	Pre-Test	PostTest 1	PostTest 2
Question 3: In instances when you think you received consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	They said yes	16 (48%)	19 (58%)	26 (79%)
	Continuously checking in	3 (9%)	7 (21%)	2 (6%)
	Verbal consent	**19 (58%)**	**26 (79%)**	**28 (85%)**
	Reciprocation of my advances	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	They initiated	8 (24%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Engaging in some form of foreplay	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Ask if a condom is present	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Not explicit consent	**14 (42%)**	**7 (21%)**	**5 (15%)**

Table 7.4. Item 4: Themes and Dichotomized Responses (N=33)

	Response:	Pre-Test	PostTest 1	PostTest 2
Question 4: What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Ask for consent	27 (82%)	24 (73%)	31 (94%)
	Communicate throughout sexual encounter	4 (12%)	7 (21%)	2 (6%)
	Ask for consent	**31 (94%)**	**31 (94%)**	**33 (100%)**
	Make a move and see if it is reciprocated	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Assume from conversation (not explicit)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Did not ask for consent	**2 (6%)**	**2 (6%)**	**0 (0%)**

Table 7.5. Item 5: Themes and Dichotomized Responses (N=33)

	Response:	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
Question 5: Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	No: always need consent	11 (33%)	16 (48%)	16 (48%)
	No: especially if they are under the influence	7 (21%)	3 (9%)	5 (15%)
	No: especially if they aren't into it	9 (27%)	11 (33%)	10 (30%)
	No	**27 (82%)**	**30 (91%)**	**31 (94%)**
	Yes: she sees/gets you naked	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Yes: in a long-standing relationship with partner	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Yes: Situation/Mood is right	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Yes: Mixed signals	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Yes	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Yes	**6 (18%)**	**3 (9%)**	**2 (6%)**

The final portion of the survey that was analyzed were the 45 items from the Sexual Consent Scale-Revised. The typical way to analyze data like these would be to run a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures. The ANOVA would compare the mean score of each of the items against the three time periods. Unfortunately, ANOVAs can only be run on data that are normally distributed, which this data set is not. The Friedman Test was used as an alternative to the ANOVA. This test measures the mean differences between groups with repeated measures when the data is non-parametric. The test compared the responses of the men over the three points in time and was run on each individual item, each sub-scale (group of items identified by the creators of the survey), and overall to measure the effectives of the program as a whole. If significance was less than 0.05 then the test showed a significant change of response.

For any test that revealed significance the data was further run through a post hoc test. The Wilcoxon test was used to determine where the significant change occurred. The

Wilcoxon test was run three different times for each item to measure the difference between Pre-Test to Post-Test 1, Post-Test 1 to Post-Test 2, and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. Normally a significance level less than 0.05 would indicate that the change was significant. To account for Bonferroni's correction the significance level of 0.05 was divided by the number of time points (three) to give the significance level of 0.017. Thus, a significant change would be observed only if the significance level was less than 0.017.

Results

Demographic Information

All respondents identified as heterosexual men. The vast majority of the men (N=31, 94%) identified as white. One identified as Black and one as Asian). This is not surprising since most of the social fraternities on the campus I studied are composed of heterosexual white men. At baseline, the men ranged from 18 to 22 years of age. Almost two-thirds of them (64%) were under the age of 21 and could not legally consume alcohol, although many of them actually did so. About half (55%) of the respondents were underclassmen (freshmen or sophomores in college) and the other half (45%) were upperclassmen (juniors and senior).

Most of the men were relatively new to the fraternity, 82% of the sample (n=27) had been fraternity men for less than two years. At baseline, 88% (n=29) of the men were single and only four were in a romantic relationship.

Assessing the Impact of Demographic Characteristics on Patterns of Survey Responses

I analyzed each of the eight demographic characteristics using Pearson's rho to determine whether there were any significant correlations between demographic

characteristics and the way a person responded to the survey items. Correlations were done for each demographic characteristic with each survey item for each of the time periods (Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, and Post-Test 2). I used a significance level of $p < 0.05$ as the cutoff for significant effects. For each of the significant correlations between demographic variables and survey items I present cross tabulations of specific responses to the item by demographic subgroups. The characteristics for all the variables can be found in the Appendix on pages 301 to 318).

Across the three surveys 16 items significantly correlated with one or more of the following four demographic characteristics: age, semester standing, year of initiation, and relationship status. This suggests that these four characteristics likely impacted the way that the respondent felt, thought, and behaved in relation to sexual consent items. Perhaps, this is not surprising since these four characteristics are highly intercorrelated themselves and are associated with impact on the men's life experiences over time with women, with sex, and with issues of sexual consent.

Due to the small sample size there were not enough respondents in each of the subgroups of the four demographic categories of interest to make meaningful comparisons. For this reason, I recoded each demographic characteristic into fewer categories. For age, I divided the men between those under and over the age of 21 (the legal drinking age). I recoded time spent in the fraternity into two groups: less than two years in the fraternity and more than two years in the fraternity. For semester standing, I allocated the men to two groups: underclassmen (freshmen and sophomores) and upperclassmen (juniors and seniors). Relationship status was dichotomized into those in a relationship or those not in a relationship.

Pre-Test Demographics

The survey items that significantly correlated with one or more of the demographic variables on the pre-test included two of the open-ended and later dichotomized variables, definition of sexual consent (item 1, correlated with age and semester) and reasons you might not get consent (item 5, correlated with age and semester). The seven items on the Sexual Consent Scale that were significantly correlated with one or more demographic characteristics included: 1) asking for verbal consent before any sexual activity (item 10, correlated with time in fraternity), 2) when initiating sex one should always assume they do not have consent (item 11, correlated with time in fraternity), 3) believing that sexual intercourse is the only activity that requires consent (item 36, correlated with semester), 4) having discussed sexual consent with friends (item 43, correlated with semester and time in fraternity), 5) having heard other students on campus discuss sexual consent (item 44, correlated with time in fraternity), 6) confidence in ability to ask for consent with current partner (item 48, correlated with time in fraternity), 7) not asking for consent is OK sometimes (50, correlated with time in fraternity). The Pearson's correlation coefficients and p values results can be found by survey item number in Table 7.6 below. I will proceed by discussing the correlations between the variables and the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The following table only includes the items that showed significant change over time. The full version of the tables can be found in the Appendix pages 301 to 318.

Table 7.6. Significant Pearson Correlations for One or More Demographic Variables on Pre-Test Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
Open-ended Questions Regarding Sexual Consent (Dichotomized Variables)					
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pearson Correlation	**-.349***	**-.454****	0.208	0.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.046**	**0.008**	0.246	0.688
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pearson Correlation	**.389***	**.345***	-0.206	0.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.025**	**0.049**	0.250	0.324
Items on Sexual Consent Scale Revised					
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.244	0.238	**-.377***	0.178
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.171	0.183	**0.031**	0.323
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.180	0.199	**-.351***	-0.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.315	0.268	**0.045**	0.717
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.327	**.356***	-0.213	-0.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.063	**0.042**	0.235	0.969
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	Pearson Correlation	-0.221	**-.371***	**.346***	-0.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.216	**0.034**	**0.048**	0.496
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.	Pearson Correlation	-0.074	-0.211	**.389***	0.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.684	0.238	**0.025**	0.891
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Pearson Correlation	0.002	-0.031	**.374***	-0.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.991	0.865	**0.032**	0.899
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Pearson Correlation	-0.177	-0.196	**.431***	0.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.325	0.274	**0.012**	0.848

****. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed).**

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).**

Age

Two survey items, 1) definition of consent (item 1) and 2) reasons one might not get consent (item 5) were correlated with the respondents' age (see Table 7.7). The responses indicated that the majority of the men (87%) knew that consent required some type of confirmation from their partner, yet only 45% (in bold) stated that consent needed to be established verbally (the preferred standard for sexual consent). A small proportion of men (12%) did not talk about any type of communication in their responses, but the older men were more likely to include verbal agreement in their definitions of consent (67% compared to only 38% of the younger men). In fact, the younger men were the only ones who did not include agreement or communication in their definitions. The majority of the men (81%) believed that consent was necessary in all sexual encounters. Interestingly, the younger men appear to believe this more often than the older men (87% for the younger men versus 67% for the older men).

These findings are interesting because while the older men defined the concept better than younger men, they were less likely to believe that consent was necessary in all sexual encounters. It makes sense that the older men would know the definition of consent better since they have probably been exposed to it more. It should be noted that most of the older men responded that consent was needed every time.

Table 7.7. Significant Cross Tabulations for Age in Pre-Test Survey (N=33)

Age	Response	Overall n=33	Under 21 n=24	Over 21 n=9
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	**Completely understands**	**1 (3%)**	**1 (4%)**	**0 (0%)**
	Focus on verbal affirmation	**11 (33%)**	**5 (21%)**	**6 (67%)**
	Verbal agreement to have sex and they are sober	**3 (9%)**	**3 (13%)**	**0 (0%)**
	Focus on agreement from both partners	8 (24%)	6 (25%)	2 (22%)
	Both parties agree and are not under the influence	3 (9%)	2 (8%)	1 (11%)
	Confirmation to have sex (no mention how communicated)	2 (6%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
	Agreement throughout the encounter	1 (3%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
	Consent thru communication	29 (87%)	20 (83%)	9 (100%)
	Okay with sex but no mention of communication	2 (6%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
	Focus on being sober	1 (3%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
	Does not understand at all	1 (3%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
	No mention of communication	4 (12%)	4 (16%)	0 (0%)

Age	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Under 21 n=24**	**Over 21 n=9**
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	No: always need consent	11 (33%)	10 (42%)	1 (11%)
	No: especially if they are under the influence	7 (21%)	5 (21%)	2 (22%)
	No: especially if they aren't into it	9 (27%)	6 (25%)	3 (33%)
	Never had a problem with it	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	No	27 (82%)	21 (88%)	6 (67%)
	Yes	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Yes: she sees/gets you naked and you go from there	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	2 (22%)
	Yes: in a long-standing relationship with partner	2 (6%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
	Yes: Situation/Mood is right	1 (3%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
	Yes: Mixed signals	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (11%)
	Yes	6 (18%)	3 (13%)	3 (33%)

Semester Standing

There were four survey items 1) definition of consent (item 1), 2) reasons one might not get consent (item 5), 3) believing that only intercourse requires verbal consent

(item 36), and 4) having discussed consent issues with friends (item 43) that correlated with the men's semester standing (see Table 7.8). The findings for the first two were identical to those for age discussed above. The upperclassmen were more likely to include the word verbal in their definitions of consent but were slightly less likely to believe that consent was needed for every sexual encounter. This finding makes sense since there is a correlation between age and semester standing. The older men are most likely also upperclassmen.

It was interesting that age was not correlated with the two other items that correlated with semester standing believing that only intercourse requires verbal consent (item 36), and having discussed consent issues with friends (item 43). As a group, most of the men (67%) correctly responded that all sexual activity (not just vaginal or anal penetration) needed consent. However, the underclassmen were more likely to believe that consent was needed in all types of sexual activity (78%) than the upperclassmen (53%). At baseline only one third of the men discussed consent and sexual assault with their peers. There was a clear correlation between this and the men's semester standing. Only 11% of the underclassmen were discussing the issue while over half (53%) of the upperclassmen were having these conversations.

Table 7.8. Significant Cross Tabulations for Semester Standing for Pre-Test Survey (N=33)

Semester Standing		Overall n=33	Underclassman n=18	Sophomore n=15
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Completely understands	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Focus on verbal affirmation	11 (33%)	4 (22%)	7 (47%)
	Verbal agreement to have sex and they are sober	3 (9%)	2 (11%)	1 (7%)
	Focus on agreement from both partners	8 (24%)	4 (22%)	4 (27%)
	Both parties agree and are not under the influence	3 (9%)	1 (6%)	2 (13%)
	Confirmation to have sex (no mention how communicated)	2 (6%)	2 (11%)	0 (0%)
	Agreement throughout the encounter	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Consent thru communication	29 (87%)	15 (83%)	14 (93%)
	Okay with sex but no mention of communication	2 (6%)	1 (6%)	1 (7%)
	Focus on being sober	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Does not understand at all	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)
	No mention of communication	4 (12%)	3 (17%)	1 (7%)
Semester Standing	-	Overall n=33	Underclassman n=18	Sophomore n=15
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	No: always need consent	11 (33%)	9 (50%)	2 (13%)
	No: especially if they are under the influence	7 (21%)	3 (17%)	4 (27%)
	No: especially if they aren't into it	9 (27%)	5 (28%)	4 (27%)
	Never had a problem with it	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	No	27 (82%)	17 (94%)	10 (67%)
	Yes	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Yes: she sees/gets you naked and you two go from there	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	2 (13%)
	Yes: in a long-standing relationship with partner	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	2 (13%)
	Yes: Situation/Mood is right	1 (3%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)

	Yes: Mixed signals	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)
	Yes	6 (18%)	1 (6%)	5 (33%)
Semester Standing		**Overall n=33**	**Underclassman n= 18**	**Upperclassman n=15**
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Disagree	22 (67%)	14 (78%)	8 (53%)
	Neither	3 (9%)	1 (6%)	2 (13%)
	Agree	8 (24%)	3 (17%)	5 (33%)
Semester Standing		**Overall n=33**	**Underclassman n=18**	**Upperclassman n=15**
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	Disagree	11 (33%)	8 (44%)	3 (20%)
	Neither	12 (36%)	8 (44%)	4 (27%)
	Agree	10 (30%)	2 (11%)	8 (53%)

Length of Time in the Fraternity

Six items 1) getting verbal consent before sex (item 10), 2) always assume consent has not been attained (item 11), 3) discuss consent with friends (item 43), 4) hear consent discussion on campus (item 44), 5) confident asking current partner for consent (item 48), and 6) not asking for consent sometimes okay (item 50) were correlated with the length of time the men had been in the fraternity (see Table 7.9).

As a group, all of the men (100%) believed that they should always ask for consent before initiating sexual activity. Similarly, the majority of the men (82%) stated that they should always assume consent has not been given until it is given verbally by their partners. It appears that the longer one is in the fraternity the less sure one was about this. All of the men (100%) with the least time in the fraternity agreed with this, but those

with two or more years were more likely to be neutral on this item. The men who were in the fraternity longer were more likely to respond neutrally on this item 82% of those in the fraternity for two years and 80% of those for more than two years.

The majority of men felt confident in their ability to ask for consent from their current sexual partners (88%). However, confidence increased with length of time in the fraternity with 77% of those with a year or less, 86% of those with two years, and 100% of those with more than two years agreeing with this item. This is likely related to greater age and experience.

Being in the fraternity longer increases the likelihood of talking with friends about consent issues. Overall, 27% of the men agreed with this item. Sixty percent of those in the fraternity more than two years discussed consent with their peers while only 21% of those under two years did so. It also increases the likelihood of having heard consent being discussed by other students on campus. While overall 79% of the men agreed with this item, 100% of those who had been in the fraternity for more than two years agreed compared to 75% of those under two years and 54% of those under one year. Paradoxically, length of time in the fraternity also seems to decrease the attitude that it is sometimes alright not to get consent. Overall 12% of the men agreed with this item while none of those who had been in the fraternity more than two years (0%) agreed compared to 14% who were in less than two years and 23% in for less than one year. Again, these changes toward the preferred standards for sexual consent are likely due to greater age and experience of the older students who have been on campus and in the fraternity longer.

Table 7.9. Significant Cross Tabulations for Length of Time in the Fraternity for Pre-Test Survey (N=33).

Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 years n=5**	**Under 2 years n=28**
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Neither	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	33 (100%)	5 (100%)	28 (100%)
Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 years n=5**	**Under 2 years n=28**
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent	Disagree	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)
	Neither	5 (15%)	1 (20%)	4 (14%)
	Agree	27 (82%)	4 (80%)	23 (82%)
Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 Years n=5**	**Under 2 Years n=28**
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	Disagree	11 (33%)	1 (20%)	10 (36%)
	Neither	13 (39%)	1 (20%)	12 (43%)
	Agree	9 (27%)	3 (60%)	6 (21%)
Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 years n=5**	**Under 2 years n=28**
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus	Disagree	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	3 (11%)
	Neither	4 (12%)	0 (0%)	4 (14%)
	Agree	26 (79%)	5 (100%)	21 (75%)
Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 years n=5**	**Under 2 years n=28**
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Neither	4 (12%)	0 (0%)	4 (14%)
	Agree	29 (88%)	5 (100%)	24 (86%)
Semester & Year of Initiation	**Response**	**Overall n=33**	**Over 2 years n=5**	**Under 2 Years n=28**
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Disagree	25 (76%)	5 (100%)	20 (71%)
	Neither	4 (12%)	0 (0%)	4 (14%)
	Agree	4 (12%)	0 (0%)	4 (14%)

Relationship Status

None of the items on the survey were correlated with relationship status at baseline.

Post-Test 1 Demographics

Only three items had significant correlations with one or more of the demographic items on Post-test 1. These included 1) always assuming I don't have consent unless verbally given (item 11) correlated with time in fraternity, 2) difficulty asking for consent because it interferes with way I like to have sex (tem 20) correlated with relationship status, and 3) not needing to ask for consent because I trust my partner to do the right thing (item 42) correlated with age. These are included in Table 7.10 below.

Table 7.10. All Significant Pearson Correlations for Demographics for Post-Test 1 Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
Items on Sexual Consent Scale Revised					
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.213	0.328	**-.381***	-0.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.234	0.063	**0.029**	0.745
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.196	0.133	-0.073	**-.353***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.275	0.461	0.688	**0.044**
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Pearson Correlation	**.373***	0.228	-0.192	-0.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.032**	0.202	0.285	0.471
****. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed).**					
***. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).**					

Age

Only one item, not needing to ask for consent because I trust my partner to do the right thing (item 42), correlated with age on Post-Test 1. It was troubling to find that overall less than half of the men (39%) agreed with this statement indicating they believed that consent was less necessary when trust was established in a relationship. The younger men were less likely to agree with this statement than older men for whom the majority (67%) agreed. This is a topic that warrants further investigation in the future.

Table 7.11. Significant Cross Tabulations for Age for Post-Test 1 Survey (N=33)

Item	Response	Overall	**Under 21 n= 24**	**Over 21**
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	**Disagree**	**16 (48%)**	19 (58%)	7 (22%)
	Neither	**4 (12%)**	4 (13%)	4 (11%)
	Agree	**13 (39%)**	10 (29%)	22 (67%)

Semester Standing

No items correlated with the demographic of semester standing at Post-Test

Length of Time in Fraternity

One item, always assuming I don't have consent unless verbally given (11) correlated with time spent in the fraternity. Overall, 97% of the men stated that they should always assume that they do not have consent until it is given. However, men who were in the fraternity more than two years were less likely to agree with this statement (80%) compared to men who had been in for less than two years (100%). This may also warrant future attention.

Table 7.12. Significant Cross Tabulations for Time in Fraternity for Post-Test 1 Survey (N=33)

Item	Response	Overall n=33	Over 2 years n=5	Under 2 years
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Disagree	1 (3%)	1 (20%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	32 (97%)	4 (80%)	28 (100%)

Relationship Status

One item, difficulty asking for consent because it interferes with way I like to have sex (item 20), correlated with relationship status on Post-Test 1. Overall a minority of the men agreed with this statement (18%) and 67% disagreed, but single men were more likely to agree (22%) than men who were in a relationship (0%). While all of the men in a relationship (100%) disagreed with it and only 59% of single men disagreed. The single men were also the only ones to respond neither agree nor disagree (19%) indicating that this variable may need more attention in the future as there appears to be ambiguity among 41% of the single men. It should be noted that this was an extremely small sample of men in relationships (N=6), but this may be something to be researched in future studies.

Table 7.13. Significant Cross Tabulations for Relationship Status for Post-Test 1 Survey (N=33)

Item	Response	Overall n=33	Single n=27	Relationship n=6
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	Disagree	22 (67%)	16 (59%)	6 (100%)
	Neither	5 (15%)	5 (19%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	6 (18%)	6 (22%)	0 (0%)

Post-Test 2 Demographics

Six items were correlated with demographic variables on post-test 2: 1) always assuming I don't have consent unless verbally given (item 11, correlated with relationship type), 2) thinking that consent is more needed in a new relationship than an established one (item 27, correlated with age), 3) believing that partners are less likely to ask for consent the longer they are in a relationship (item 29, correlated with length of time in fraternity), 4) not asking for consent is not a big deal (item 33, correlated with relationship status), 5) not needing to ask for consent because I trust my partner (item 42, correlated with relationship status), and 6) if consent is established "fooling around" can be assumed (item 51, correlated with age and relationship status). The significant correlations with demographic items are included in Table 7.14 below.

Table 7.14. All Significant Pearson Correlations for Demographics for Post-Test 2 Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
Open-ended Questions Regarding Sexual Consent					
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.208	0.025	0.154	**-.344***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.245	0.890	0.392	**0.050**
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	**.345***	0.317	-0.294	0.187
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.049**	0.072	0.097	0.298
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.099	**.424***	-0.307	-0.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.585	**0.014**	0.083	0.611
33. Not asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Pearson Correlation	-0.064	0.032	-0.030	**.390***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.721	0.859	0.868	**0.025**
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Pearson Correlation	-0.057	0.153	-0.035	**.353***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.755	0.394	0.845	**0.044**
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Pearson Correlation	**-.434***	-0.152	0.143	**.531****
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.012**	0.397	0.426	**0.001**
****. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed).**					
***. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).**					

Age

Two items, thinking that consent is more needed in a new relationship than an established one (item 27) and if consent is established "fooling around" can be assumed (item 51), were correlated with the respondents' age. Unfortunately, even after the intervention program 58% of the men believed that consent was more important in a new relationship than an already established one. The older men were slightly more likely to

incorrectly believe this (67%) compared to 50% of the younger men. In addition, overall 55% of the men still believed that consent for intercourse gave them consent for other sexual activities. On this item it was the younger men who were slightly more likely to incorrectly believe this (61%) compared to the older men (47%). These responses suggest a persistent need for education and behavior modification regarding the definition of consent and always making sure that a partner is "OK" with different particular sexual behaviors.

Table 7.15. Significant Cross Tabulations for Age for Post-Test 2 Survey (N=33)

Survey Item	Response	Overall (n=33)	Under 21 (n=18)	Over 21 (n=15)
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Disagree	6 (18%)	4 (22%)	2 (13%)
	Neither	8 (24%)	5 (28%)	3 (20%)
	Agree	19 (58%)	9 (50%)	10 (67%)
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Disagree	8 (24%)	3 (17%)	5 (33%)
	Neither	7 (21%)	4 (22%)	3 (20%)
	Agree	18 (55%)	11 (61%)	7 (47%)

Semester standing:

One item, believing that partners are less likely to ask for consent the longer they are in a relationship (item 29), was correlated with semester standing. Overall 73% of the men agreed with this statement with little difference between lower classmen (75%) and upper classmen (72%).

Table 7.16. Significant Cross Tabulations for Semester Standing for Post-Test 2 Survey (N=33)

Survey Item	Response	Overall (n=33)	Lower Classman (n=4)	Upper Classmen (n=29)
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Disagree	4 (12%)	1 (25%)	3 (10%)
	Neither	5 (15%)	0 (0%)	5 (17%)
	Agree	24 (73%)	3 (75%)	21 (72%)

Length of Time Spent in the Fraternity

On the final survey there was no statistical difference in how the men responded on this demographic characteristic.

Relationship Status

Four items were correlated with relationship status on Post-test 2: 1) always assuming I don't have consent unless verbally given (item 11), 2) not asking for consent is not a big deal (item 33), 3) not needing to ask for consent because I trust my partner (item 42), and 4) if consent is established "fooling around" can be assumed (item 51).

Overall 97% of the men responded that they should not assume that they have consent until it is given by their partner, with 100% of single men but only 90% of those in a relationship agreeing. However, only 55% of the men disagreed with the statement that not obtaining consent was not a big deal, and single men were more likely to disagree (65%) than men in a relationship (30%). While most of the men (61%) also believed that consent was needed even if trust were established in the relationship, the single men were more likely to agree with this (70%) than those who were in relationships (40%). Finally, the single men were also more likely to believe that consent for intercourse does not mean consent for other activities. While overall 55% of the men

agreed with the idea that once consent for intercourse is established other sexual activities are included in that consent, only 39% of the single men compared to 90% of those in relationships agreed with this item. Together, These results suggest the need for more emphasis on consent issues in established relationships in which the men tend to assume consent because of previous sexual encounters with the same partner.

Table 7.17. Significant Cross Tabulations for Relationship Status for Post-Test 2 Survey (N=33)

Survey Item	Response	Overall (n=33)	Single (n=23)	Relationship (n=10)
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Neither	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	1 (10%)
	Agree	32 (97%)	23 (100%)	9 (90%)
33. Not asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Disagree	18 (55%)	15 (65%)	3 (30%)
	Neither	10 (30%)	6 (26%)	4 (40%)
	Agree	5 (15%)	2 (9%)	3 (30%)
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Disagree	20 (61%)	16 (70%)	4 (40%)
	Neither	6 (18%)	4 (17%)	2 (20%)
	Agree	7 (21%)	3 (13%)	4 (40%)
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Disagree	8 (24%)	8 (35%)	0 (0%)
	Neither	7 (21%)	6 (26%)	1 (10%)
	Agree	18 (55%)	9 (39%)	9 (90%)

Summary of the Demographic Characteristics

After examining the data, it appears that there is a correlation between these demographic characteristics and how the men responded to the survey. Older men were more likely to have a better understanding of consent, have more confidence in their ability to ask for consent, and to talk about consent and sexual assault with their peers. Yet it was the younger men that were more likely to believe that consent was necessary in all sexual encounters. The single men were more likely to believe that consent was

necessary even if one had a previous sexual encounter with their partner and trusted them. While those men in committed relationships were more likely to incorrectly assume that consent for one aspect of a sexual encounter equates to consent for all aspects of that sexual encounter.

Open-Ended Questions about Consent to Sexual Activity

For the analysis the open-ended responses were sorted into dichotomized variables for each item. To determine if there were any significant changes between the surveys the McNemar test was run on each item. Of these five questions, a significant change was found for questions 1, 2, and 3, which are described below.

Table 7.18. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pre to Post 1	0.007
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.581
	Pre to Post 2	0.057
2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Pre to Post 1	0.07
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.143
	Pre to Post 2	0.004
3. In instances when you think **you received consent** from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	Pre to Post 1	0.065
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.774
	Pre to Post 2	0.022
4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Pre to Post 1	1
	Post 1 to Post 2	N/A
	Pre to Post 2	N/A
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pre to Post 1	1
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.063
	Pre to Post 2	0.219

Analysis of Question 1: How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?

The first question dealt with how the men defined the term consent. After looking through the open-ended responses I placed the responses into 10 different themes that included aspects of verbal agreement, partner communication, and sobriety. The responses showed that the men seemed to understand that consent needed to be communicated but not all of the responses focused on that communication being verbal. For the dichotomized analysis I placed the responses into two groups based on whether the response included explicit verbal consent or not because verbal consent is the key concept in sexual consent training and without verbal consent, consent has not been obtained.

Table 7.19. Dichotomized Question 1 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
Question 1: How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	A verbal yes	15 (45%)	25 (76%)	21 (64%)
	Not explicit consent	18 (55%)	8 (24%)	12 (36%)

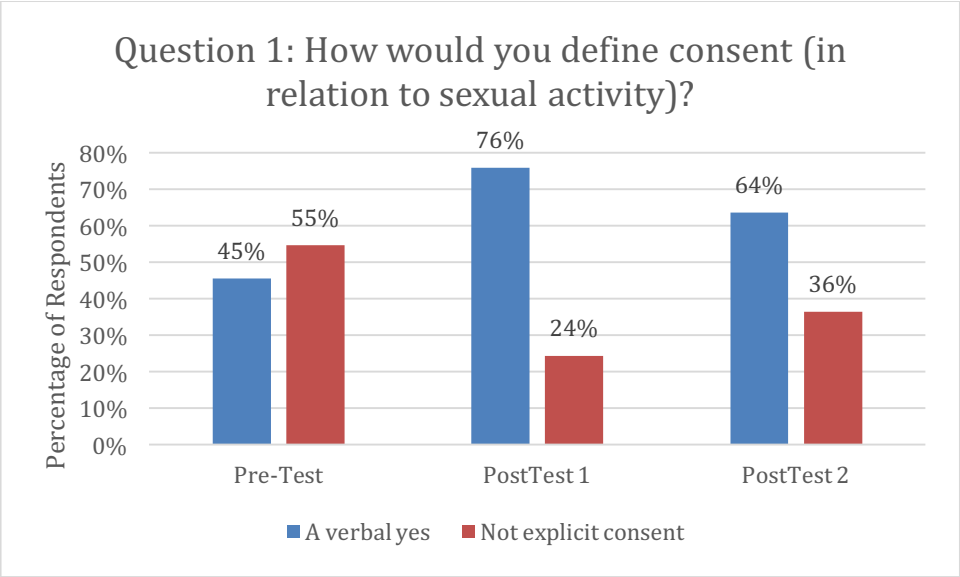
On the Pre-Test the majority of the men (55%) did not include verbal agreement in their definitions of consent. A significant change was found (p< = 0 .007) after exposure to the intervention with the majority of the men on Post-test 1 (76%) including verbal agreement in their definitions. At the five-month follow-up, however, there was decrease in definitions that included a verbal “yes" to 64%. While this change between Post-Test 1 and Post-Test 2 was small, it was enough to negate a significant change between Pre-Test to Post-Test 2 although it is close. Thus, it appears that exposure to the intervention was successful at initially changing the men’s definitions but this was not

significantly sustained (P <= 0.057) over time. At the very least, however, the majority of men had still included verbal agreement in their definitions at both post-tests at higher rates than at baseline.

Table 7.20. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pre to Post 1	0.007
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.581
	Pre to Post 2	0.057

Chart 7.1. Item 1: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Analysis of Question 2: What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?

Question 2 dealt with the ways that the men believed that a person could indicate consent. On all three surveys the men indicated that both verbal consent and body language were

important, but very few of them mentioned that consent had to be continuous throughout the sexual encounter. This is a defining aspect of consent and a key concept in sexual consent training, They indicated that if consent had been verbally obtained at the beginning of a sexual encounter then that was enough.

The graph below visualizes the data in Table 7.21 below. On the Pre-Test most of the men (76%) did not understand what consent looked like or assumed that a verbal yes at the beginning was enough for the entire sexual encounter. After exposure to the intervention fewer men (58%) still held these beliefs. While this change of response between the Pre-test and Post-test 1 was in the right direction it did not reach significance ($p <= 0.07$). It was not until the final survey that a significant change was found between the Pre-Test and Post-Test 2 on this aspect of consent ($p <+ 0.004$). By the end of the study the majority of the men (64%) replied that consent meant a verbal yes and that they were checking in with their partner throughout the encounter. This suggests that the intervention was successful in changing the men's responses, but that it took more time for them to arrive at understanding the concept of verbal continuous consent the correct response.

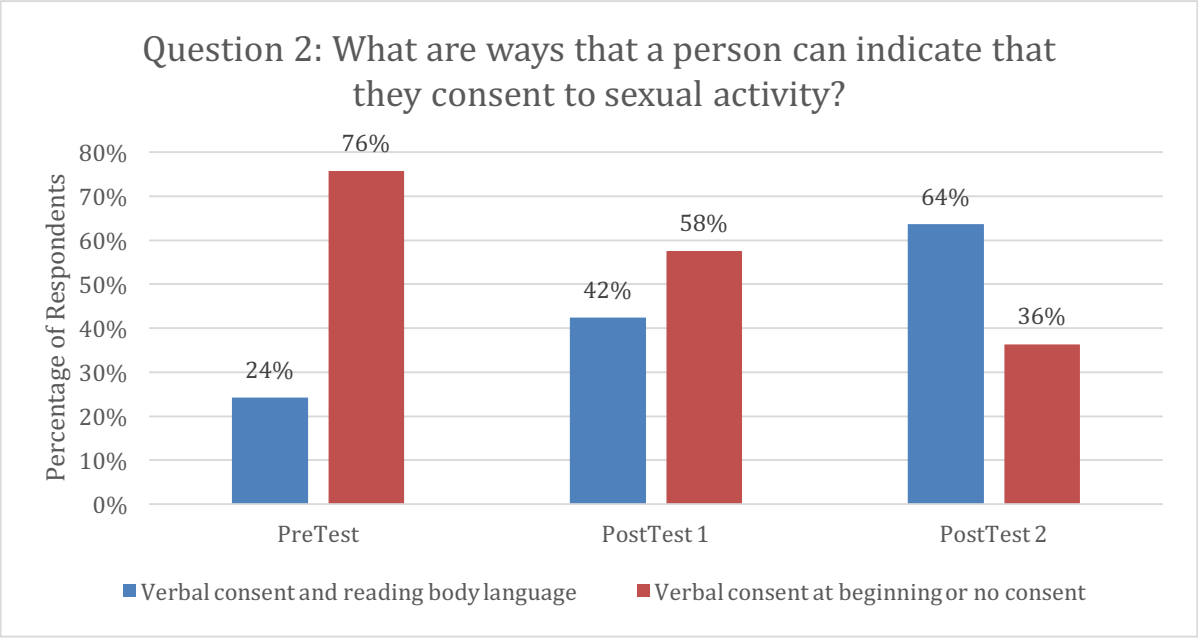
Table 7.21. Dichotomized Question 2 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

Question 2: What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	**Response:**	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
	Verbal consent and checking in with partner	**8 (24%)**	**14 (42%)**	**21 (64%)**
	No Consent/Consent only at beginning	**25 (76%)**	**19 (58%)**	**12 (36%)**

Table 7.22.. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Pre to Post 1	0.07
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.143
	Pre to Post 2	0.004

Chart 7.2. Item 2: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Analysis of Question 3: In instances when you think you received consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?

Question 3 asked the men to describe the ways that their partners had indicated consent to them in the past. On the Pre-Test about half of the men 58%) responded that verbal consent was given in their sexual encounters (see Table 7.23 below). Immediately after the intervention the more men (79%) stated that they received verbal consent, although this change was not significant. On the final survey even more men (85%) responded that verbal consent was received which showed a significant change in

response between the Pre-Test and Post-Test 2. This result was similar to the result seen in Question 2 in that it may mean that the intervention was successful or that another variable may have influenced the men. It is also possible that neither of these things happened and that the men now knew the "correct" answer and responded in that way.

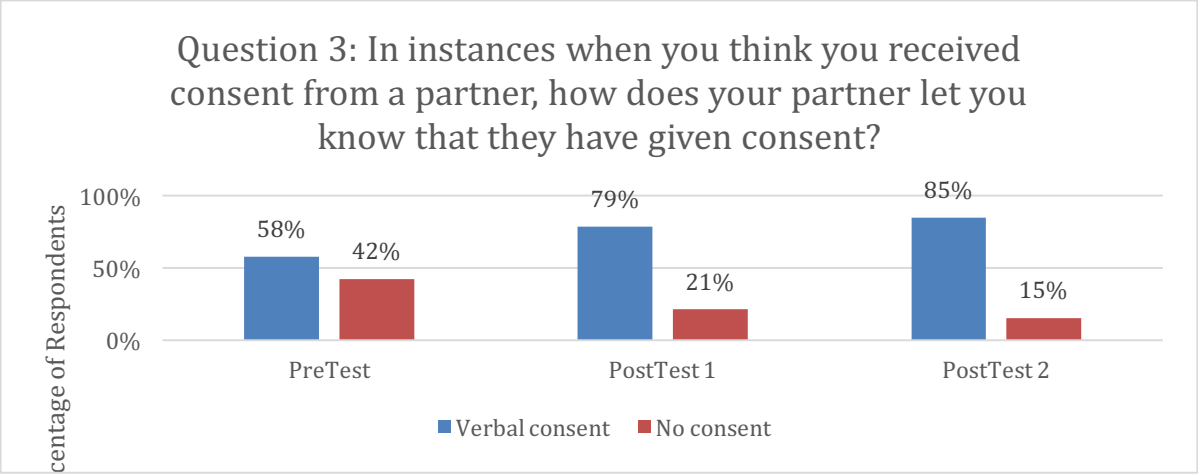
Table 7.23. Dichotomized Question 3 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

Question 3: In instances when you think you received consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	**Response:**	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
	Verbal consent	**19 (58%)**	**26 (79%)**	**28 (85%)**
	Not explicit consent	**14 (42%)**	**7 (21%)**	**5 (15%)**

Table 7.24. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
3. In instances when you think **you received consent** from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	Pre to Post 1	0.065
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.774
	Pre to Post 2	0.022

Chart 7.3. Item 3: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Analysis of Question 4: What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?

Question four asked the men about their own behaviors in receiving consent in sexual encounters. There was no change in response from the men on this question. Throughout all three surveys the men stated that they asked for consent. It seems that this question is at odds with some of the other questions on the survey that indicate that the men do not always ask for consent. I believe that this confusion may be the wording of the question. In its current form it asks the men about their sexual encounters in general. In the future I think I will ask about the men to discuss their last sexual encounter specifically. This way the data may show a more accurate representation of the responses.

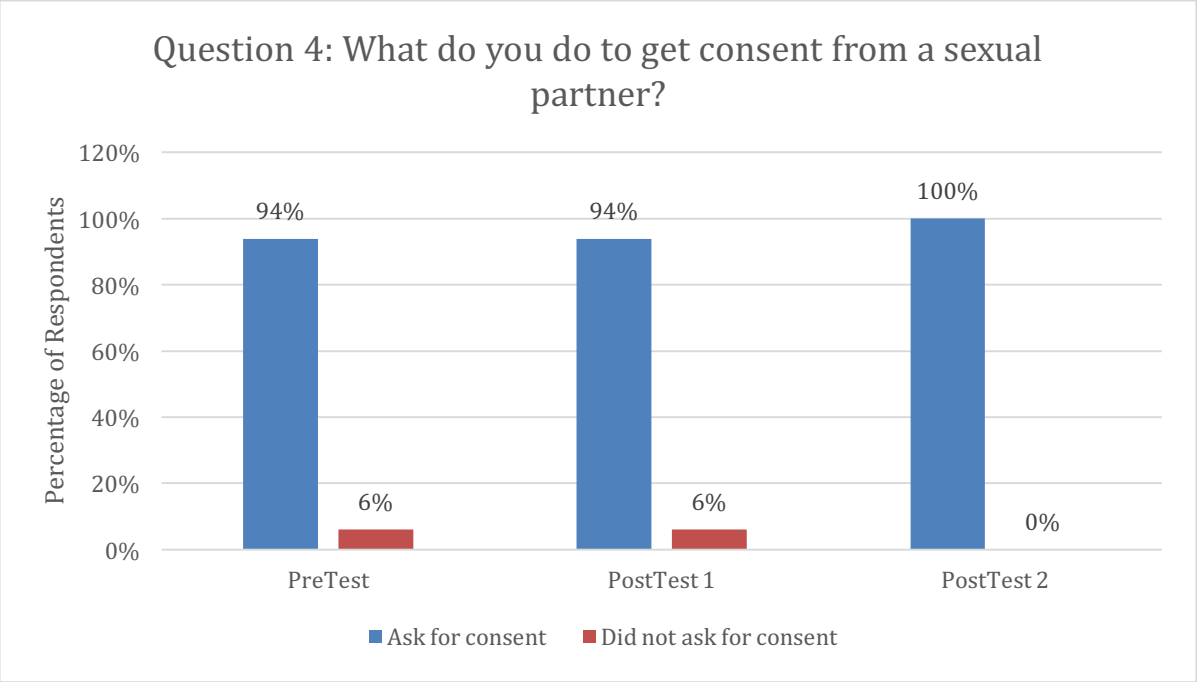
Table 7.25. Dichotomized Question 4 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

	Response:	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
Question 4: What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	**Ask for consent**	**31 (94%)**	**31 (94%)**	**33 (100%)**
	Did not ask for consent	**2 (6%)**	**2 (6%)**	**0 (0%)**

Table 7.26. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Pre to Post 1	1
	Post 1 to Post 2	N/A
	Pre to Post 2	N/A

Chart 7.4. Item 4: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Analysis of Question 5: Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?

Question five asked the men if there might ever be a reason why a person might not get consent from a partner and still engage in the sexual behavior. I found that during the interviews with the fraternity men that there were times that they did not obtain consent from their sexual partners. When looking there was no significant change during any of the surveys. The majority of the men responded that there was not a reason and that consent was always necessary. While the data cannot show if the men believe this statement, it does at least show that the men are aware of the culturally appropriate answer and what is expected of them.

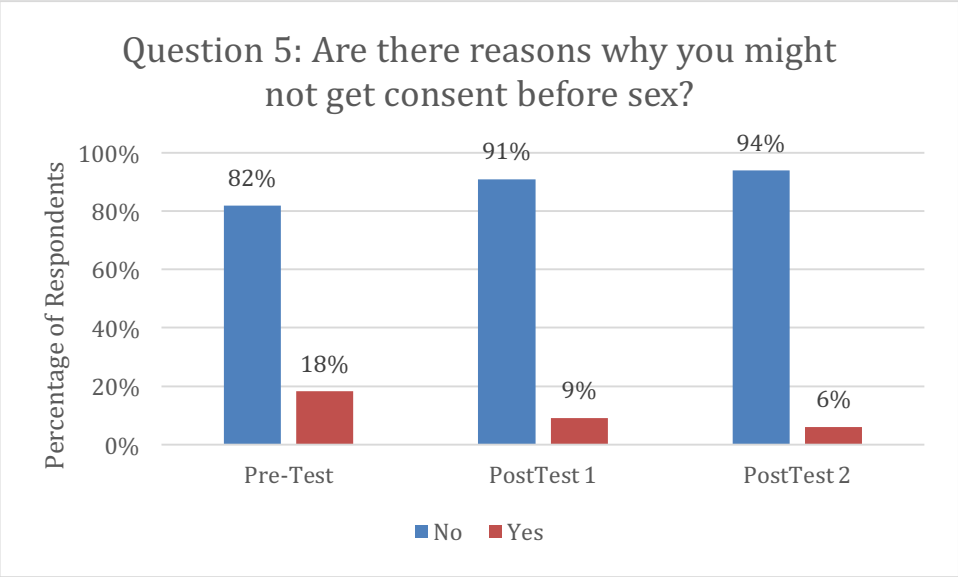
Table 7.27. Dichotomized Question 5 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

	Response:	Pre-Test	PostTest 1	PostTest 2
Question 5: Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	**No**	**27 (82%)**	**30 (91%)**	**31 (94%)**
	Yes	**6 (18%)**	**3 (9%)**	**2 (6%)**

Table 7.28. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pre to Post 1	1.000
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.063
	Pre to Post 2	0.219

Chart 7.5. Item 5: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



<u>Analysis of Question 6: How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity</u>

In addition to the five items that measured how the men conceptualized consent I wrote another question that specifically asked the men how often they receive consent in their sexual behaviors. The initial responses were placed into four categories. It should be noted that one respondent had his first sexual experience between the first two surveys.

Since I am interested in seeing if the men obtain consent, for the dichotomous analysis I placed the responses into always receiving consent and not always receiving consent.

On the Pre-Test the majority of the men (79%) responded that they received consent before every sexual encounter so it was surprising that there was a significant change immediately following the intervention where the responses shifted to 55% of the men saying that they only received consent some of the time and not all of the time. This is likely an artifact of learning the real definition of consent and that after the intervention the men realized that things that they had considered consent in the past did meet the new standards for obtaining consent and that they were answering more truthfully than they had before.

Another significant change occurred after the men took the final survey. There was another dramatic shift and 73% of the men went back to responding that they received consent every time they had a sexual encounter. The intervention may truly have changed the way the men conceptualized consent and may actually have changed their behavior as well (which may be indicative in Questions 2 and 3). However, it could also be the case that the men simply reverted back to their original way of thinking about consent (this is similar to the result found for Question 1). This lack of clarity will need to be addressed in the future so that I can understand why this change occurred.

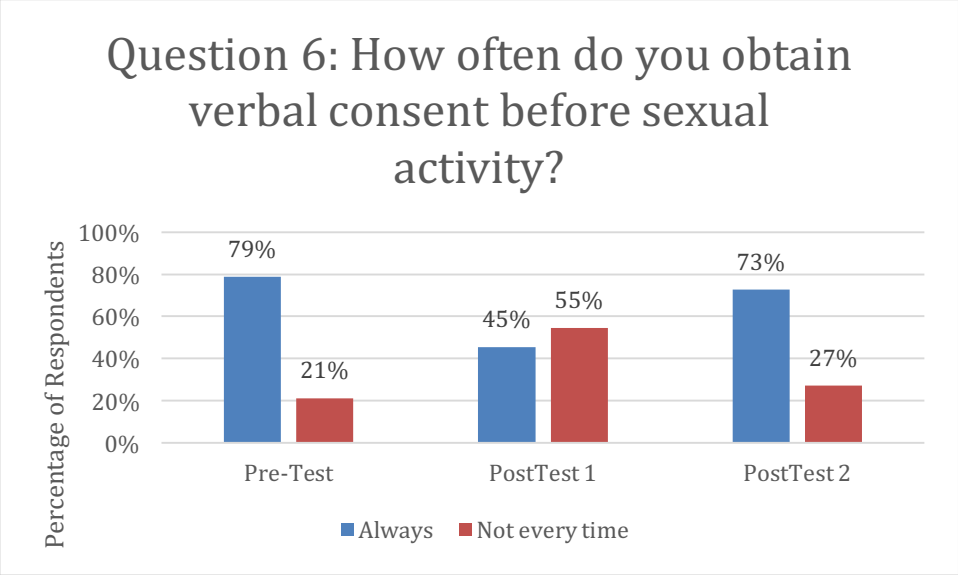
Table 7.29. Dichotomized Question 6 at Pre-test, Post-test, and Post-test 2 (N=33)

Item Number	**Response**	**Pre-Test**	**PostTest 1**	**PostTest 2**
Question 6: How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?	Always	26 (79%)	15 (45%)	24 (73%)
	Not every time	7 (21%)	18 (55%)	9 (27%)

Table 7.30. Results of the McNemar Test on Conceptualization of Consent (N=33).

Question Number	Cross tabulation	McNemar Test
6. How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?	Pre to Post 1	0.007
	Post 1 to Post 2	0.035
	Pre to Post 2	0.774

Chart 7.6. Item 6: Dichotomous Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



<u>The Sexual Consent Scale-Revised (Humphreys and Brousseau 2010)</u>

The final section of the survey was the Sexual Consent Scale-Revised. This scale is the most important because it examines the individual's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors in regards to sexual consent. The developers of the scale, Humphreys and Brousseau (2010), identified five sub-scales (each measured by a number of questions) that indicated how the respondents conceptualized consent and the specific consent behaviors the respondents engaged in. Thus, my analysis used the same sub-scales (and added a sixth that included questions that did not fall into any of the sub-scales) that include:

1) Lack of perceived behavior control
2) Positive attitude towards establishing consent
3) Indirect behavioral approach to consent
4) Sexual consent norms
5) Awareness and discussion
6) Items that did not fit into any subscale

The men were presented with a seven-point Likert scale where they stated their agreement or disagreement with each item on the survey. In order to make sure that respondents were paying attention and not just choosing the same answer the developers wrote the items so that for some a seven was the most incorrect response and on others a seven was the most correct response. To maintain consistency, I changed the necessary responses so that for all of the responses a one was the most correct response and a seven was the most incorrect response.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neither Agree not Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In deciding which items to focus on for the restructuring of the intervention and in the discussion below a response of a one or two indicated the correct response and that the respondent did not have an issue in relation to the item. A response of three meant that an issue was not present, but that improvement could be made. A response of four indicated potential problems and that this item needed to be better addressed in future interventions. A response of five or above showed that the item was a major problem for the respondent and that this item must be a priority in future iterations of the intervention.

Subscale 1: Lack of perceived behavior control

The first subscale dealt with the reasons why a person might not get consent in a sexual encounter as measured by the 11 items in the chart below. No significant changes were found for the subscale or for any of the individual items from pre to post tests. The first row shows the responses of the subscale as a whole. The following rows make up the items within that subscale.

Table 7.31. Results of the Friedmen Test on Subscale 1 (N=33).

	Item	Mean	Significance
Subscale 1: *Lack of perceived behavior control*	PreMean P1Mean P2Mean	2.7773 2.9333 2.5406	0.214
16) I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	#16Pre #16Post1 #16Post2	3.5152 3.5152 3.0606	0.527
17) I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	#17Pre #17Post1 #17Post2	3.4545 3.5758 3.0303	0.697
18) I think that verbally asking for sexual consent is awkward.	#18Pre #18Post1 #18Post2	3.5152 3.8788 3.0606	0.285
19) I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.	#19Pre #19Post1 #19Post2	3.1515 2.9394 2.8182	0.719
20) I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	#20Pre #20Post1 #20Post2	2.9394 2.9394 2.3636	0.18

21) I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter	#21Pre #21Post1 #21Post2	2.8182 3.0000 2.7879	0.966
22) I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	#22Pre #22Post1 #22Post2	2.5152 2.6061 2.2424	0.256
23) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	#23Pre #23Post1 #23Post2	2.0606 1.7879 2.0909	0.413
24) I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	#24Pre #24Post1 #24Post2	2.5758 2.5455 2.1212	0.272
47) I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex	#47Pre #47Post1 #47Post2	2.6364 3.0303 2.3333	0.209
48) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner.	#48Pre #48Post1 #48Post2	2.0606 2.4545 2.0303	0.786

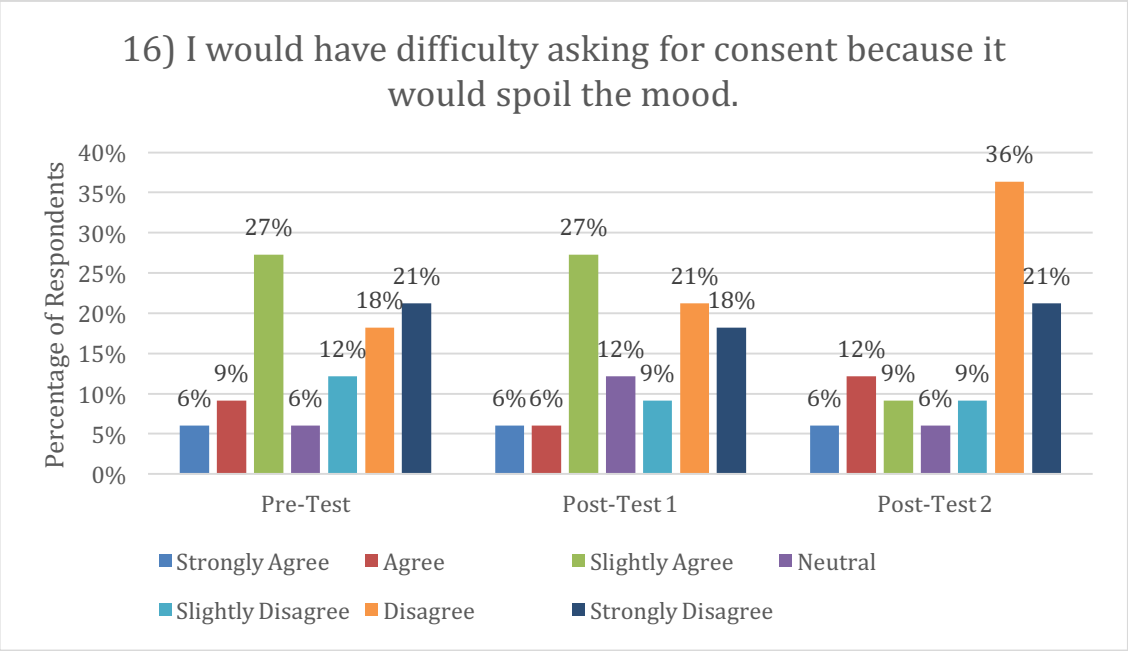
Item 16: I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.

At baseline, the men indicated that they believed that asking for consent could spoil the mood and result in the loss of a sexual experience. No change occurred immediately after the intervention. On the final survey the men's responses improved, but not significantly. The data is inconclusive in showing that the intervention helped with this item. This may be a topic to spend more time on in the future.

Table 7.32. Item 16 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
16) I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	Strongly Agree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Agree	9 (27%)	9 (27%)	3 (9%)
	Neutral	2 (6%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Disagree	4 (12%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)
	Disagree	6 (18%)	7 (21%)	12 (36%)
	Strongly Disagree	7 (21%)	6 (18%)	7 (21%)

Chart 7.7. Item 16: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



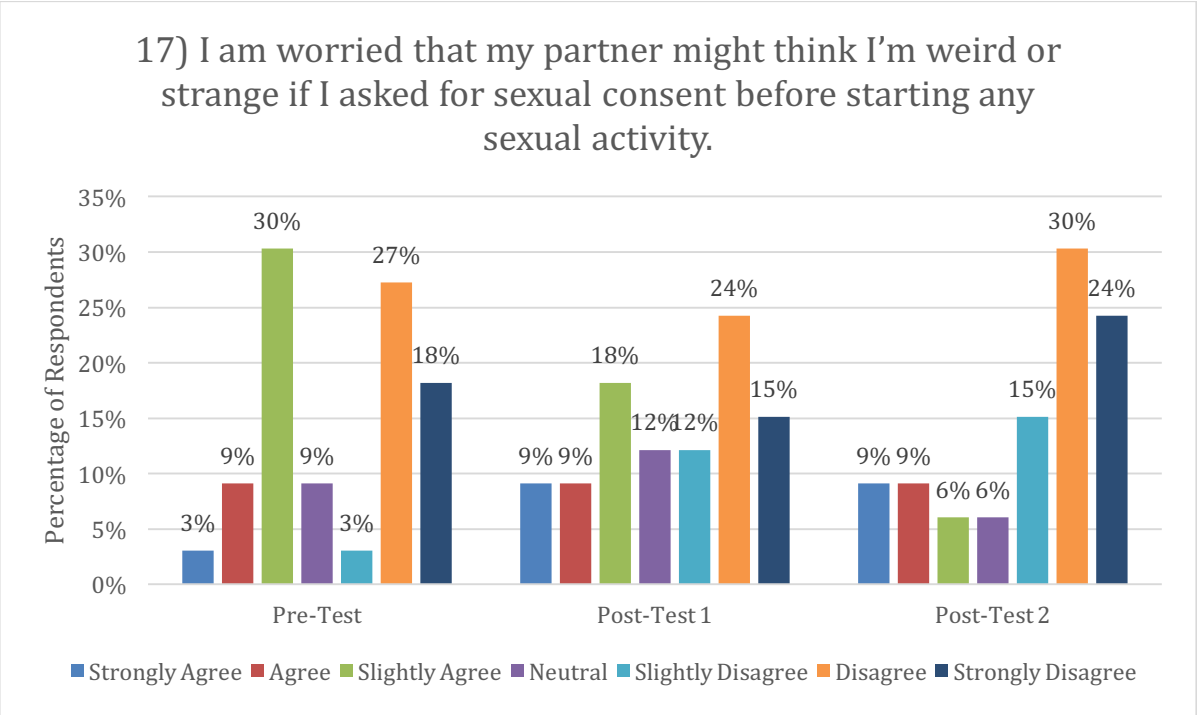
17) I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity

At baseline, 42% of the men believed that their sexual partners might think they were weird if they asked for consent, implying that they were not routinely asking for consent. It appears that over the two post-tests the men's responses as a group improved, but not significantly. This suggests that more on this topic might be needed in the intervention.

Table 7.33. Item 17 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33)

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
17) I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)
	Agree	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)
	Slightly Agree	10 (30%)	6 (18%)	2 (6%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	4 (12%)	5 (15%)
	Disagree	9 (27%)	8 (24%)	10 (30%)
	Strongly Disagree	6 (18%)	5 (15%)	8 (24%)

Chart 7.8. Item 17: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



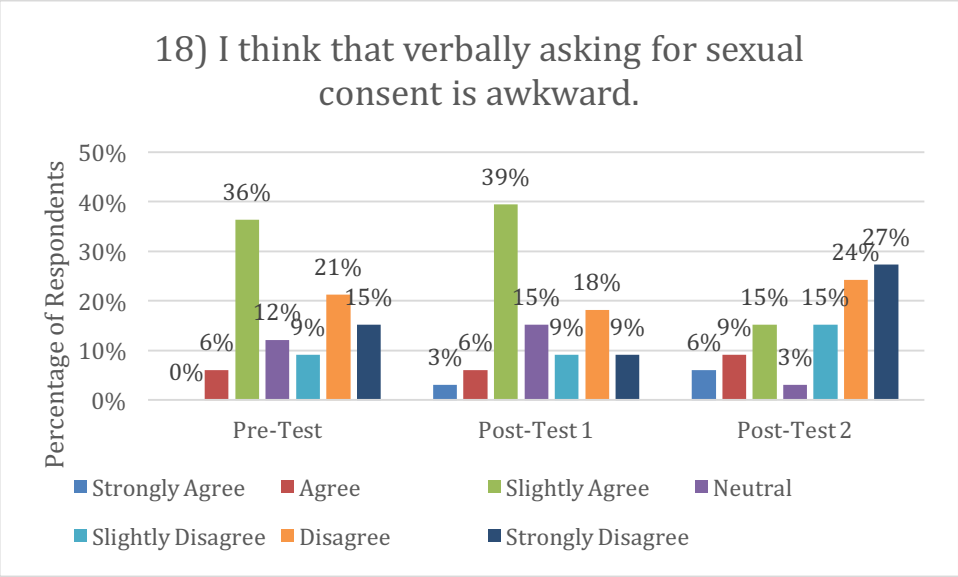
18) I think that verbally asking for sexual consent is awkward.

Similar to the previous item, the men's response at baseline indicated that they found asking for consent awkward. And like the previous item, the men's responses improved over time but not significantly. This is perhaps not surprising because during the workshop the men were embarrassed to act out consent scenarios. I plan to address this topic in future work on the intervention.

Table 7.34. Item 18 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
18) I think that verbally asking for sexual consent is awkward.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	3 (9%)
	Slightly Agree	12 (36%)	13 (39%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	5 (15%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	5 (15%)
	Disagree	7 (21%)	6 (18%)	8 (24%)
	Strongly Disagree	5 (15%)	3 (9%)	9 (27%)

Chart 7.9. Item 18: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



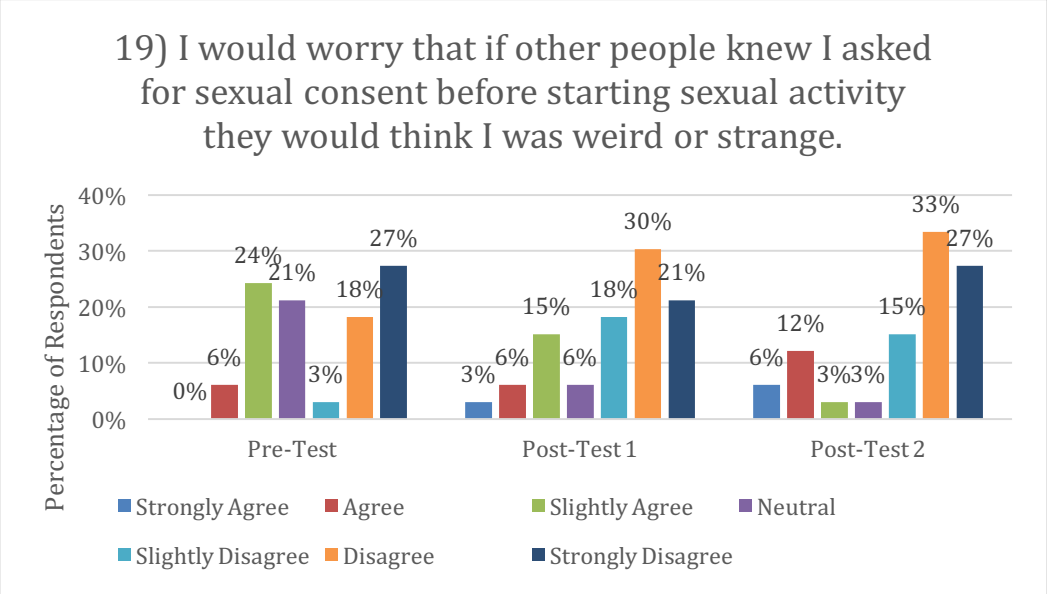
19) I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.

The men's responses to this item indicated that they were not just afraid of their sexual partners' opinions but also their peers' regarding verbal consent issues. At baseline the men were almost evenly split on this question. Over time their responses improved but, again, not significantly. Like the previous items, this may be something to address in the future.

Table 7.35. Item 19 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
19) I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	5 (15%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	7 (21%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	6 (18%)	5 (15%)
	Disagree	6 (18%)	10 (30%)	11 (33%)
	Strongly Disagree	9 (27%)	7 (21%)	9 (27%)

Chart 7.10. Item 19: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



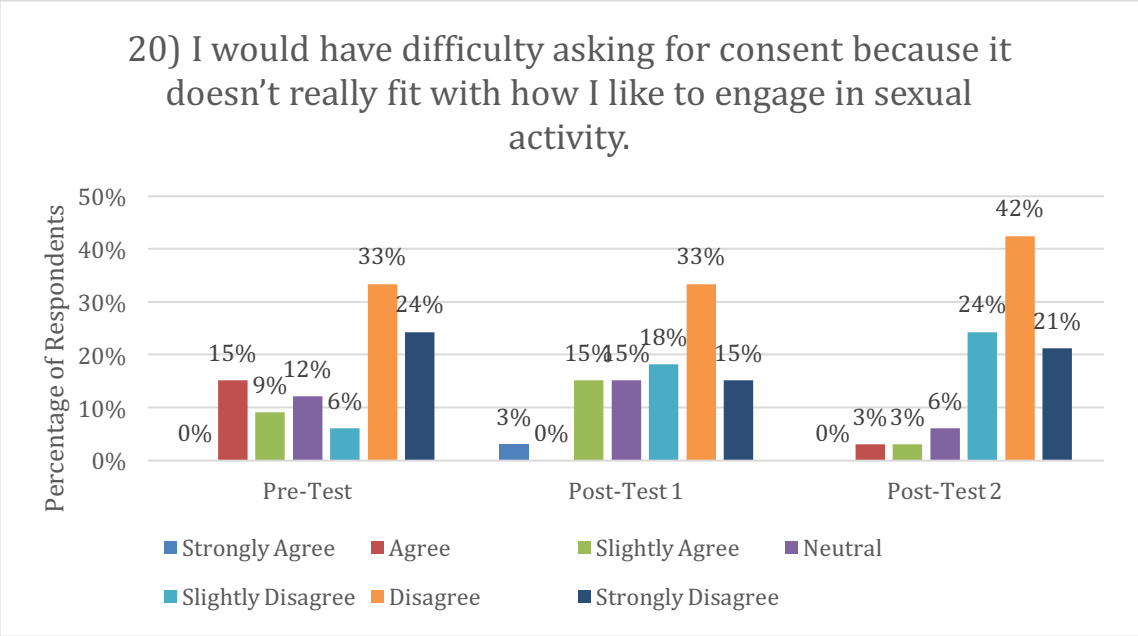
20) I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.

At baseline, the men responded that difficulty in asking for consent was not related to how they engaged in sexual activity. Their responses did not change over time. It appears that this was not an issue for the men.

Table 7.36. Item 20 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
20) I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	5 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	3 (9%)	5 (15%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	5 (15%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	6 (18%)	8 (24%)
	Disagree	11 (33%)	11 (33%)	14 (42%)
	Strongly Disagree	8 (24%)	5 (15%)	7 (21%)

Chart 7.11. Item 20: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



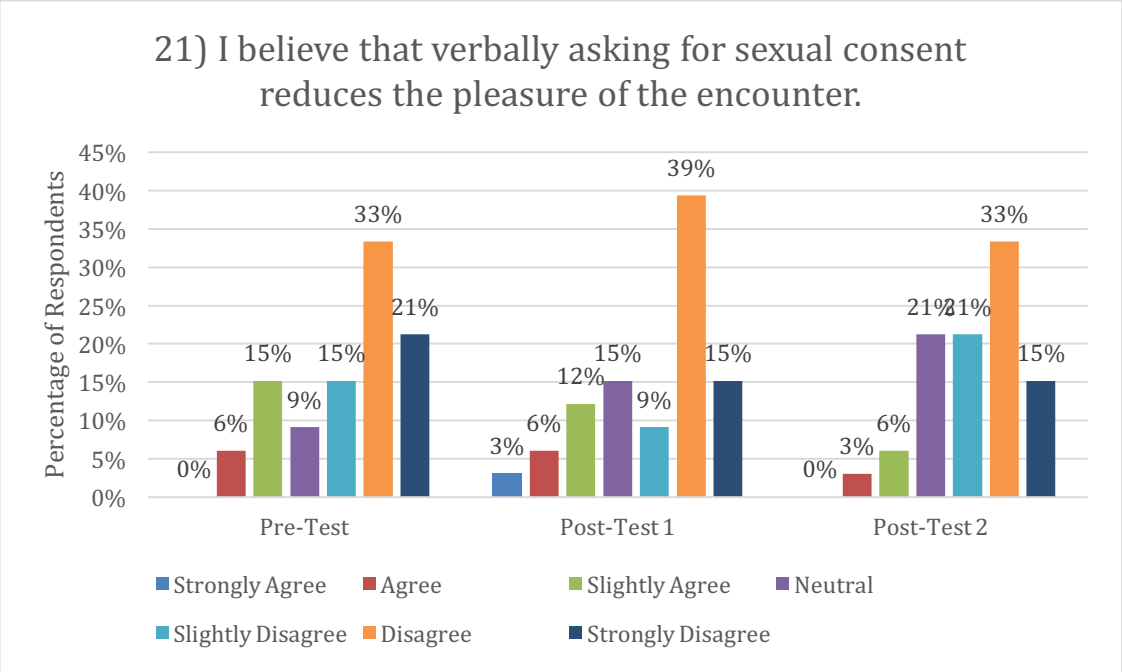
21) I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter

Throughout all three surveys the men overwhelmingly stated that they did not believe that asking for consent would reduce the pleasure of the sexual encounter. While this does not seem to be an issue, the fact that on the previous item stated the men indicated that they did worry that asking could ruin the mood. I believe that this discrepancy exists because ruining the mood and experiencing pleasure are not contradictory experiences. Possibly changing the wording on this item may be useful in the future.

Table 7.37. Item 21 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
21) I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	5 (15%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	5 (15%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Disagree	5 (15%)	3 (9%)	7 (21%)
	Disagree	11 (33%)	13 (39%)	11 (33%)
	Strongly Disagree	7 (21%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)

Chart 7.12. Item 21: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



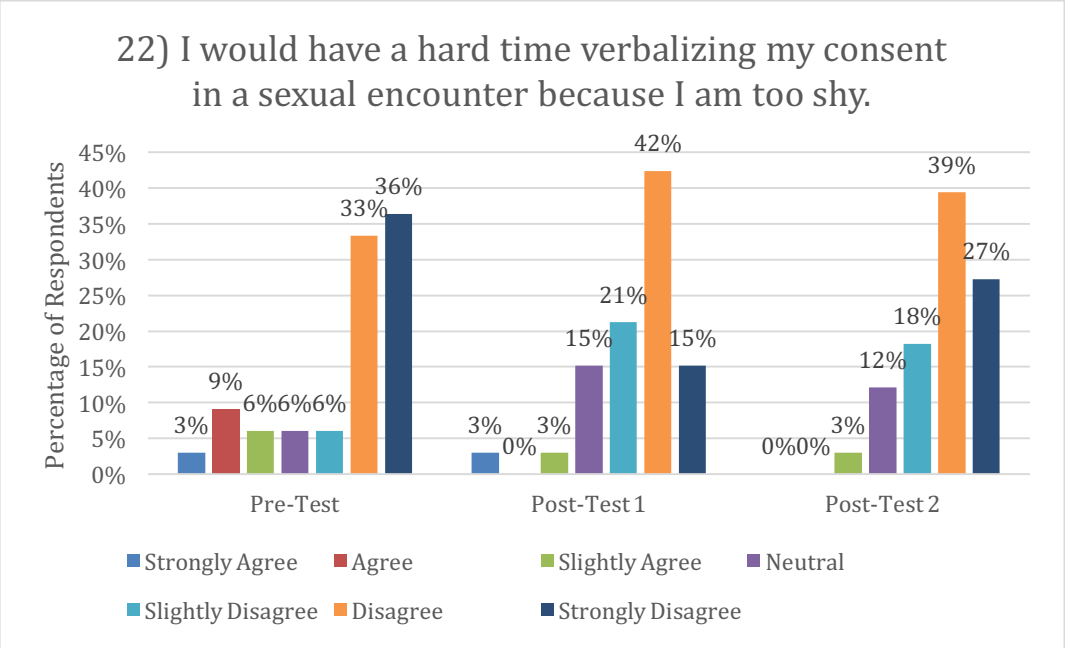
22) I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.

At no point did the men believe that shyness would be a factor in verbal consent. Only a small minority agreed with this item and that proportion went down over time. (Pre-Test: 18%, Post-Test: 6%, Post-Test2: 3%) This was not an issue for the men. minority (Pre-Test: 18%, Post-Test: 6%, Post-Test2: 3%)

Table 7.38. Item 22 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
22) I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Agree	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	2 (6%)	5 (15%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	7 (21%)	6 (18%)
	Disagree	11 (33%)	14 (42%)	13 (39%)
	Strongly Disagree	12 (36%)	5 (15%)	9 (27%)

Chart 7.13. Item 22: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



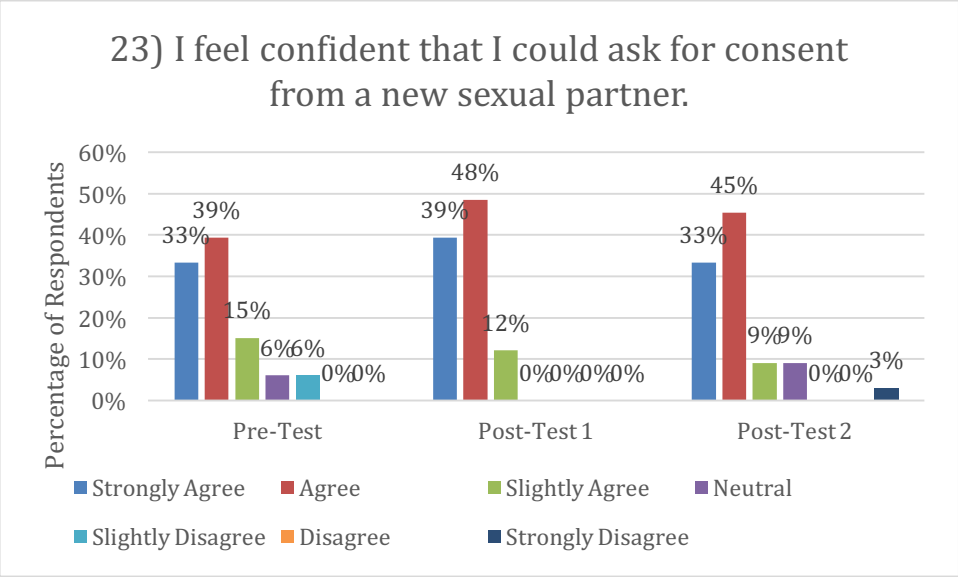
23) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.

Nearly all of the men were confident in their abilities to ask for consent from a new sexual partner. (Pre-Test: 87%, Post-Test1: 99%, Post-Test 2: 87%). This was not an issue and no change occurred over time.

Table 7.39. Item 23 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
23) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	Strongly Agree	11 (33%)	13 (39%)	11 (33%)
	Agree	13 (39%)	16 (48%)	15 (45%)
	Slightly Agree	5 (15%)	4 (12%)	3 (9%)
	Neutral	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	3 (9%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)

Chart 7.14. Item 23: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



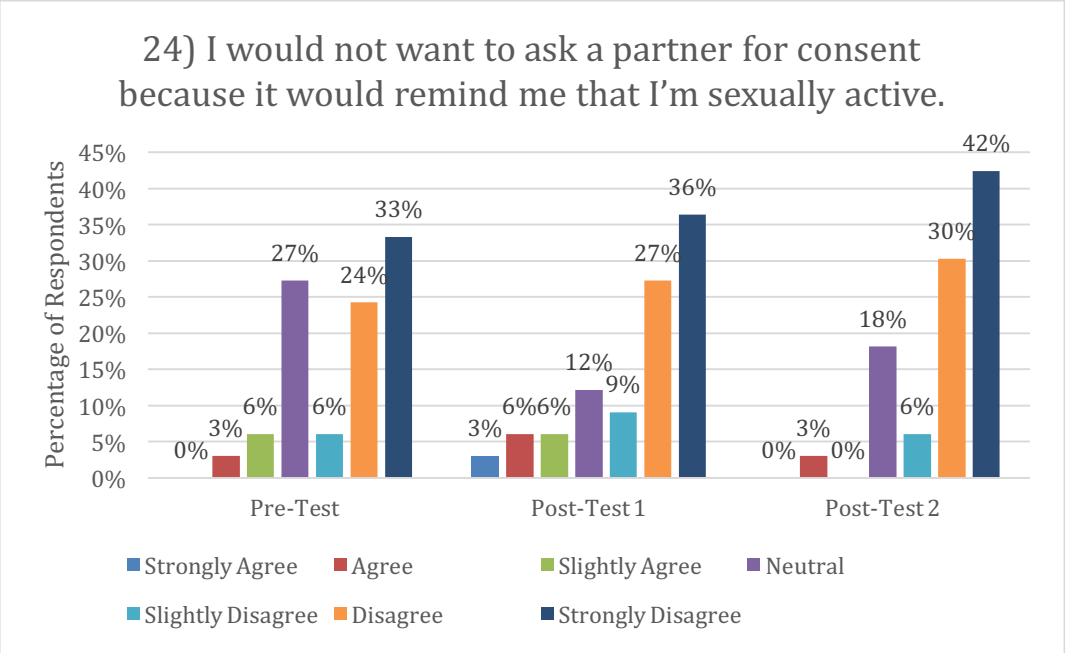
24) I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active

The men did not have any issue with asking for consent in relation to their sexual self-perception. At baseline, 27% responded neutral to this item but over time their responses changed to the correct response but not significantly. I do not believe that this was an issue and I think the neutral responses existed because this is awkwardly phrased and not something I think the fraternity men would say.

Table 7.40. Item 40 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
24) I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Neutral	9 (27%)	4 (12%)	6 (18%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	3 (9%)	2 (6%)
	Disagree	8 (24%)	9 (27%)	10 (30%)
	Strongly Disagree	11 (33%)	12 (36%)	14 (42%)

Chart 7.15. Item 24: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



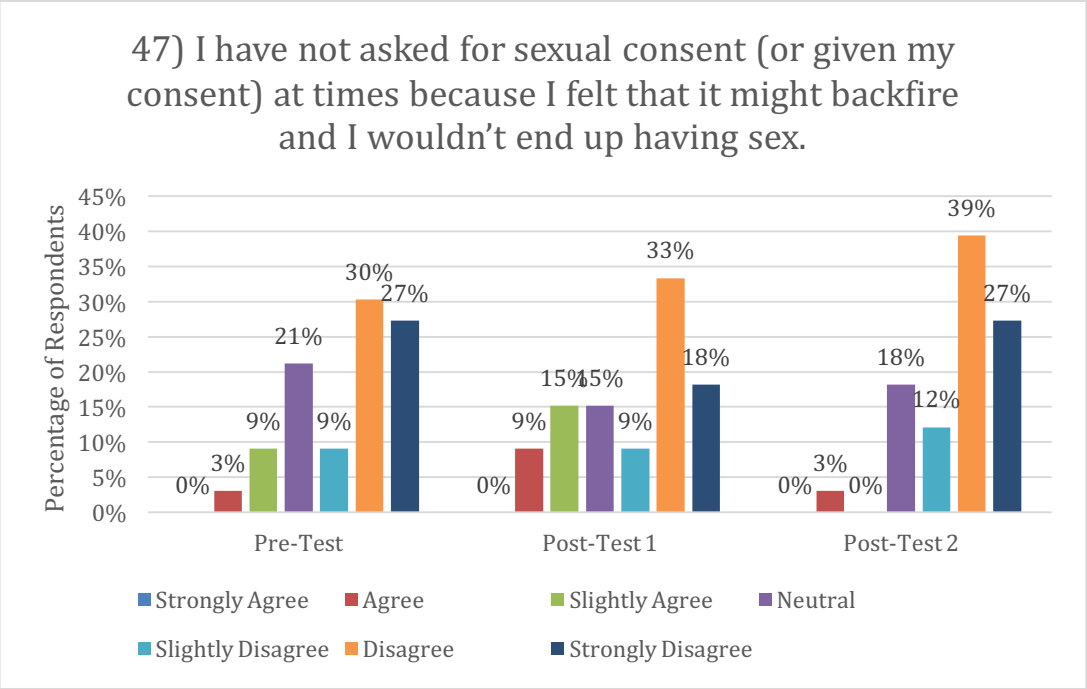
47) I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex.

At no point did the majority of the men respond in a way that indicated that they feared that asking for consent would backfire and end up stopping a sexual encounter (Pre-Test: 12%, Post-Test 1: 24%, Post-Test 2: 3%). Given this this and the two previous items, I concluded that the men did not fear that sex would not occur if they asked for consent. However, I believe that the men may be less sure how to ask for consent, as this was a theme found in the interviews. This is something that merits more attention in the future versions of the intervention.

Table 7.41. Item 47 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
47) I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	3 (9%)	5 (15%)	0 (0%)
	Neutral	7 (21%)	5 (15%)	6 (18%)
	Slightly Disagree	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	4 (12%)
	Disagree	10 (30%)	11 (33%)	13 (39%)
	Strongly Disagree	9 (27%)	6 (18%)	9 (27%)

Chart 7.16. Item 47: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



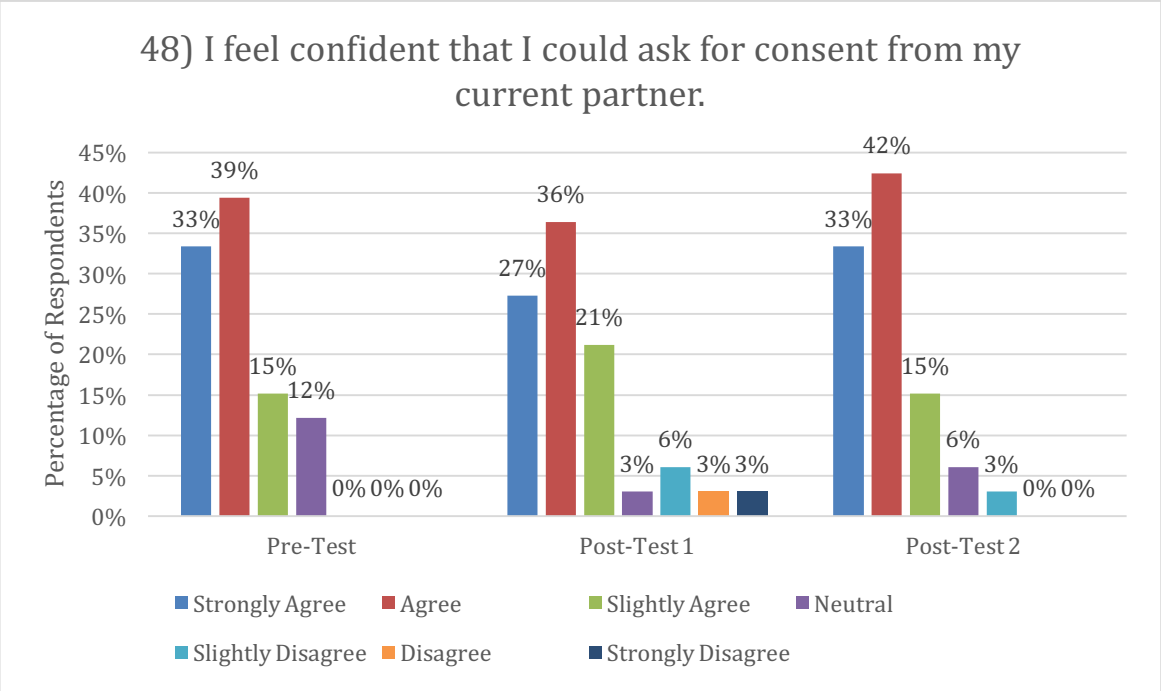
48) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner

The overwhelming majority of the men responded that they felt confident asking for consent from their current sexual partners (Pre-Test: 87%, Post-Test 1: 84%, Post-Test 2: 95%). This was not an issue on any of the surveys.

Table 7.42. Item 48 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33)

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
48) I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner.	Strongly Agree	11 (33%)	9 (27%)	11 (33%)
	Agree	13 (39%)	12 (36%)	14 (42%)
	Slightly Agree	5 (15%)	7 (21%)	5 (20%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.17. Item 48: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Themes for Subscale 1

Table 7.43. Themes for Subscale 1: Lack of perceived behavior control

	Items	Information	Status
Overall Subscale		**No Significance**	**Not an issue but could be improved**
Theme 1:	**17, 18, 19**	**Fears of others' perception / awkwardness**	**Possible Issue**
Theme 2:	**16, 20, 21, 24, 47**	**Being uncomfortable / reduces pleasure**	**Not an issue but could be improved**
Theme 3:	**22, 23, 48**	**Confidence in ability to ask**	**Not an issue**

The survey items in Subscale 1 dealt with the confidence the men had in asking for consent and how they thought other people perceived their asking. No significant differences were found from baseline to either of the post-tests indicating that consent issues were not a problem area. While the men's responses to the questions in the subscale did not show cause for alarm, their responses could still be improved upon particularly where awkwardness and fears of others' perceptions are concerned. While the men's responses showed that overall this was not a problem, there was still some trepidation on the part of some of the men. For example, some men felt that asking for consent could make the sexual encounter awkward and possibly reduce their own sexual pleasure. Some of them also feared that other people might perceive them as weird for asking for consent. Because the men did not strongly disagree with these issues, I believe that this is something that the intervention should address more in the future. While the intervention was successful in presenting new information to the men and may have changed some parts of their sub-culture surrounding consent issues, the men still held some fears about how others would perceive them.

The second theme found in Subscale 1 was how the men felt during the sexual encounter. The items on the survey dealt with the comfort level the men had in asking for

consent and how asking for consent affected their sexual pleasure. These items were not issues for the men, but their responses showed that some improvement could still be made in this area. The final theme was the men's confidence in their ability to ask for consent. The men strongly stated that they felt confident in their skills and could ask for consent. Yet the trepidation found in the other themes suggests that more could be done in the intervention to allay such fears.

Overall, Subscale 1 was not an issue for the men. There was a clear trend that the responses were improving over time, although they were not statistically significant changes. This may indicate that some changes to the intervention in relation to the items on Subscale 1 might be useful. One option would be to run the intervention with more Greek organizations on campus to change the norms surrounding sexual consent in the larger Greek culture. This would allow individuals to feel more comfortable in asking for consent because other people would expect it.

Subscale 2: Positive attitude toward establishing consent

Subscale 2 focused on the attitudes that the men held about consent as measured by the 11 items in the chart below. The subscale as a whole and two items (#7 and #11) were found to have significant changes.

Table 7.44. Results of the Friedmen Test on Subscale 2 (N=33).

	Item	Mean	Significance
Subscale 2: Positive attitude toward establishing consent	PreMean	2.0442	0.016
	P1Mean	1.8261	
	P2Mean	1.8618	
7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.	#7Pre	1.4545	0.000
	#7Post1	1.0000	
	#7Post2	1.5758	
8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.	#8Pre	1.7273	0.753
	#8Post1	1.8485	
	#8Post2	1.8182	
9. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.	#9Pre	1.3333	0.327
	#9Post1	1.5758	
	#9Post2	1.4545	
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	#10Pre	1.8182	0.776
	#10Post1	1.7273	
	#10Post2	1.7879	
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	#11Pre	2.4545	0.002
	#11Post1	1.6061	
	#11Post2	1.8788	
12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.	#12Pre	1.8788	0.900
	#12Post1	1.8788	
	#12Post2	1.7879	
13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.	#13Pre	2.8485	0.183
	#13Post1	2.2727	
	#13Post2	2.303	
14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	#14Pre	1.8182	0.458
	#14Post1	1.697	
	#14Post2	1.5455	
15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed.	#15Pre	2.0303	0.280
	#15Post1	1.697	
	#15Post2	1.8788	
49. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	#49Pre	2.5152	0.170
	#49Post1	2.303	
	#49Post2	2.1818	
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	#50Pre	2.6061	0.616
	#50Post1	2.4848	
	#50Post2	2.2727	

Table 7.45. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Subscale 2: Positive attitude toward establishing consent*

Subscale 2	Mean	Significance
PreMean	2.0442	0.047
P1Mean	1.8261	
P1Mean	1.8261	0.434
P2Mean	1.8618	
PreMean	2.0442	0.131
P2Mean	1.8618	

Subscale 2 as a whole showed significant changes in the men's attitudes towards the necessity of consent from the pre-test to post-test 1, but comparisons between post-test 1 and 2 and pre-test to posttest 2 were not significant. This may mean that the intervention was successful initially in changing the men's responses for the items on this scale but this change was not maintained over time.

7) I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.

While the men knew that consent was important, this item measured whether they believed that consent was needed before every sexual encounter. While a significant change was found, this item was never flagged as a problem issue for the men. On all three surveys the men agreed 94% or more. What is not clear is whether the men truly believe this statement or provided the culturally appropriate answer. More investigation may be warranted for the future.

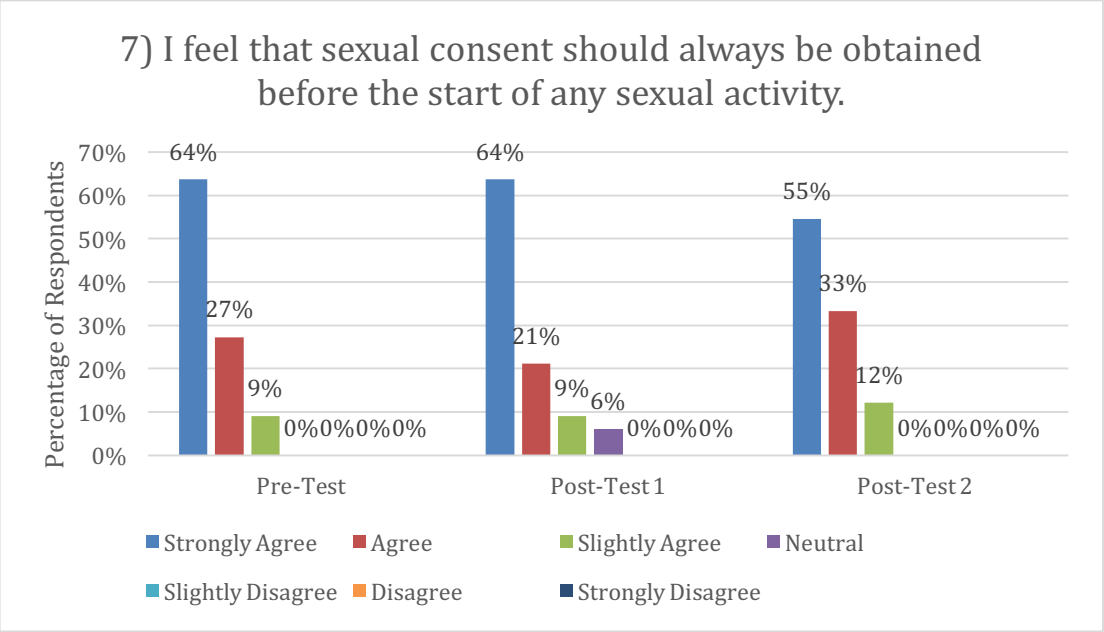
Table 7.46. Item 7 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
7) I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.	Strongly Agree	21 (64%)	21 (64%)	18 (55%)
	Agree	9 (27%)	7 (21%)	11 (33%)
	Slightly Agree	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Table 7.47. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 7*

	Mean	Significance
#7Pre #7Post1	1.4545 1.0000	0.001
#7Post1 #7Post2	1.0000 1.5758	0.???
#7Pre #7Post2	1.4545 1.5758	0.36

Chart 7.18. Item 7: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



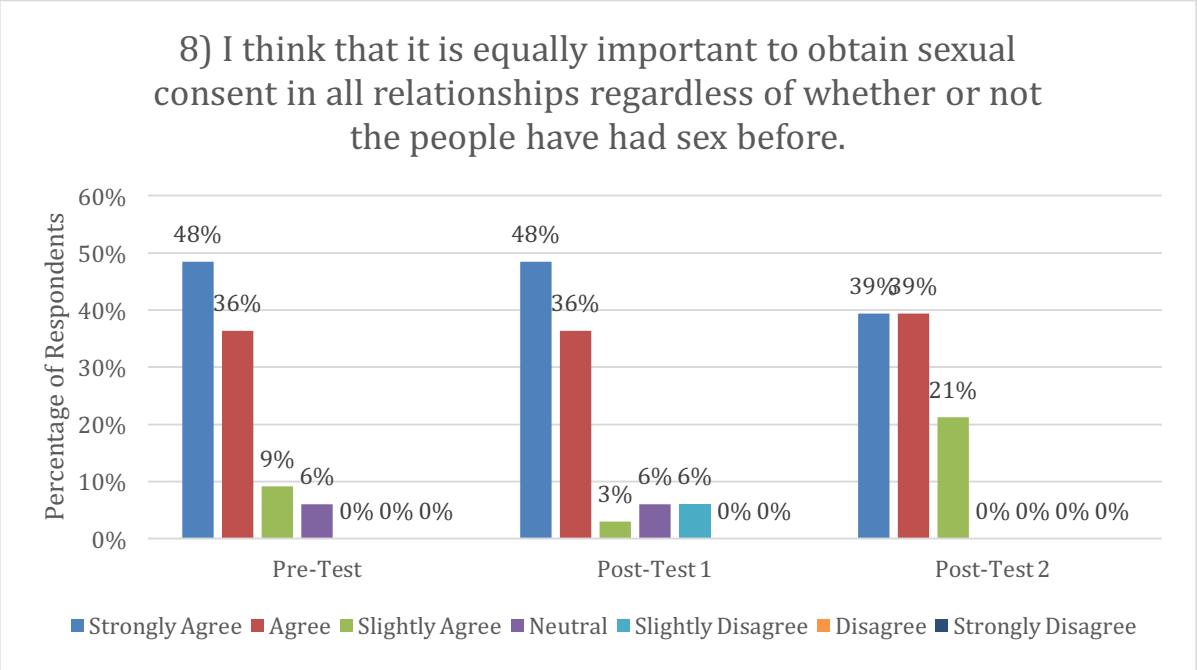
8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.

This item asked the men whether they believed that consent was necessary for all types of relationships. The question was meant to understand whether the men believed that consent was more necessary in casual than established relationships. Across all three surveys the men agreed with this statement. At first, it would appear that this goes against the findings from the demographic variable of relationship status where those men in committed relationships were more likely to believe that trust in an already established relationship made consent less important for every sexual encounter. I do not believe that this is the case. The item dealt with relationship types and I truly believe that the men believe in their responses that consent is important in all relationships. The difference is, I think, that the men do not believe that verbal consent is necessary in every sexual encounter when the individuals are in a long-standing relationship. This will be addressed in the intervention in the future.

Table 7.48. Item 8 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
8) I think that it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.	Strongly Agree	16 (48%)	16 (48%)	13 (39%)
	Agree	12 (36%)	12 (36%)	13 (39%)
	Slightly Agree	3 (9%)	1 (3%)	7 (21%)
	Neutral	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.19. Item 8: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



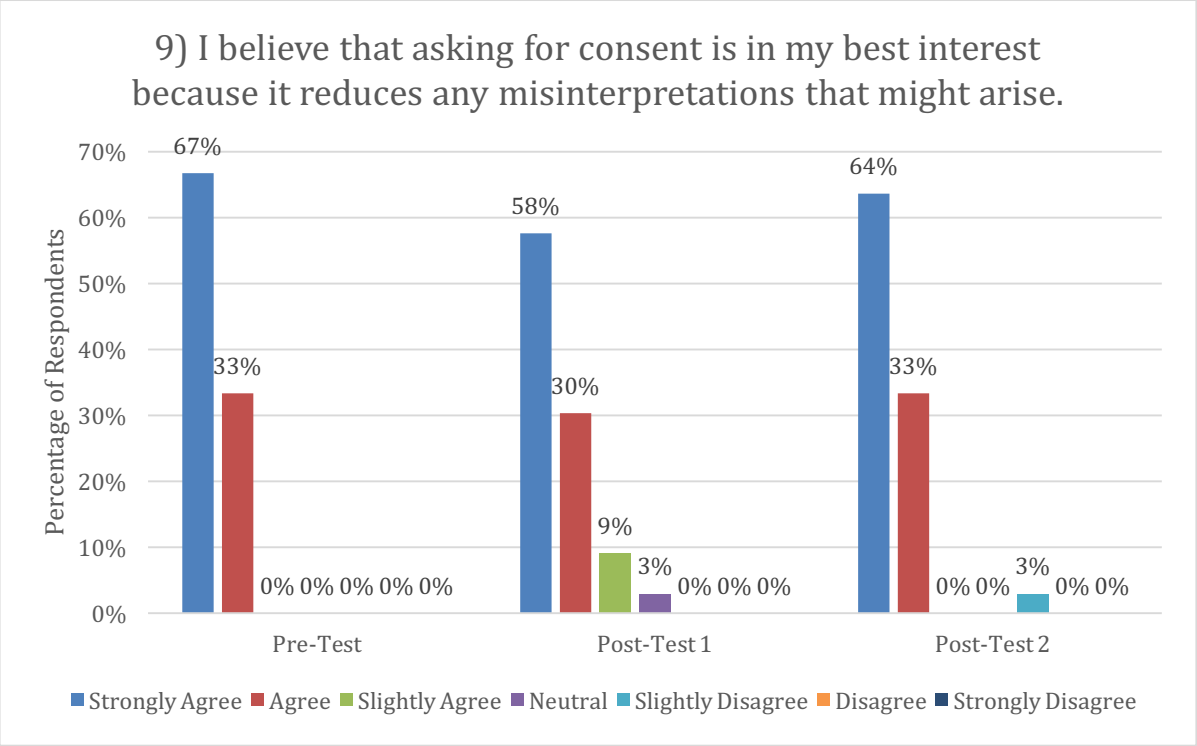
9) I believe that asking for consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise

This item tested if the men thought that consent was useful in making sure that they do not misinterpret their partners' signals. The men overwhelmingly agreed with this across all three time points. This was not an issue and it appears that the men believe this to be one of the reasons why consent is important.

Table 7.49. Item 9 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
9) I believe that asking for consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.	Strongly Agree	22 (67%)	19 (58%)	21 (64%)
	Agree	11 (33%)	10 (30%)	11 (33%)
	Slightly Agree	0 (0%)	3 (9%)	0 (0%)
	Neutral	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.20. Item 9: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



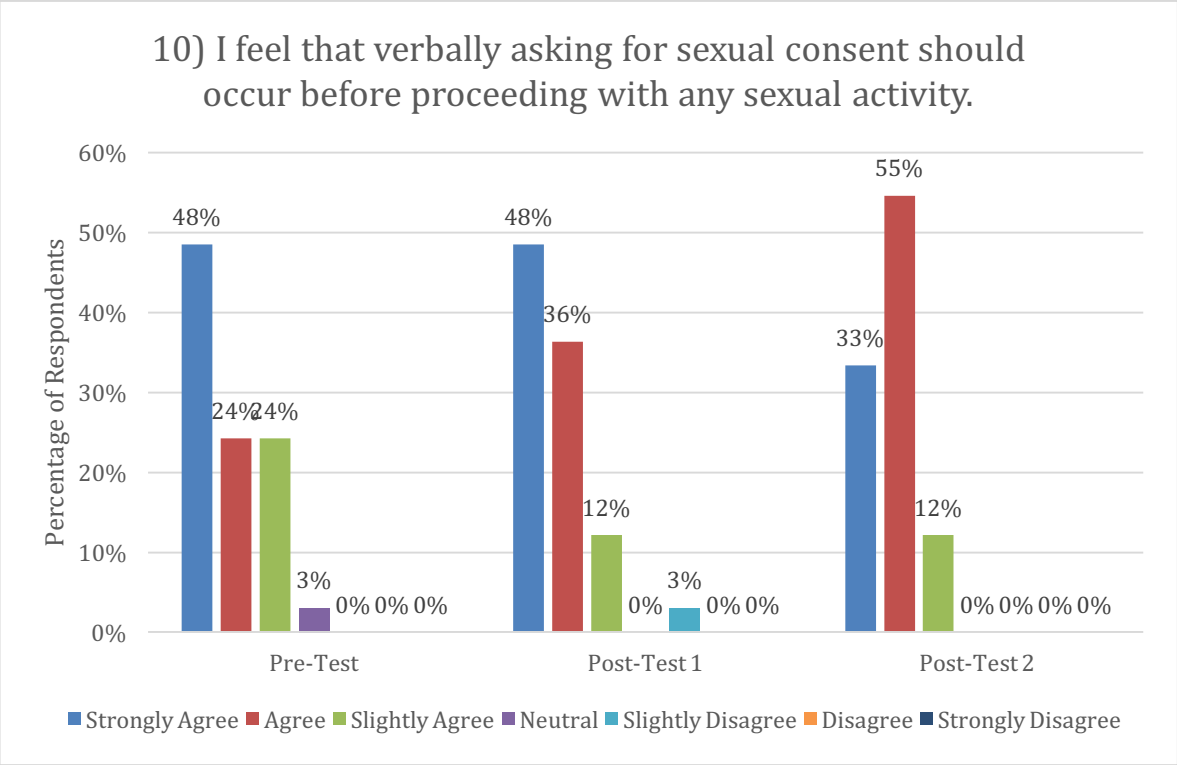
10) I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.

This item measured whether the men believed that consent was more necessary for penetrative intercourse than for other sexual acts. While no statistically significant change occurred it does look that the men's responses, while never bad, became better over time with the vast majority agreeing with the item at each time period. It appears that the men did not have an issue on this item.

Table 7.50. Item 10 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
10) I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Strongly Agree	16 (48%)	16 (48%)	11 (33%)
	Agree	8 (24%)	12 (36%)	18 (55%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	4 (12%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.21. Item 10: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



11) When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent

This item measured whether the men believed that they should always assume they do not have consent until it is clearly given. Given some of the other responses, I expected the men to give the culturally appropriate answer (i.e., agree), yet the men did

not strongly agree with the statement. The Friedman test indicated that a significant change occurred and the Wilcoxon test showed that the change occurred immediately after the intervention. The men changed their responses to strongly agree and agree. Unfortunately, the men's responses decreased somewhat between post-tests1 and 2, but this was not a significant suggesting the change induced by the intervention held over time, but did not get stronger. This indicates that the program was successful in improving the men's belief that they must always assume they do not have consent.

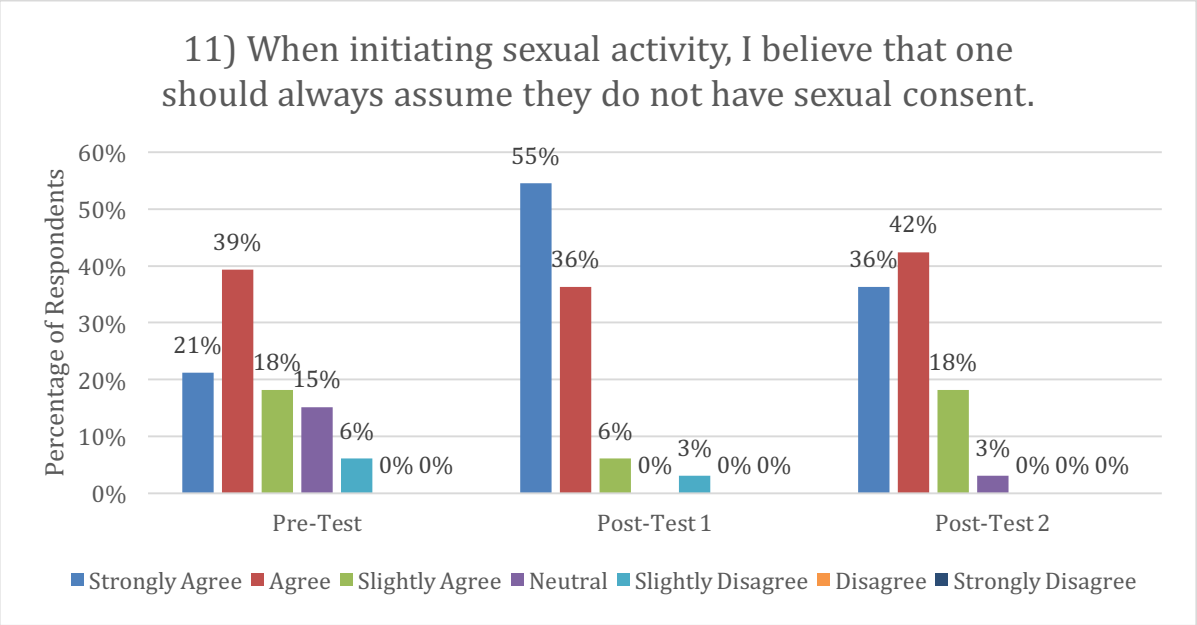
Table 7.51. Item 11 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
11) When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Strongly Agree	7 (21%)	18 (55%)	12 (36%)
	Agree	13 (39%)	12 (36%)	14 (42%)
	Slightly Agree	6 (24%)	2 (6%)	6 (18%)
	Neutral	5 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Table 7.52. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 11*

	Mean	Significance
#11Pre #11Post1	2.4545 1.6061	0.002
#11Post1 #11Post2	1.6061 1.8788	0.119
#11Pre #11Post2	2.4545 1.8788	0.025

Chart 7.22. Item 11: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



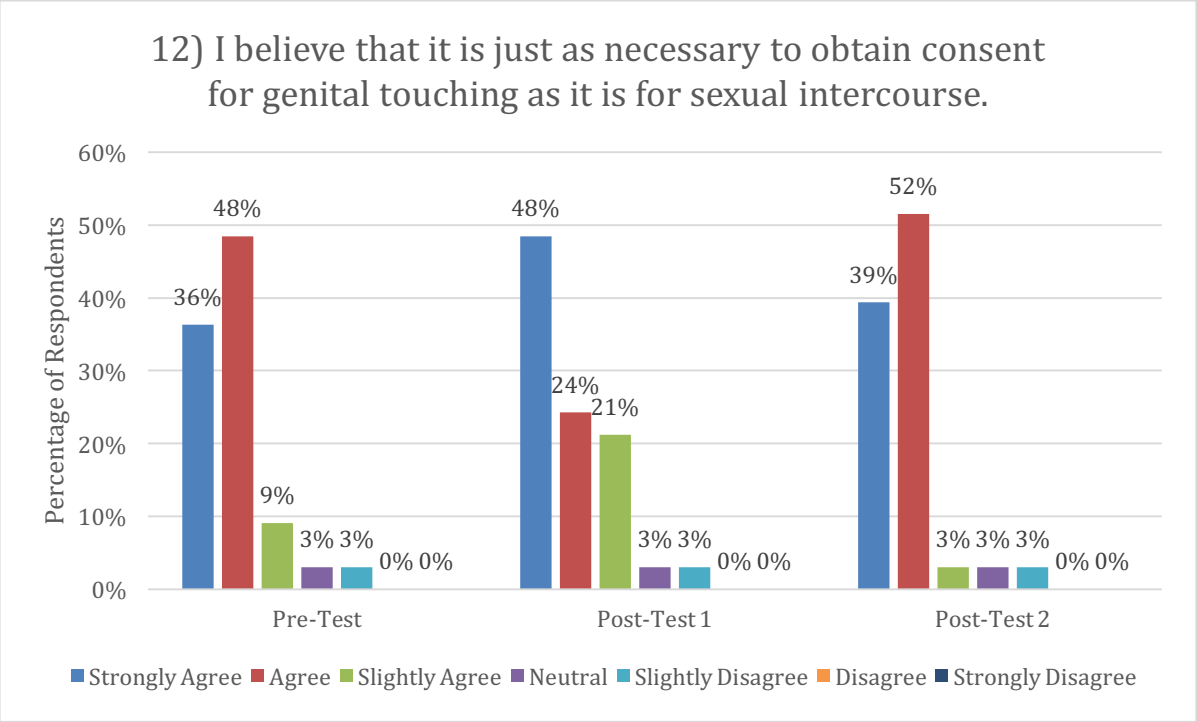
12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.

Similar to item #7, this item examined whether the men felt that it was more important to get consent for penetrative intercourse than for other types of sexual activity. Also similar to item #7, this was never an issue for the men and they responded in the correct way and that their scores seemed to slightly improve over time.

Table 7.53. Item 12 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
12) I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.	Strongly Agree	12 (36%)	16 (48%)	13 (39%)
	Agree	16 (48%)	8 (24%)	17 (52%)
	Slightly Agree	3 (9%)	7 (21%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.23. Item 12: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



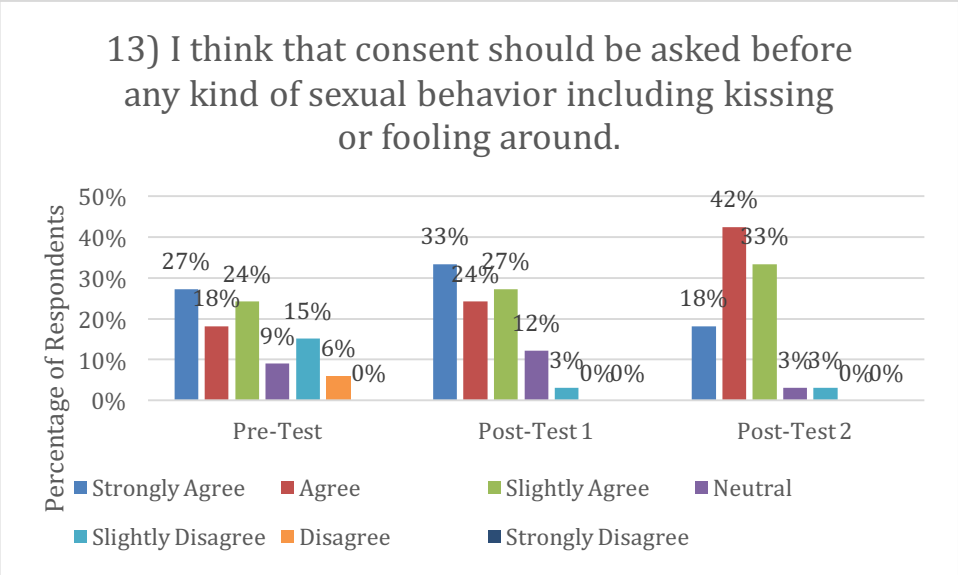
13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.

This item was similar to items #7 and #12, except it specifically addressed kissing and other non-genital behavior. Like #7 and #12 there was no significant change and as a group the men mostly agreed with the statement. Although the men's agreement was not as strong as for the more intimate sexual behaviors, it seems that after the intervention the men's responses improved and were maintained at the five-month follow-up.

Table 7.54. Item 13 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
13) I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.	Strongly Agree	9 (27%)	11 (33%)	6 (18%)
	Agree	6 (18%)	8 (24%)	14 (42%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	9 (27%)	11 (33%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	5 (15%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.24. Item 13: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



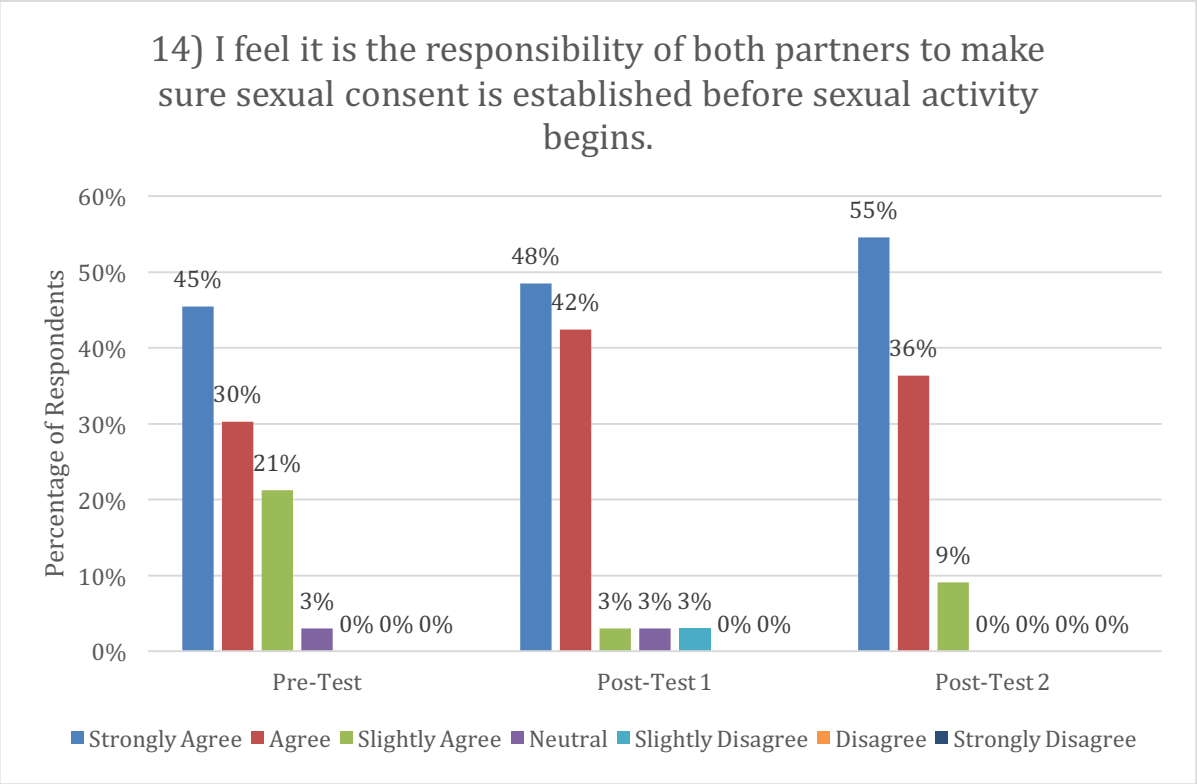
14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins

This item dealt with whether the men believed that consent needed to be given by both parties in a sexual encounter. The men overwhelmingly agreed with this at all time points. This was not an issue for the men.

Table 7.55. Item 14 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
14) I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	Strongly Agree	15 (45%)	16 (48%)	18 (55%)
	Agree	10 (30%)	14 (42%)	12 (36%)
	Slightly Agree	7 (21%)	1 (3%)	3 (9%)
	Neutral	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.25. Item 14: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



<u>15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is clear indication to proceed.</u>

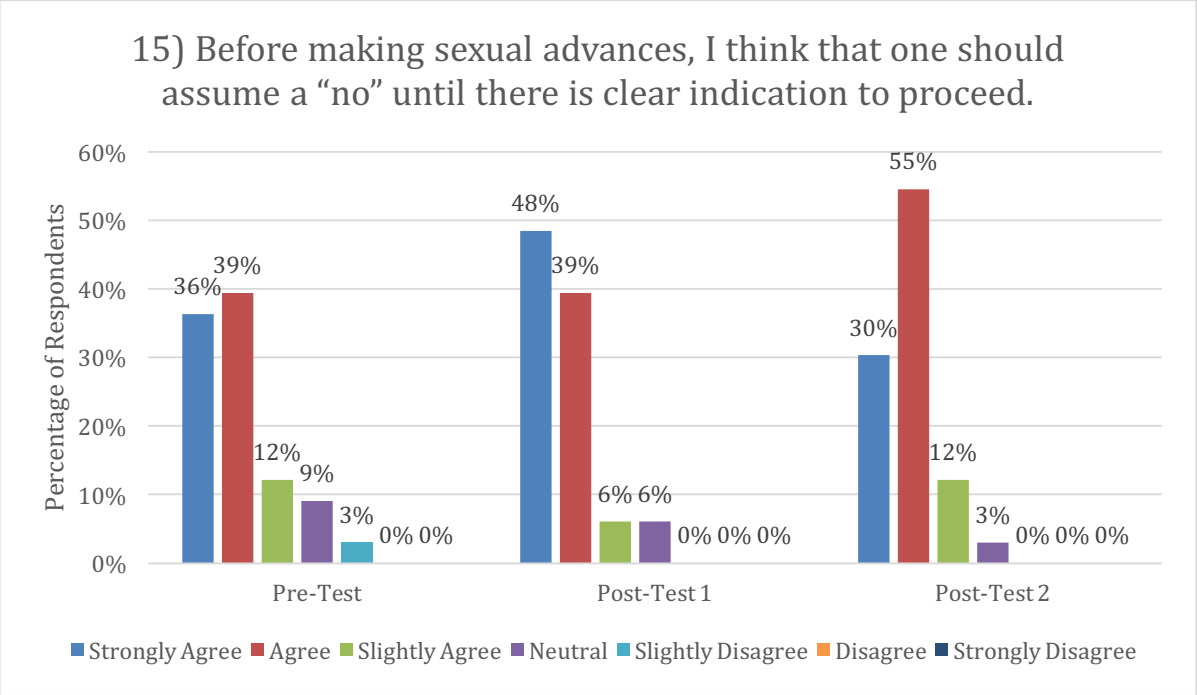
This item also examined whether the men should always assume that they do not have consent until it is given (item 11) but seems to apply to the "courting" stage where attraction or interest is gauged. While there was a significant change in responses for item

#11 showing that the intervention may have helped the men, this was not true for this item. The men gave the culturally appropriate answer at all three time points. This may be something I want to look at more in the future to see why there is a difference between the two items.

Table 7.56. Item 15 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
15) Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume a "no" until there is clear indication to proceed.	Strongly Agree	12 (36%)	16 (48%)	10 (30%)
	Agree	13 (39%)	13 (39%)	18 (55%)
	Slightly Agree	4 (12%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.26. Item 15: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



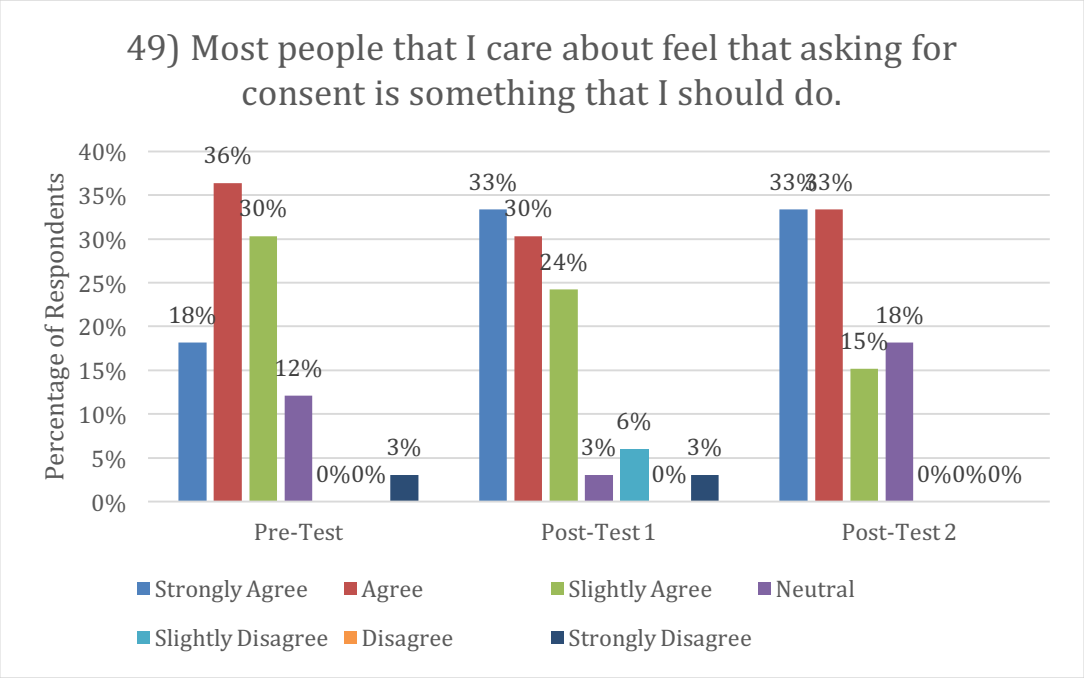
49) Most people that I care about feel that asking for consent is something that I should do.

This item looked at whether the men believed that other people expected them to ask for consent. As a group the men agreed with this item and it was not an issue. A slight change in the positive direction was seen but this change was not significant.

Table 7.57. Item 49 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
49) Most people that I care about feel that asking for consent is something that I should do.	Strongly Agree	6 (18%)	11 (33%)	11 (33%)
	Agree	12 (36%)	10 (30%)	11 (33%)
	Slightly Agree	10 (30%)	8 (24%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	1 (3%)	6 (18%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.27. Item 49: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



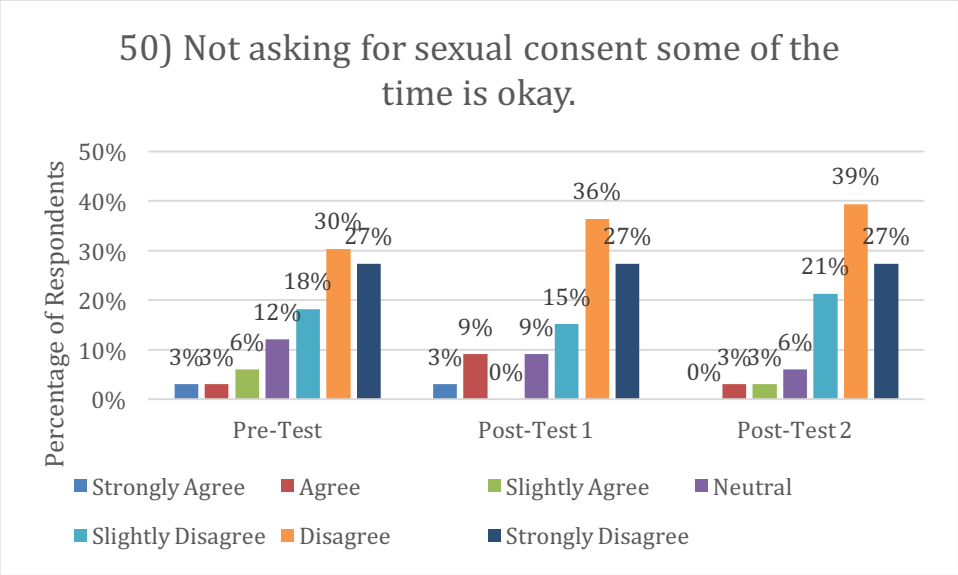
50) Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.

This item tested whether the men believed that they needed to obtain consent for every sexual encounter. As a group the men correctly disagreed with this statement, but I believe that these responses could be improved in the future by spending more time talking about this in the intervention in the future.

Table 7.58. Item 50 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
50) Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	3 (9%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Disagree	6 (24%)	5 (15%)	7 (21%)
	Disagree	10 (30%)	12 (36%)	13 (39%)
	Strongly Disagree	9 (27%)	9 (27%)	9 (27%)

Chart 7.28. Item 50: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Themes for Subscale 2

Table 7.59. Themes for Subscale 2: Positive Attitude Towards Establishing Consent

	Items	Information	Status
Overall Subscale		**Significance found: scores improved**	**Not an issue from baseline to end**
Theme 1:	**9, 14**	**Consent needed by all partners/reduces misinterpretations**	**Not an issue**
Theme 2:	**11, 15, 49**	**Always assume one does not have consent**	**Not an issue** **Scores significantly improved** **Information retained over time**
Theme 3:	**7, 10, 12, 13**	**Consent needed for all activities including kissing and touching**	**Not an issue but could be improved**
Theme 4:	**8, 50**	**Consent needed before all sexual encounters**	**Not an issue** **Scores significantly improved** **Information not retained**

Four themes emerged from analysis of Subscale 2. The first theme was the necessity for consent from both partners in a sexual encounter in order to misinterpretations. The men's responses showed that this was not an issue for them. The second theme addressed the idea that an individual should never assume that they have consent unless it is verbally given. While the men scored well on these items at baseline, their scores significantly improved over time. The last two themes dealt with the types of sexual activities that required consent. The men's responses showed that they believed that consent was needed for all kinds of encounters from kissing to intercourse. While the men showed that they believed that consent was needed for non-penetrative activities such as kissing and touching, these scores could still be improved. The men strongly believed that consent was needed for encounters where a form of penetrative sex occurred. While this was never an issue at any of the time points, the men's responses significantly improved immediately after the intervention but their scores reverted back to the baseline scores, which were already acceptable, at the end of the study. Thus, I do not believe that this is something that needs to be addressed more in the intervention.

Overall, while Subscale 2 was not an issue for the men, exposure to the intervention significantly improved their scores. It appears that the men may have felt somewhat comfortable with the concept of consent but exposure to the intervention helped to make them more comfortable with and better able to understand consent. More work will be necessary though in helping the men retain this information in the future.

Subscale 3: Indirect behavioral approach to consent

This subscale examined the nonverbal behaviors an individual might use to indicate consent to their partner as measured by the six items in the table below. None of the items on the survey showed a significant change in response.

Table 7.60. Results of the Friedmen Test on Subscale 3 (N=33).

	Item	Mean	Significance
Subscale 3: Indirect behavioral approach to consent	PreMean	4.0703	0.162
	P1Mean	3.8485	
	P2Mean	3.7073	
37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.	#37Pre	5.000	0.186
	#37Post1	4.4242	
	#37Post2	4.5152	
38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.	#38Pre	4.4545	0.729
	#38Post1	4.5758	
	#38Post2	4.1818	
39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	#39Pre	4.7576	0.55
	#39Post1	4.9091	
	#39Post2	4.5758	
40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	#40Pre	2.8788	0.131
	#40Post1	2.3939	
	#40Post2	2.4242	
41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	#41Pre	3.5758	0.349
	#41Post1	3.1515	
	#41Post2	3.2424	
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	#42Pre	3.7576	0.691
	#42Post1	3.6364	
	#42Post2	3.303	

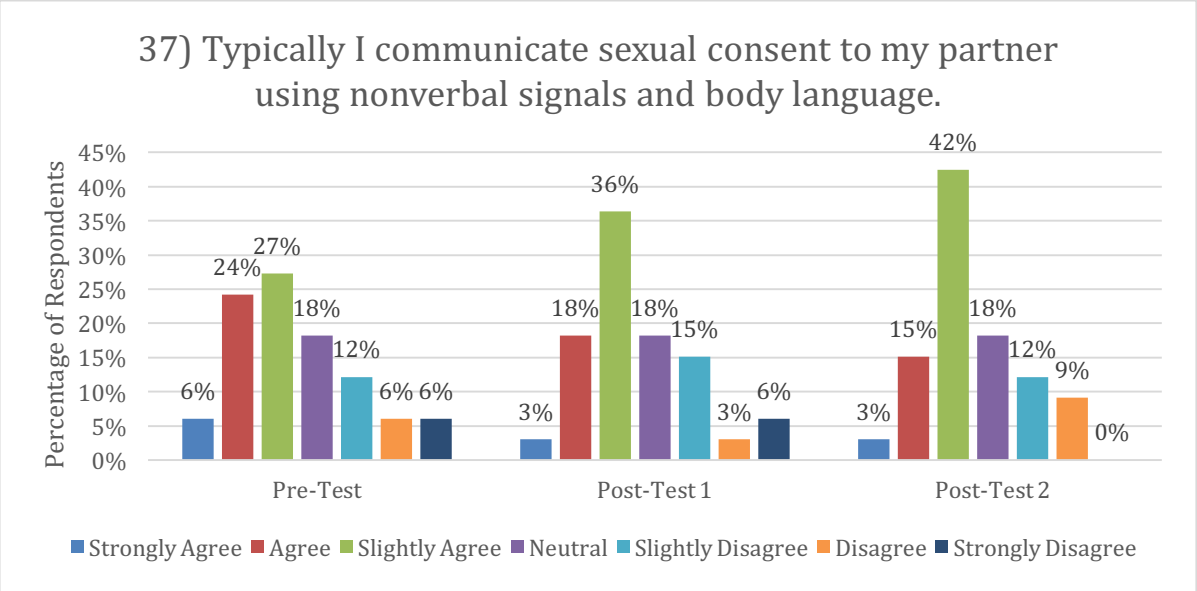
37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.

This item addressed the men's use and understanding of nonverbal modes of communicating consent. Many of the men use non-verbal signals to indicate their interest and consent to their partners. While this is a normal behavior, it is not ideal when it is not accompanied by clear verbal consent. This belief did not change after the intervention. This is only a problem if it is the only form of consent used, but that is not addressed in the question as written. On future surveys I will need to revise the question to determine if the need for verbal communication needs to be addressed more in the intervention.

Table 7.61. Item 37 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
37) Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.	Strongly Agree	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	8 (24%)	6 (18%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Agree	9 (27%)	12 (36%)	14 (42%)
	Neutral	6 (18%)	6 (18%)	6 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	4 (12%)	5 (15%)	4 (12%)
	Disagree	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	3 (9%)
	Strongly Disagree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.29. Item 37: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



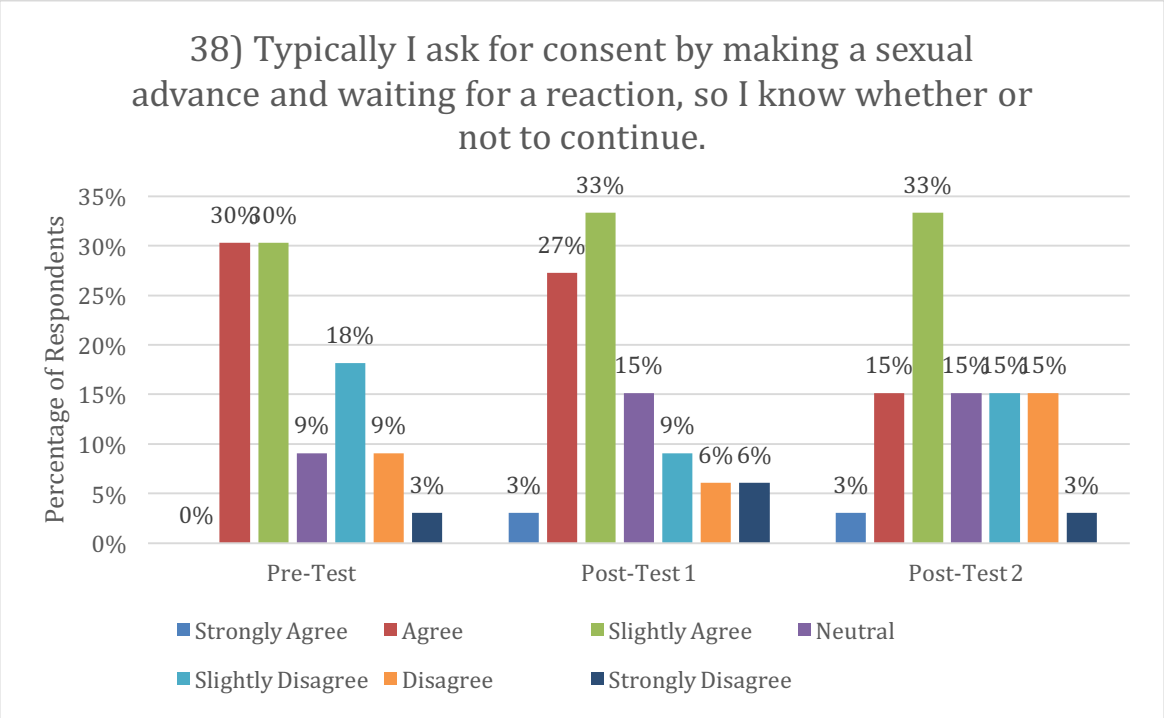
38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.

This item examined how men use sexual advances to indicate interest and assume consent if the partner reciprocates. Unfortunately, the men's responses show that often they do not get consent if this is the only thing they do. Instead they make a move and assume that if a "no" was not clearly stated, then they had consent to go further. This seems to be an issue with the men and I will work to resolve it in future versions of the intervention.

Table 7.62. Item 38 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
38) Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	10 (30%)	9 (27%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Agree	10 (30%)	11 (33%)	11 (33%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Disagree	6 (12%)	3 (9%)	5 (!5%)
	Disagree	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	5 (15%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)

Chart 7.30. Item 38: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



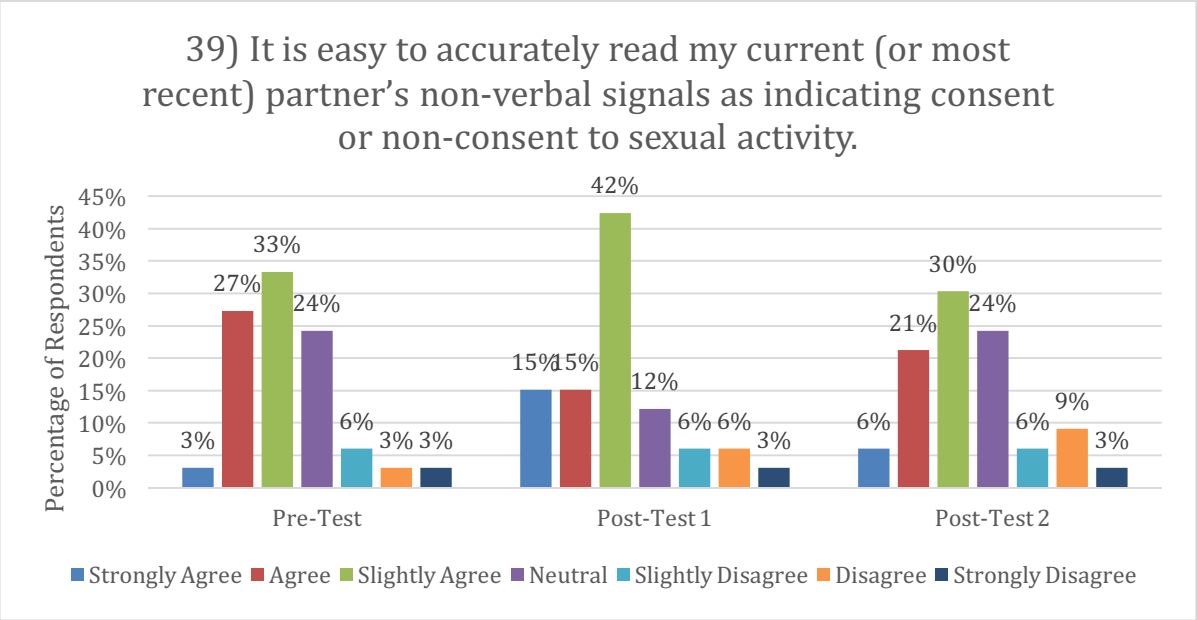
39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.

Like the other items in this subscale, this item may indicate that the men may be relying too much on non-verbal communication in their sexual encounters. While it is normal to interpret a partner's body language in a sexual encounter, in the workshop we discussed how often men misread body language and other non-verbal signs. The issue is that the wording of the item is ambiguous like some of the other items in this subscale. It is normal to interpret body language and this does not preclude also getting verbal consent. If the men are assuming that they have received consent only by reading their partners body language, this would be a major problem and would need to be addressed more in the future. I will revise the survey in the future to clearly measure if the men are relying too heavily on non-verbal communication as consent.

Table 7.63. Item 39 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
39) It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	5 (15%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	9 (27%)	5 (15%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Agree	11 (33%)	14 (42%)	10 (30%)
	Neutral	8 (24%)	4 (12%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	2 (6%)	2 (6%)
	Disagree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	3 (9%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)

Chart 7.31. Item 39: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



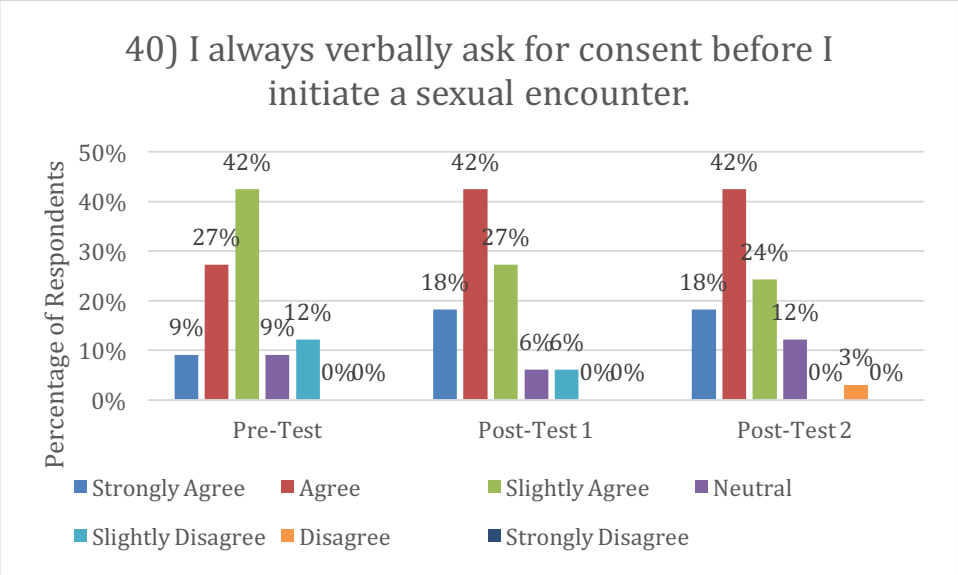
40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.

This item shows that a minority of the men may truly believe that they are receiving consent from their sexual partners even if they do not get a verbal consent. On the Pre-Test the men only slightly agreed, but over time their responses slightly improved but were not statistically significant. This issue needs to be addressed more carefully in the intervention.

Table 7.64. Item 40 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
40) I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	Strongly Agree	3 (9%)	6 (18%)	6 (18%)
	Agree	9 (27%)	14 (42%)	14 (42%)
	Slightly Agree	14 (42%)	9 (27%)	8 (24%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Disagree	4 (12%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.32. Item 40: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.

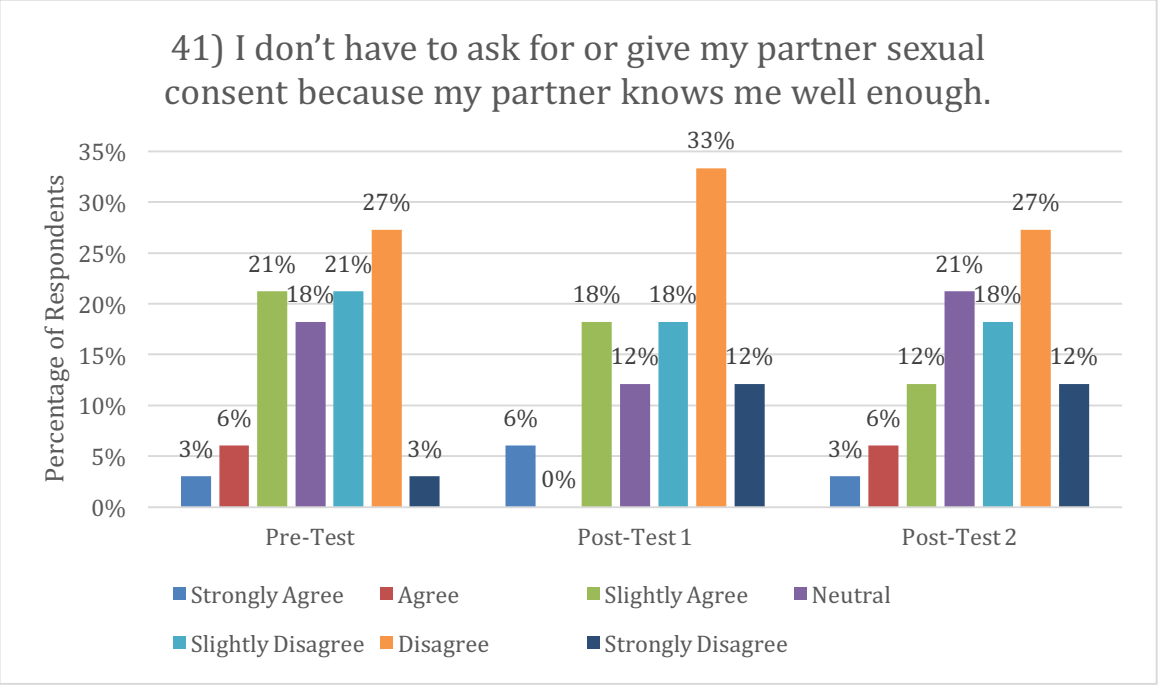
Like the other items in this subscale, the wording of this item is too ambiguous to determine if the men are over relying on non-verbal communication. In the future this item will use a more nuanced wording that takes into account the way partners, especially partners in an established relationship, communicate consent in non-verbal ways. As it reads right now, it appears that this may be a behavioral issue that the intervention was

not successful at changing. More time will also be spent on this during future versions of the intervention.

Table 7.65. Item 41 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
41) I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Agree	7 (21%)	6 (18%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	6 (18%)	4 (12%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Disagree	7 (21%)	6 (18%)	6 (18%)
	Disagree	9 (27%)	11 (33%)	9 (27%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	4 (12%)	4 (12%)

Chart 7.33. Item 41: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



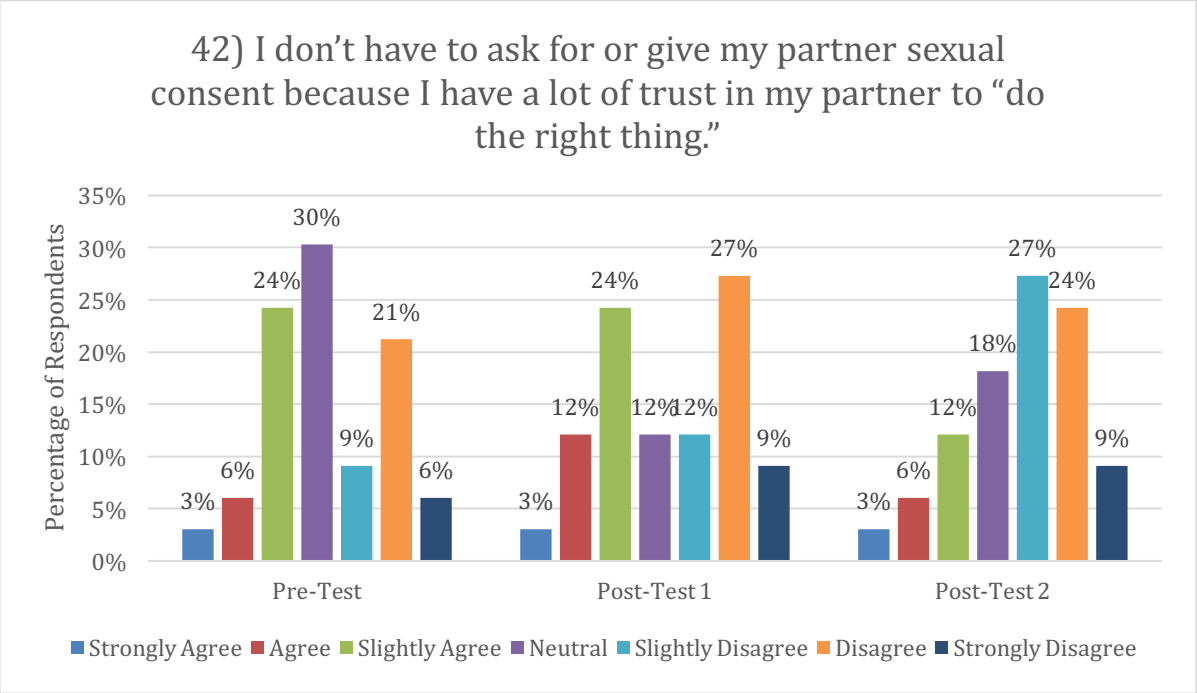
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."

Just like item 41 this item may be too ambiguous in measuring the men's reliance on non-verbal communication. This may be a possible area of improvement but just as in item 41, a revision of the item will be necessary in the future.

Table 7.66. Item 42 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
42) I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	8 (24%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	10 (30%)	4 (12%)	6 (18%)
	Slightly Disagree	3 (9%)	4 (12%)	9 (27%)
	Disagree	7 (27%)	9 (27%)	8 (24%)
	Strongly Disagree	2 (6%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)

Chart 7.34. Item 42: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Themes for Subscale 3

Table 7.67. Themes for Subscale 3: Indirect Behavioral Approach to Consent

	Items	Information	Status
Overall Subscale		**No significance found**	**Possible problem: the men's responses remained neutral**
Theme 1:	**40**	**One needs to always get consent**	**Not an issue but could be improved**
Theme 2:	**41, 42**	**Trusting and knowing a sexual partner does not reduce the need for consent every time.**	**Possible issue**
Theme 3:	**37, 38, 39**	**Nonverbal signs are not enough for consent**	**Possible problem: the men's responses remained neutral or wrong**

The items within Subscale 3 dealt with the non-verbal aspects that accompany consent. The analysis did not find any significant changes in the men's responses indicating that exposure to the intervention did not change the men's responses. However, the questions are poorly worded to address this issue because they address normal sexual behavioral issues such as gauging a partner's interest by reading nonverbal cues, assuming that these replace verbal consent, but there is no reason to assume this. Thus responses to the scale items appear problematic if that assumption is made. The men's responses from baseline to the end of the study remained the same, predominantly neutral on Subscale 3. The problem is that the questions as written do not adequately assess whether these nonverbal items are the only ways the men are getting consent. The topic will be addressed more fully in future interventions and the questions modified to clearly measure if these nonverbal cues are the only ways that the men are getting consent.

Three themes emerged from analysis of Subscale 3. The first is that one always needs to obtain consent. While the men responded to these items correctly, their

responses could still be improved. Since this is such an important concept regarding sexual consent it is worrisome that they did not agree more strongly with this. The second theme deals with the problems of consent when the individual has repeated sexual encounters with the same person and/or they are in a romantic relationship. The men's responses showed that while they knew that trusting and knowing a partner does not decrease the need for consent they did not feel strongly about not getting verbal consent in such cases.

The biggest cause for concern, however, is theme three which deals with nonverbal communication and consent. None of the items in this theme exhibited significant change. This is a major problem if we assume that this is the only way they are getting consent, but they questions do not clearly state that. Thus, it is not surprising that the men's responses ranged from neutral to wrong because these are normal behaviors that do not preclude also getting verbal consent. If the men believed that nonverbal communication was enough to obtain consent this would be problematic but that can not be assumed here.

Overall, Subscale 3 showed a potential problem with the intervention. At baseline the men believed that nonverbal signs and body language could be used to obtain consent in a sexual encounter. Exposure to the intervention did not change this. The intervention clearly covered the need for verbal consent and reasons why nonverbal consent is not enough, but the subscale questions do not clearly indicate that only nonverbal consent is problematic. Obviously, humans read body language and develop understandings with each other over time. This will be addressed in the intervention more fully and the fact that that is not enough to establish consent. In addition, the questions will be edited to

state clearly that the person believes that nonverbal assent is the only way consent is obtained to better measure this issue.

Subscale 4: Sexual consent norms

The items in this subscale dealt with the individual's beliefs about consent in regards to the type of relationship they had with their sexual partners as measured by the seven items below. The subscale as a whole and three items in the subscale showed a significant improvement in response. The issue is that even though the responses improved they did not improve enough to indicate that the men truly understand and agree with the items.

Table 7.68. Results of the Friedmen Test on Subscale 4 (N=33).

	Item	Mean	Significance
Subscale 4: Sexual Consent Norms	PreMean P1Mean P2Mean	4.757 4.3639 4.0694	0.005
25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	#25Pre #25Post1 #25Post2	4.3939 4.0909 3.5455	0.016
26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.	#26Pre #26Post1 #26Post2	5.2727 4.8788 4.7273	0.164
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	#27Pre #27Post1 #27Post2	5.0909 5.0606 4.6667	0.143
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	#29Pre #29Post1 #29Post2	5.7273 5.4242 4.9697	0.005
35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter	#35Pre #35Post1 #35Post2	4.2121 3.6364 3.6667	0.085
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	#36Pre #36Post1 #36Post2	3.0303 2.8485 2.5455	0.190
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed.	#51Pre #51Post1 #51Post2	5.5758 4.6061 4.3636	0.001

Table 7.69. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: Subscale 4: Sexual Consent Norms

	Mean	Sig.
PreMean	4.757	0.005
P1Mean	4.3639	
P1Mean	4.3639	0.169
P2Mean	4.0694	
PreMean	4.757	0.005
P2Mean	4.0694	

The Wilcoxon test showed that a significant change was found between Pre-Test to Post-Test 1 and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. This means that the intervention was effective in changing the men's responses and that those changes were sustained over time.

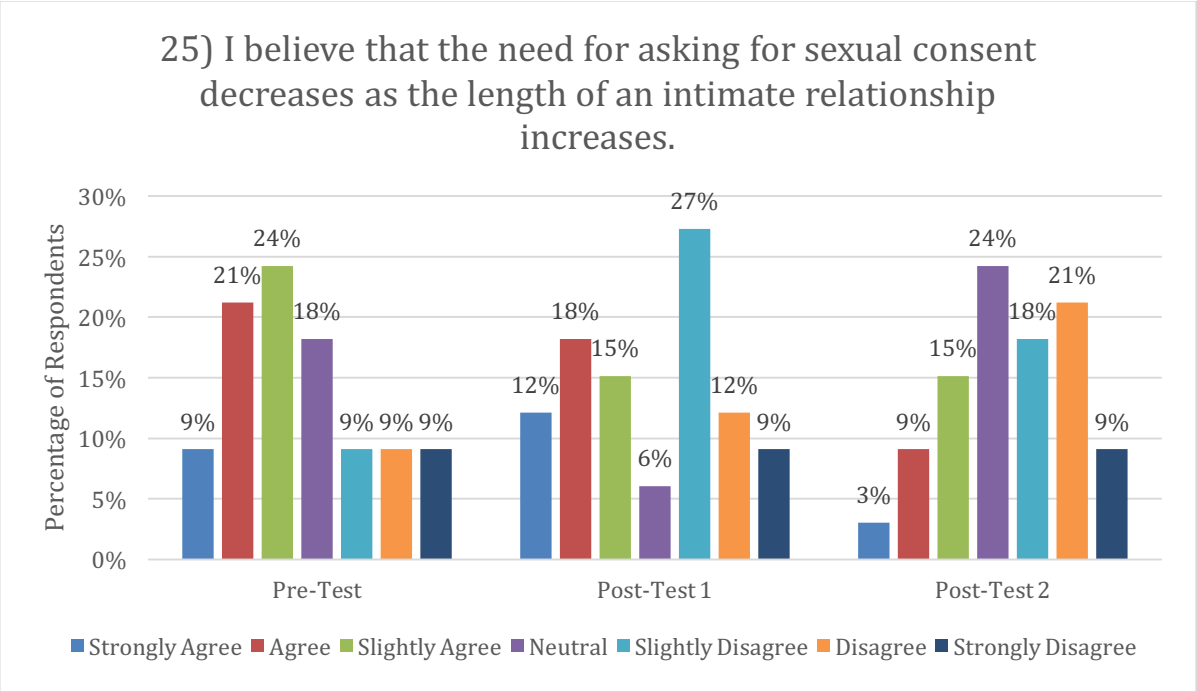
25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.

This item dealt with the men's belief that consent may be less important in an intimate relationship where consent had been given earlier. At baseline the men's responses were spread over the range of responses but tended toward a neutral response. Thus, this is a problematic issue. The Friedman test showed that a significant change occurred somewhere but the Wilcoxon test was unable to determine where that change occurred. The proportion of men agreeing (incorrect response) with this item got smaller over time (55% at baseline, 45% at Post-test 1, and 27% at Post-test 2) and the proportion disagreeing increased (27%, 48%, 48%), but these changes towards the right direction over time were not statistically significant. This is something that will need to be addressed in future interventions.

Table 7.70. Item 25 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33)

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
25) I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	Strongly Agree	3 (9%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	7 (21%)	6 (18%)	3 (9%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	6 (18%)	2 (6%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	3 (9%)	9 (27%)	6 (18%)
	Disagree	3 (9%)	4 (12%)	7 (21%)
	Strongly Disagree	3 (9%)	3 (9%)	3 (9%)

Chart 7.35. Item 25: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



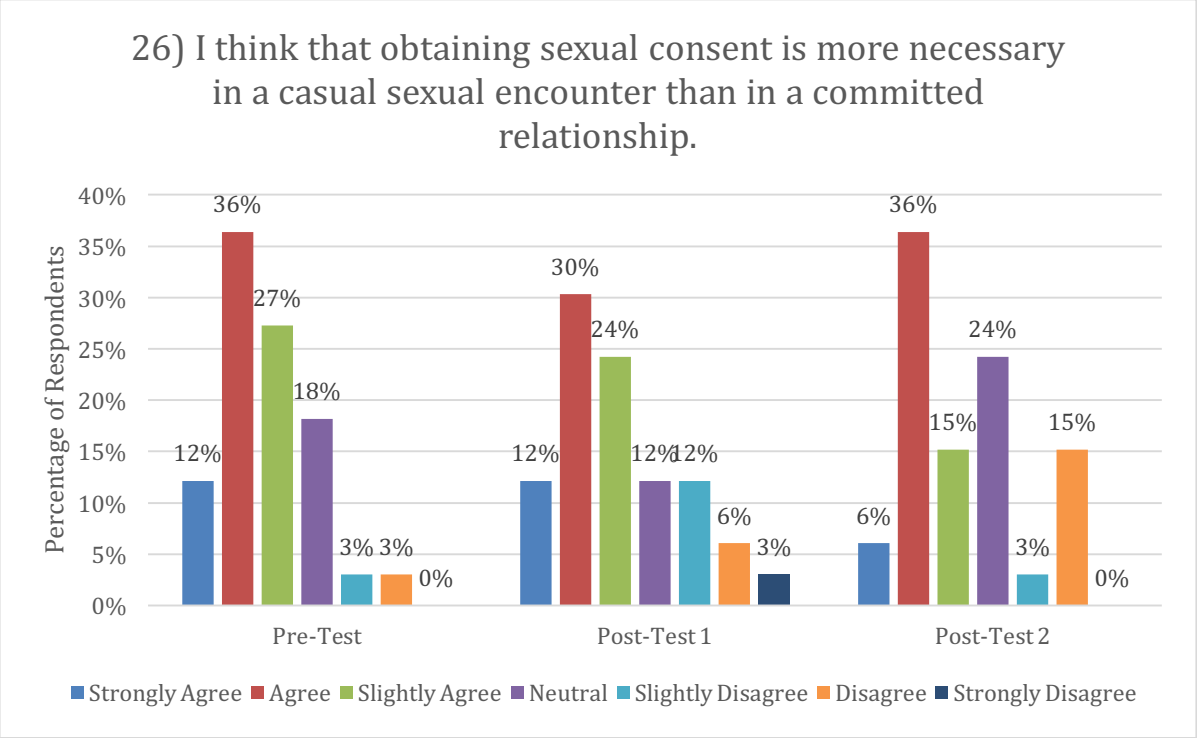
26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.

This item dealt with whether the men believed that consent was more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a more serious relationship. Unfortunately, the men agreed with the statement and the intervention was unsuccessful in changing their beliefs. This is a problem that must be addressed in the intervention.

Table 7.71. Item 26 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
26) I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.	Strongly Agree	4 (12%)	4 (12%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	12 (36%)	10 (30%)	12 (26%)
	Slightly Agree	9 (27%)	8 (24%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	6 (18%)	4 (12%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	5 (15%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.36. Item 26: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.

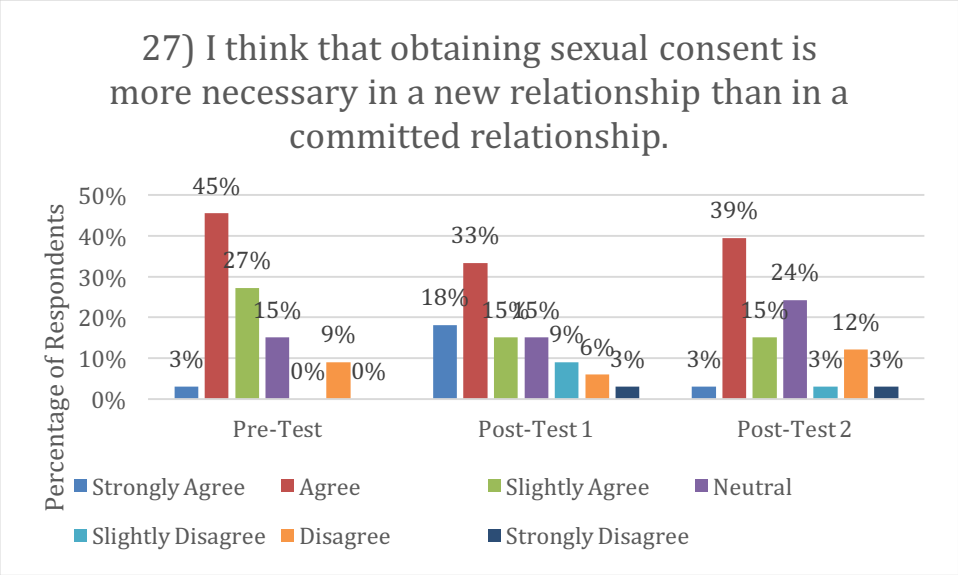
This item also looked at how the men viewed consent in relation to duration of relationships. The men believed that consent was more necessary in a new relationship than in an already established one. At baseline 75% agreed, at Post-test 1 66%, and at

Post-test 2 57%. Like the other items dealing with consent in established relationships this is a problem that needs to be addressed more in the intervention.

Table 7.72. Item 27 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
27) I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	6 (18%)	1 (3%)
	Agree	15 (45%)	11 (33%)	13 (39%)
	Slightly Agree	9 (27%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	5 (15%)	5 (15%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	3 (9%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)

Chart 7.37. Item 27: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.

Like some of the other items this one examined whether the men think that sexual partners are less likely to ask for consent the longer they are in a relationship. Like the

other items the men scored poorly. Unlike the other items the statistical tests showed that a change did occur between Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. It appears that the men agreed with this statement and over time became less sure about it. This may mean that the men were exposed to some other stimuli that can account for this change or that the men needed more time to process the information from the intervention. The issue remains that the change is not enough so more work needs to be done.

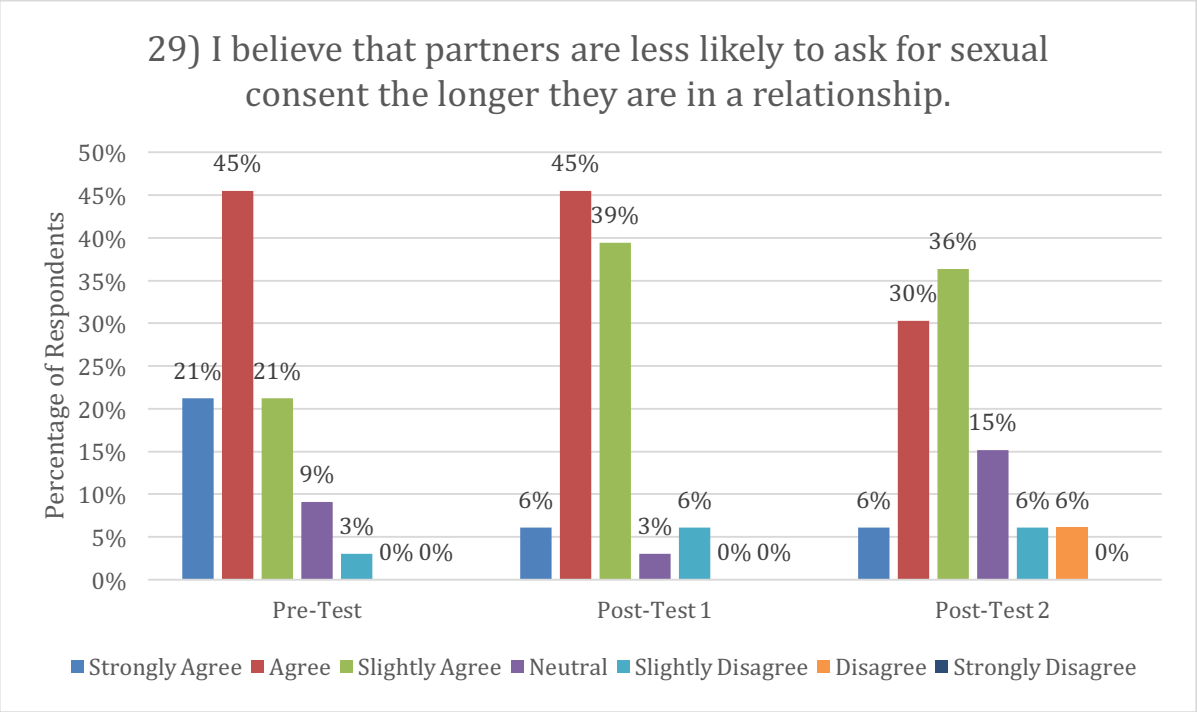
Table 7.73. Item 29 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
29) I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Strongly Agree	7 (21%)	2 (6%)	2 (6%)
	Agree	15 (45%)	15 (45%)	10 (30%)
	Slightly Agree	7 (21%)	13 (39%)	12 (36%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	1 (3%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	2 (6%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (6%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Table 7.74. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 29*

	Mean	Sig.
#29Pre #29Post1	5.7273 5.4242	0.135
#29Post1 #29Post2	5.4242 4.9697	0.083
#29Pre #29Post2	5.7273 4.9697	0.003

Chart 7.38. Item 29: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



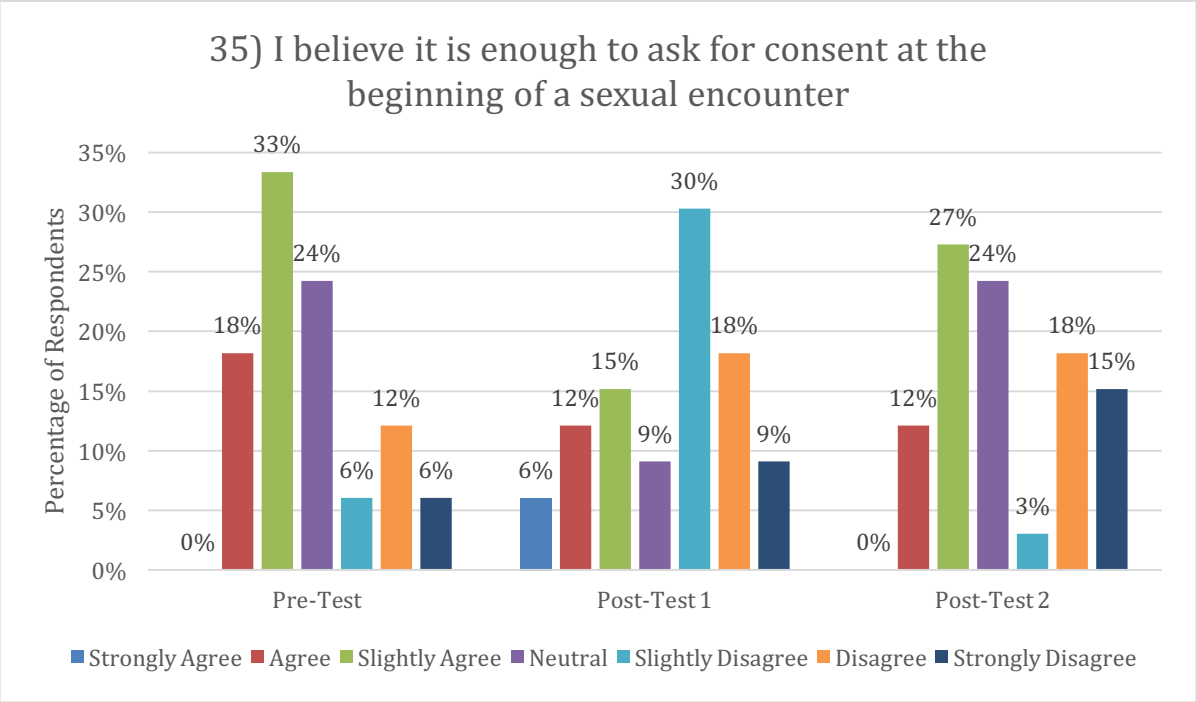
35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter

This item focuses on one of the big misconceptions that men seem to have about consent in that a yes in the beginning of an encounter is enough for the entire sexual encounter. Throughout the surveys the men agreed with this statement. It appears that the level of agreement decreases over time but this change is not enough or significant. So more time must be used to address this rape myth this in the future.

Table 7.75. Item 35 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
35) I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	6 (18%)	4 (12%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Agree	11 (33%)	5 (15%)	9 (27%)
	Neutral	8 (24%)	3 (9%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	2 (6%)	10 (30%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	4 (12%)	6 (18%)	6 (18%)
	Strongly Disagree	2 (6%)	3 (9%)	5 (15%)

Chart 7.39. Item 35: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



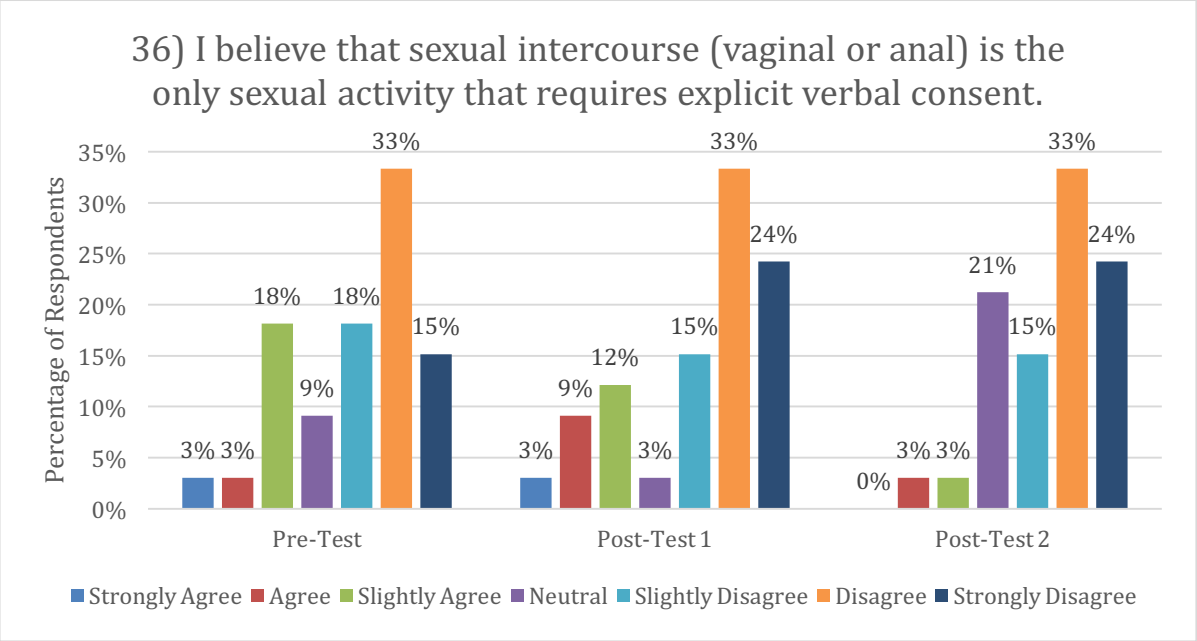
36) I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.

This item dealt with a similar theme from items in the last subscale, whether penetrative intercourse needs consent more than other forms of sexual activity. The men disagreed with this statement on all of the survey points so it is not a major issue.

Table 7.76. Item 36 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
36) I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Strongly Agree	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
	Slightly Agree	6 (18%)	4 (12%)	1 (3%)
	Neutral	3 (9%)	1 (3%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Disagree	6 (18%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Disagree	11 (33%)	11 (33%)	11 (33%)
	Strongly Disagree	5 (15%)	8 (24%)	8 (24%)

Chart 7.40. Item 36: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed.

This item dealt with the assumptions that people make about consent in that consent for one activity meaning consent for other activities. At the beginning the men agreed with this statement. At Post-Test 1 the men slightly agreed less. By Post-Test 2 there was a significant drop in agreement. This finding reveals that a significant

improvement may have been made through the intervention and that change was sustained over time. While this is good, there is room for improvement.

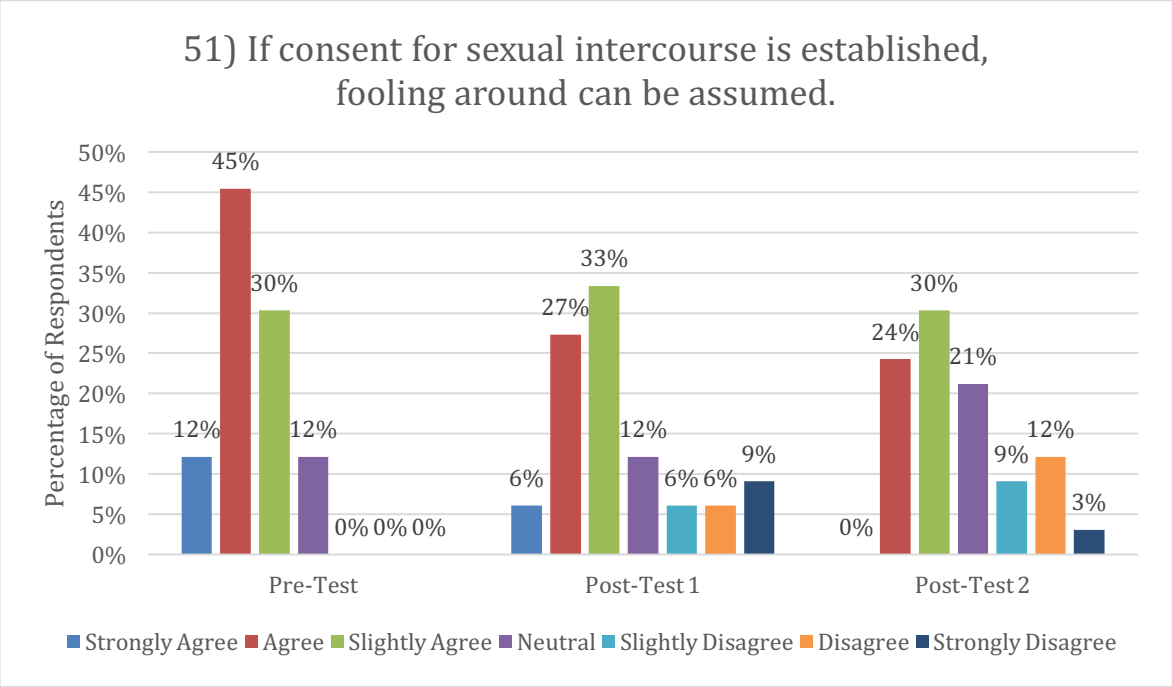
Table 7.77. Item 51 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
51) If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed.	Strongly Agree	4 (12%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	15 (45%)	9 (27%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Agree	10 (30%)	11 (33%)	10 (30%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	4 (12%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	3 (9%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	4 (12%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)

Table 7.78. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 51*

	Mean	Sig.
#51Pre #51Post1	5.5758 4.6061	0.005
#51Post1 #51Post2	4.6061 4.3636	0.451
#51Pre #51Post2	5.5758 4.3636	0.000

Chart 7.41. Item 51: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Themes for Subscale 4

Table 7.79 Themes for Subscale 4: Sexual Consent Norms

	Items	Information	Status
Overall Subscale		**Significance found and information retained**	**Problem: the responses only improved to neutral**
Theme 1:	**36, 51**	**Only sexual intercourse needs verbal consent**	**Need to address**
Theme 2:	**35**	**Use nonverbal signs and body language to communicate consent**	**Problem**
Theme 3:	**25, 26, 27, 29**	**As length of relationship increases consent decreases**	**Need to address**

The items within Subscale 4 dealt with the men's understanding of consent. The data analysis found that exposure to the intervention significantly improved the men's responses and that this change was maintained over the period of the study. While the intervention was successful at marginally improving the men's responses these issue are

still a cause for concern. At baseline the majority of the men held the wrong beliefs for the items in this subscale. By the end of the study the men's responses shifted from incorrect toward neutral. This change was significant but the purpose of the program is to help the men get to the correct responses.

Within the items in Subscale 4 three themes were found. The first theme was about which activities need consent and which do not. During the intervention we explicitly told the men that consent was needed for all activities. Yet the men's responses indicated that they were unsure if only penetrative sexual activity needed consent or if all activities needed consent. This response did not change over the course of the intervention. Thus it seems that the men still believed that it is more important to get consent for penetrative sexual activity than for other activities.

The second theme was about the use of nonverbal signs and reading body language. At baseline the men believed that this was enough and verbal consent was not necessary if these nonverbal signs were seen. By the end of the study the men still held the same belief but their level of agreement significantly declined. Even though the intervention did not change the men's belief, it appears that this is a very strong belief to break and the intervention started to shift the men's perspective. The final theme was that as the length of a relationship increases the need for consent decreases. The Pre-Test responses showed that the men held the incorrect beliefs. There was a change by the end of the study where the men were unsure of their beliefs on these items. While a change was made, more work can be done in the future to assist the men in fully changing these beliefs.

Overall, Subscale 4 was very important and showed both the weakness and strengths of the intervention. All of the themes in this subscale were captured in other subscales and identified as possible issues but in this subscale they were all flagged as clear issues. This clearly shows that the three themes within this subscale are issues that the intervention was less unsuccessful at changing and that revision is necessary in the future.

While the men did not hold the correct beliefs by the end of the study, the data analysis did show a significant improvement in the men's responses and that the men did not revert back to their original thinking. The intervention clearly changed the knowledge and beliefs of the men for the better. While it may not have been enough, possible exposure to a longer intervention with more follow-up sessions may help to alleviate this issue in the future.

Subscale 5: Awareness and discussion

This subscale dealt with the ways that the men discussed consent in their daily lives as measured by the four items below. The subscale as a whole and three of the items in it were found to significantly improve the men's responses.

Table 7.80. Results of the Friedmen Test on Subscale 5 (N=33).

	Item	Mean	Significance
Subscale 5: Awareness and discussion	PreMean	3.6212	0.001
	P1Mean	2.7879	
	P2Mean	3.0455	
43) I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	#43Pre	4.0303	0.000
	#43Post1	2.6364	
	#43Post2	3.1212	
44) I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.	#44Pre	2.9091	0.024
	#44Post1	2.2727	
	#44Post2	2.697	
45) I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	#45Pre	4.1818	0.042
	#45Post1	3.1212	
	#45Post2	3.4848	
46) I have not given much though to the topic of sexual consent.	#46Pre	3.3636	0.146
	#46Post1	3.1212	
	#46Post2	2.8788	

Table 7.81. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Subscale 5: Awareness and discussion*

Item	Mean	Significance
PreMean	3.6212	0.000
P1Mean	2.7879	
P1Mean	2.7879	0.302
P2Mean	3.0455	
PreMean	3.6212	0.007
P2Mean	3.0455	

The overall subscale showed a significant improvement at both Pre-Test to Post-test 1 and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. This means that the men significantly improved on their overall responses from the intervention and that these changes were sustained over time.

Table 7.82. Item 43 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
43) I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	Strongly Agree	4 (12%)	6 (18%)	6 (18%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	11 (33%)	6 (18%)
	Slightly Agree	5 (15%)	8 (24%)	4 (12%)
	Neutral	12 (36%)	6 (18%)	14 (42%)
	Slightly Disagree	3 (9%)	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	7 (21%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

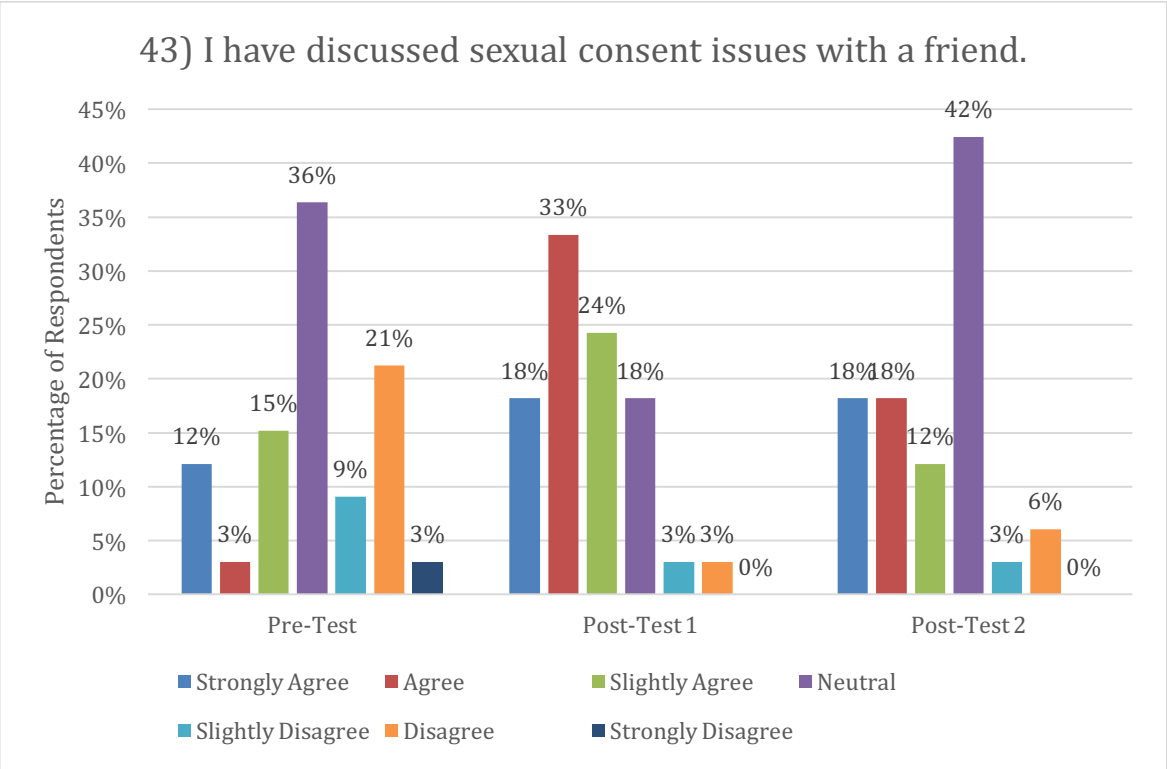
43) I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.

This item examined whether the men were talking with their peers about consent. At baseline the men were not talking to their peers. After the intervention there was a significant change and the men stated that they were talking with their peers. This is not surprising since part of the intervention had the men discuss these issues during their weekly chapter meetings. Unfortunately, this change was not sustained and the men slowly reverted back to their baseline responses at Post-Test 2. It appears that the intervention was successful in starting the conversation but it may not be successful in maintaining changes. What is not known is whether this was because the men had stopped talking completely or was due to the fact that the semester had just begun at Post-test 2 and and they had not had chapter yet

Table 7.83. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 43*

Item	Mean	Significance
#43Pre #43Post1	4.0303 2.6364	0
#43Post1 #43Post2	2.6364 3.1212	0.192
#43Pre #43Post2	4.0303 3.1212	0.1

Chart 7.42. Item 43: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



44) I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.

This item was similar to #43 but this focused on whether the men had heard about consent and sexual assault issues on campus. Just like the previous item the men seemed to score better immediately after the intervention but slowly regressed back to their

baseline response. There is also the possibility that the timing of Post-test 2 at the beginning of the semester reduced exposure to discussions on campus since the school year has just started.

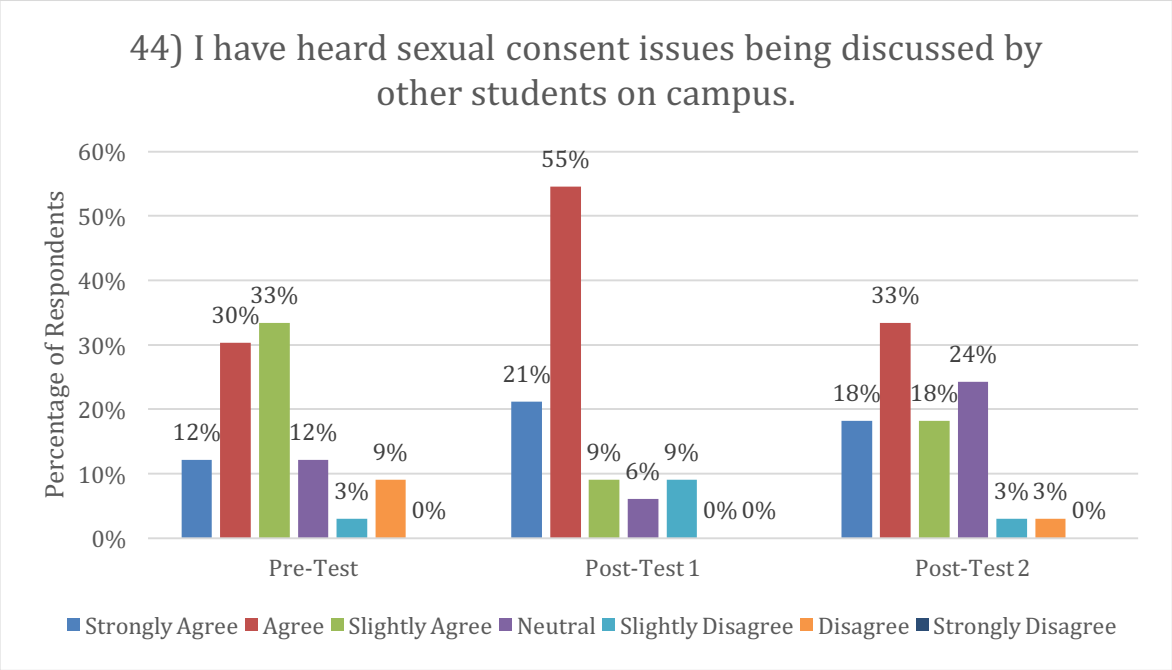
Table 7.84. Item 44 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	**Pre-Test**	**Post-Test 1**	**Post-Test 2**
44) I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.	Strongly Agree	4 (12%)	7 (21%)	6 (18%)
	Agree	10 (30%)	18 (55%)	11 (33%)
	Slightly Agree	11 (33%)	3 (15%)	6 (18%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	2 (6%)	8 (24%)
	Slightly Disagree	1 (3%)	3 (9%)	1 (3%)
	Disagree	3 (9%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Table 7.85. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 44*

Item	Mean	Significance
#44Pre #44Post1	2.9091 2.2727	0.009
#44Post1 #44Post2	2.2727 2.697	0.164
#44Pre #44Post2	2.9091 2.697	0.285

Chart 7.43. Item 44: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



45) I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.

This item dealt with whether the men were talking with their sexual partners about consent issues outside of a sexual encounter. Just like the other items there was a significant change immediately after the intervention with more men agreeing. So it looks like the intervention may be successful in getting the conversation started but over time the men slowly started reverting back to their baseline levels. What is important is that at Post-Test 2 the men's responses were still better than baseline. So the men did not fully revert back.

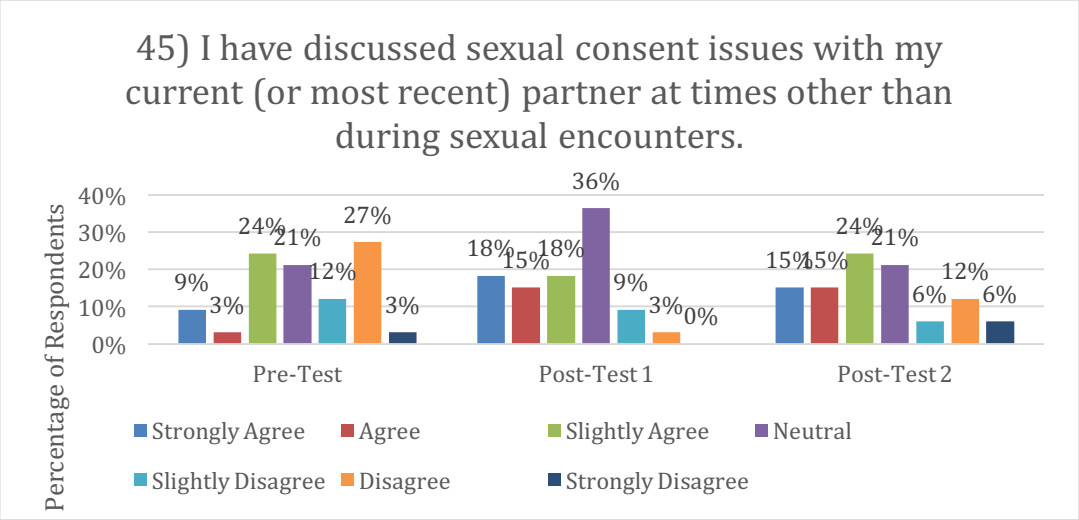
Table 7.86. Item 45 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
45) I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	Strongly Agree	3 (9%)	6 (18%)	5 (15%)
	Agree	1 (3%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Agree	8 (24%)	6 (18%)	8 (24%)
	Neutral	7 (21%)	12 (36%)	7 (21%)
	Slightly Disagree	4 (12%)	3 (9%)	2 (6%)
	Disagree	9 (27%)	1 (3%)	4 (12%)
	Strongly Disagree	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	2 (6%)

Table 7.87. Results of the Wilcoxon Test: *Item 45*

Item	Mean	Sig
#45Pre #45Post1	4.1818 3.1212	0.004
#45Post1 #45Post2	3.1212 3.4848	0.381
#45Pre #45Post2	4.1818 3.4848	0.101

Chart 7.44. Item 45: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



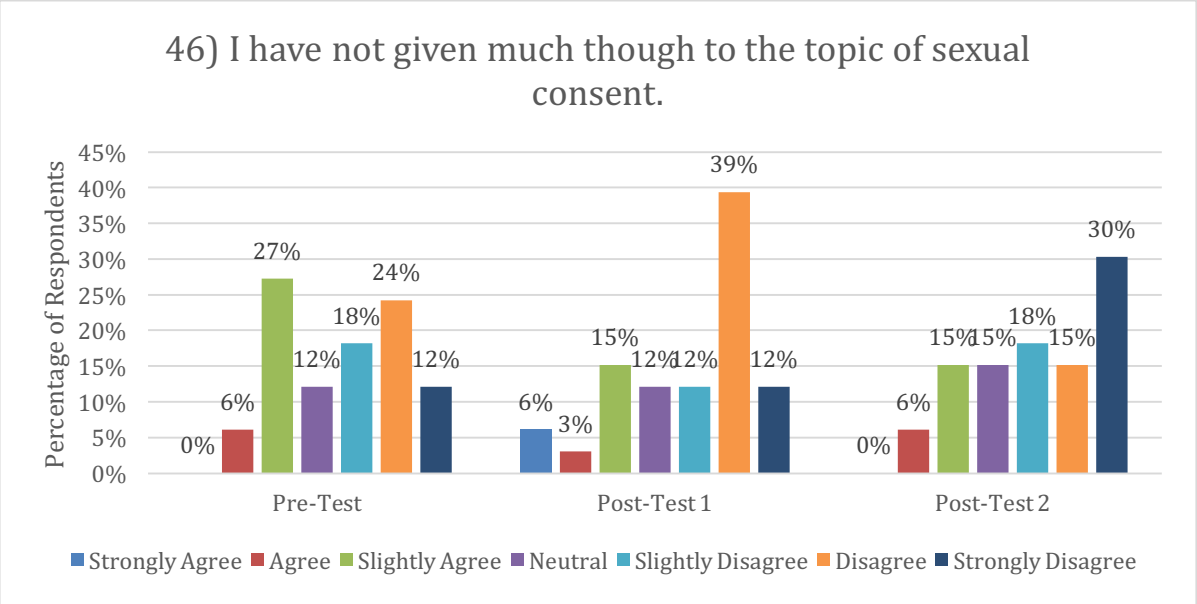
46) I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.

This item dealt with whether consent is something that the men thought about much. On all three surveys the men slightly agreed on average. There does not seem to be a significant change over time and the men continued to be split on this item. There is a trend post intervention towards greater disagreement with the item (the correct response).

Table 7.88. Item 46 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
46) I have not given much though to the topic of sexual consent.	Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Agree	2 (6%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)
	Slightly Agree	9 (27%)	5 (15%)	5 (15%)
	Neutral	4 (12%)	4 (12%)	5 (15%)
	Slightly Disagree	6 (18%)	4 (12%)	6 (18%)
	Disagree	8 (24%)	13 (39%)	5 (15%)
	Strongly Disagree	4 (12%)	4 (12%)	10 (30%)

Chart 7.45. Item 46: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Themes for Subscale 5

Table 7.89 Themes for Subscale 5: Awareness and Discussion

	Items	Information	Status
Overall Subscale		**Significance found and information retained**	**Possible Issue**
Theme 1:	**46**	**Thinking about consent**	**No issue but watch out for**
Theme 2:	**44**	**Hearing about consent on campus**	**No issue but watch out for**
Theme 3:	**43, 45**	**Discussed with friends and partner outside of a sexual encounter**	**Possible Issue**

The final subscale dealt with how the men discussed consent with their peers. The analysis found that on average, the men's responses significantly improved over time and that this change was maintained. This is interesting because when looking at the three themes within this subscale, none of the themes showed that this improvement was retained by the men.

The first theme dealt with the concepts of consent and sexual assault and measured whether these were things that the men thought about on their own. From the responses it appears that the men had been thinking about the importance of this topic from baseline to the end of the study. This was not surprising since during the intervention the men had many questions about consent. This appears not just to be an important issue in society but something that the men are actively thinking about.

The second theme dealt with how prevalent talks about sexual assault and consent were on campus. The data analysis showed that during the academic school year this topic was publicly discussed among the men's peers. At the start of the next semester these topics were not as widely discussed but that may be an artifact of the timing of the survey at the beginning of the academic year. This may not be a fault of the intervention and is not a surprising finding. Unless a student is an incoming freshman, they do not

have to take the online sexual assault prevention module, so upperclassmen are not exposed to this until an incident occurs.

The final theme dealt with the actual conversations the men were having with their peers and their sexual partners outside of a sexual encounter. At baseline the men were rarely having these types of conversations and consent and sexual assault were not things they talked about. Exposure to the intervention significantly changed this. After the program the men discussed these topics with their peers, which is not surprising since Ben, the fraternity president held discussions in chapter. What was positive is that the men reported having these conversations with their sexual partners outside of sexual encounters. This is a positive change. The issue is that both of these behaviors reverted back to baseline levels during the five-month follow-up the following the semester. It seemed that when the issue was something that the men were exposed to they talked about it. After being away for the summer the men were no longer exposed to these concepts and did not talk about them. Thus, when they came back they did not continue their conversations from before.

Overall, the items within this subscale are promising. The results clearly show that the intervention is helping to change the normalcy of conversations of the men and their thinking about and discussing these important issues. If I could find a way to expose the men to the information while they were away from school, then there is a chance that their responses may not have reverted back.

Items Not associated with any of the other subscales

Seven of the items did not fit into any of these subscales. These seven items are in the table below. Six of the items were removed from Humphreys and Brousseau's (2010)

analysis because these themes of these items were already captured in other survey items. These six items are listed but not used in the analysis. The seventh item was one of the questions I added to the survey and was used in the analysis.

Table 7.90. Items Not Associated with any of the other Subscales

Items not associated with any of the other subscales
28) If a couple has a long history of consenting sexual activity with each other I do not believe that they need to ask for consent during each sexual encounter.
30) I think it is okay to assume consent and proceed sexually until the partner indicates "no."
31) If a sexual request is made and the partner indicates "no" I feel that it is okay to continue negotiating the request.
32) I think nonverbal behaviors are as effective as verbal communication to indicate sexual consent.
33) Asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.
34) In making a sexual advance, I believe that it is okay to assume consent unless you hear a "no."

Table 7.91. Results of the Friedman Test on Item 52 (N=33)

Items not associated with any of the other subscales	**Item**	**Mean**	**Significance**
52) I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity.	#52Pre	1.5758	0.279
	#52Post1	1.8485	
	#52Post2	1.8485	

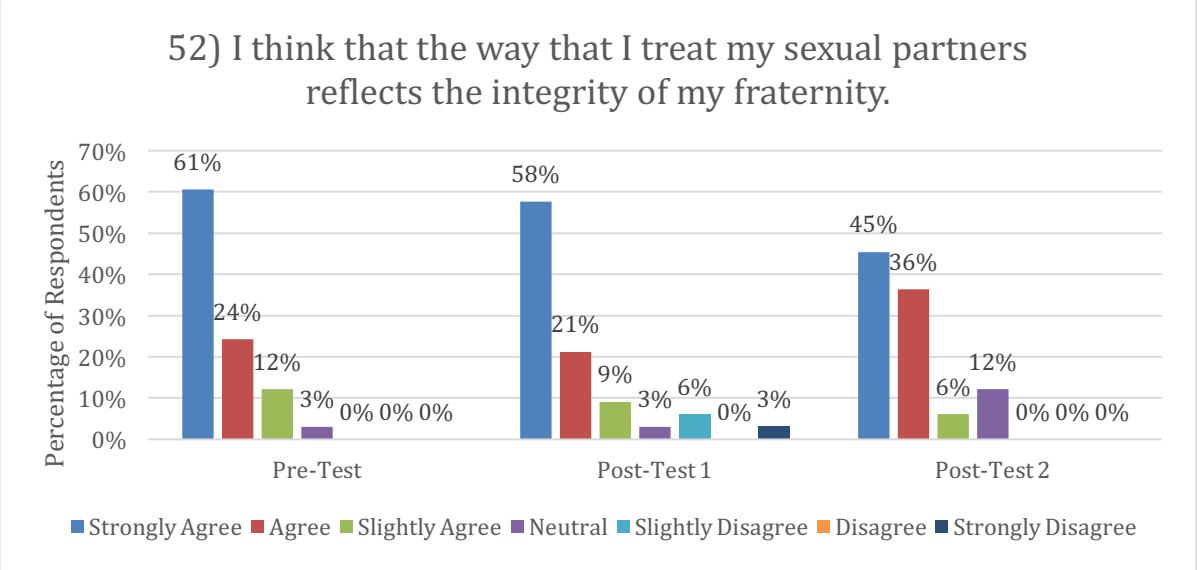
52) I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity.

This item was not on the survey from Humphreys and Brousseau (2010). I added this item. As I expected the men do feel that their actions reflect their fraternity at large. This was something seen throughout the program. This may be something to tap into in the future.

Table 7.92. Item 52 Responses at Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2 (N=33).

	Response	Pre-Test	Post-Test 1	Post-Test 2
52) I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity.	Strongly Agree	20 (61%)	19 (58%)	15 (45%)
	Agree	8 (24%)	7 (21%)	12 (36%)
	Slightly Agree	4 (12%)	3 (9%)	2 (6%)
	Neutral	1 (3%)	1 (3%)	4 (12%)
	Slightly Disagree	0 (0%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)
	Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)

Chart 7.46. Item 52: Likert-Scale Responses for Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, Post-Test 2



Summary

As a pilot study, the intervention was a success. The men were not only open to the program but they truly wanted the information and the opportunity to have the conversation. The program was successful at providing the men with the information. The men retained this new knowledgeable about consent and sexual assault. In addition, the program normalized conversations about these topics which allowed the men to openly have discussions with each other and their sexual partners. The men's beliefs and

behaviors involving consent showed some improvement. Most important of these are the fact that consent is a continuous process throughout a sexual encounter and that consent is needed for each sexual activity.

There are elements of the program that require revision. The most important of these is the part of the program in which the men practice consent techniques. Also, in order to better test the intervention I will revise the survey instrument to better measure non-verbal consent and aspects of the larger fraternity culture surrounding parties, alcohol use, sexual predation, and prestige gained from sexual activity.

Chapter 8: *Conclusion*

Overview

Sexual assault is a prominent issue on college campuses and fraternity men in particular are more likely to be perpetrators of these crimes than their non-affiliated peers. Because of this there are movements to ban fraternities from campuses (Flanagan 2011, Frost 2015, Ryan 2015). Fraternity men are often stigmatized as sexual predators who consciously rape their victims. While there are certainly instances where this stereotype is true, I found that most fraternity men are unaware of the ways that they perpetuate and perpetrate sexual violence.

After working with fraternity men from colleges across the U.S. I found that they are genuinely interested in understanding the issues surrounding sexual assault and consent. In my interviews every man was vehemently against sexual assault and stated that it would not be tolerated in his fraternity. Yet these men were unaware that at times their actions are sexually violent. The intervention presented in this dissertation was designed to address this cognitive dissonance. The goal of the intervention was not simply to educate the men but to begin to create a cultural change within a fraternity chapter. The intervention was designed to change the way the men thought and talked about sexual assault and consent. As a pilot study the intervention showed promising results.

Successful Outcomes

The participating fraternity men were genuinely interested in the project. The men's responses on the survey indicated that they knew that consent was important and that it was expected and needed to be obtained by them in their sexual encounters. This

proved to be a benefit for the intervention because I did not have to sell the project or the importance of the topic. The men were interested and wanted to learn and talk about sexual violence.

The intervention contained an educational component about the nature of consent. I wanted to change the men's view of consent from a binary yes/no response to a continuum. The men learned that throughout a sexual encounter consent was needed for each and every action, consent could be withdrawn at any point, and that they had to check in with their partner to ensure that they were still consenting. The survey results showed that this was partially successful. The men no longer viewed a yes at the beginning of a sexual encounter as sufficient and that consent needed to be maintained throughout the encounter, however elements of the binary concept of consent remained.

This educational component also stressed the importance of the need for verbal consent in all sexual encounters. The men significantly changed their beliefs about this and agreed that even in a committed relationship consent was necessary for every sexual encounter. The most important change was that the men reported that they obtained verbal consent more often after exposure to the intervention. All of these changes improved after the intervention and were maintained after the five-month follow-up.

Promising Outcomes

Some concepts in the intervention program were initially successfully incorporated but unfortunately were not maintained over time. A goal of the program was to change the ways that the men communicated consent and talked about sexual assault. The program stressed the importance of verbal consent. At baseline most of the men did not include a verbal component in their definitions of consent. At the close of the

program the men's definitions significantly changed and nearly all of the men included a verbal component. Sadly, at the five-month follow-up some men no longer included a verbal component in their definition. It should be noted that while this negated the significant change made, the responses were still better overall than the baseline responses.

One of the main goals of the program was to alter the contexts in which men talked about consent. The goal was to normalize these conversations by programming the repeat doses of the intervention to be embedded within the regularly scheduled chapter meetings. At baseline, very few men (mostly the older ones) talked about consent with their peers and their partners. The intervention was initially very successful in changing this. After the program the men were talking about consent and sexual assault with their peers (probably each other at chapter meetings) but more importantly, with their sexual partners outside of the sexual encounter. However, at the five-month follow-up, the men had reverted back towards their baseline responses and were no longer having these conversations. To improve maintenance of these changes in the future, more time should be spent on these concepts during the workshop and these should also be prioritized in the discussions the president facilitates during the chapter meetings.

The data analysis indicated that there were three concepts that showed slight improvement in the men's response. However, these changes were not statically significant. The first concept was that the men assumed at baseline that if they trusted and knew their sexual partner then consent was not always necessary. The second concept concerned the men's beliefs about methods of obtaining consent. On the pre-test (and this theme was found in the interviews as well) the men assumed that at times consent was a

given until their partner stated no. Thus, they would make moves and wait for their partners' response. If the partner did not indicate a no, the men assumed that their partner consented. I spent time on this during the workshop and explained that this was not consent and was in fact sexual assault. While their responses slightly improved over time, the improvement was not significant.

The last promising concept was the fear the men expressed about verbally asking for consent. The responses showed that the men were unsure of how to verbally ask and thought it could be awkward. The men also feared that they would be negatively judged by their peers and their sexual partners if they asked for consent. The men's responses to survey items began to show that they were gaining more confidence in their ability to ask but that there was still some trepidation. This is not surprising since the men had felt awkward practicing consent scenarios during the intervention. Thus, this is something that must be better developed in the next iteration of this program.

Areas in Need of Improvement

The pre-test survey responses illuminated four main issues. The first was that the men thought of consent as a binary yes/no response. The intervention spent time overcoming this notion and the analysis showed that the men's responses significantly improved and that the improvement was maintained over time. However, too many of the men still thought about consent as a binary (e.g., many of the respondents' ratings significantly improved from Strongly Disagree to Disagree on this item however the correct response would have been Strongly Agree). Similarly, on the pre-test the men responded that it was less likely that they would get consent every time in a well-

established relationship. The responses to this also significantly improved but not by enough to warrant confidence that they would change their actions.

The program was unsuccessful in addressing the third and fourth issues. The third issue was the belief that consent was more important in hook-ups, casual relationships, and new relationships than in well-established relationships. The other concept, which was inconclusive, was how much the men relied on non-verbal communication as consent. The survey questions for this item did not indicate sole use of nonverbal communication for consent and it is possible that verbal consent was being solicited in addition. These survey items will be clarified for future use. Time was spent during the workshop to disprove the idea that nonverbal communication is as an effective means of communicating consent because these signs can be misread. Yet the men's responses remained the same at each post-test. I believe that the issue with this is twofold. First, through the interviews I learned that this is the typical behavior fraternity men engage in. Thus, it may be more difficult to change this normalized behavior. Second, a contributing factor may be that the fraternity president facilitated this part of the workshop. Since this is an area that may be more resistant to change, in the future more experienced workshop coordinators should facilitate this section and the chapter president should facilitate a less complicated topic during the workshop.

Practical Considerations: Dissemination of the Intervention

Due to the stipulations of Title IX, universities must include sexual assault prevention programs and they are purchasing many programs that lack evidence of their effectiveness (DeGue et al. 2014, Vladutiu, Martin, and Macy 2011). Originally, I planned to create a type of deliverable protocol for the intervention so that I could offer

universities something they could use to work with fraternities on their campuses. However, while the program shows promise there are still some parts that require revision and further testing. I am also unsure if a deliverable protocol would be effective. I do not view this as a "cut and paste" workshop that can be used at any campus. Instead this is a cultural intervention. I believe that the only way to correctly implement this is to conduct ethnographic research on the campus and Greek culture at the school and then develop the program around these data. An option that I am exploring is working to standardize the protocol of the intervention and train others on how to administer this type of prevention program.

In addition, a limitation of the project is that it requires the chapter president to be a co-facilitator and to deliver repeat doses of the program. Thus, the chapter president must be in agreement that sexual assault and consent are prominent issues and be committed to the goal of the project. I designed the project to outlive the facilitators by having the fraternity's leaders take it over, making the program self-sustainable. If the president is not committed to the project, then it will be unsuccessful. This means that the program cannot necessarily be used with every fraternity chapter.

One of the reasons I had success with the interviews and program was because I am a cultural insider. As a fraternity man myself the men trusted me, especially at a time when the university was looking for reasons to shut down fraternity chapters and many were following doing so. I feared that a non-Greek facilitator might have problems gaining rapport quickly enough to be able to implement the program effectively.

Areas for Future Research and Practice

Gratified that the program showed some success, I plan to make revisions to the program and work with more fraternity chapters on other campuses across North America to address sexual assault and consent issues. In addition, I have been approached by several sorority women to conduct a similar workshop for their chapters. To accomplish this, I will need to find a sorority woman with whom I can collaborate so we can tailor a program to the women's specific needs. If the revised programs prove successful I may scale my efforts up and begin work with the national fraternity and sorority organizations to create cultural changes more broadly across the United States.

I have also thought about branching out and working with non-Greek students. I have presented some of the preliminary results of the intervention at conferences over the last four years. Since that time I have been approached by universities and private high schools to create programs that address topics such as sexual assault and consent, rape culture, sexual harassment, and healthy masculinity. While my research began in Greek life, I can modify the intervention program to work with a broader student culture.

Limitations

One limitation of the current study is that all of the data were based on self-reports. Although the surveys were anonymous, there is the possibility that social desirability bias was at play and the men may have given the culturally appropriate responses. I do not believe that this was the case because men often gave inappropriate responses. In addition, this is not just a limitation of this project but of the much of the research done on this issue. As researchers we are not present when the sexual encounter takes place so self-reports are all that we have to rely on.

One thing I would like address is the reliability of the data in this study. The sample size was very small (33 men) since the purpose of the program was to work with one single fraternity chapter. I could not recruit more participants as I had to work with the number of men in the fraternity chapter. The other issue is that there was a high level of attrition in this study (44% of the total number at pre-test). While I realize that this is a very high number this is one of the issues in conducting research in which the respondents only remain students for a few years. Nearly all of the men who did not take the follow-up survey graduated or had left the university. I was unable to schedule the start of the program at the beginning of the semester; thus the five-month follow up occurred during the next academic year. In the future, the program should begin in the fall semester so that the follow up could occur in the spring, which should result in a much lower rate of attrition.

As previously discussed, the intervention program contains a readiness requirement. It cannot be used with every fraternity chapter. The fraternity's president needs to be committed to the goals of the program. Another limitation with the program is that it is heteronormative and at this time it does not address gender as a spectrum or same-sex relationships. While I do not like this limitation, this was done by design. I have worked with fraternity men from around the country for several years and I have learned their beliefs. I need to meet the men where they are at and address one misconception at a time. As the culture changes I hope to add more to the topics covered in the intervention.

One issue within the program was the survey itself. I used the already validated survey from Humphreys and Brousseau (2010). After conducting the data analysis, I found that that while the survey asks about respondents' non-verbal communication, it

does not determine if the respondents are only using non-verbal communication. One could respond to the items stating that they relied on non-verbal communication but this does not preclude the use of verbal communication. These items will be revised in the future.

Finally, the intervention does not address the structural barriers and larger cultural features that teach and reinforce the men's ungentlemanly behaviors. I am aware of the symbolic violence, societal victim blaming, and biologically essentialist ideas of male sexual aggressiveness. While these are things that do need to be addressed, these are societal factors that I am unable to address at this time. Those who are working on these issues such as John Foubert and Jackson Katz started by conducting research and creating intervention programs. Thus, the structural issues are not in the scope of this project, but I plan to incorporate this program into a larger project that will address the structural issues.

Verdict

Overall the intervention program shows promise. The program appears to have helped the men gain a better understanding of consent. The idea of consent being the absence of a no at the beginning of a sexual encounter is no longer accepted by the men. The intervention was also able to normalize the conversation initially between the men and their sexual partners but this effect was not maintained. In future iterations of the program more effort should be spent on ensuring that these conversations continue during the chapter meetings. The program was able to alter the men's knowledge and beliefs about sexual assault and consent, but not their use of non-verbal communication. As a pilot study, this was a success as it identified several successful outcomes and has helped

inform future development of this program. With some revisions and future testing, I believe that this intervention can successfully prevent sexual assault.

At this point I would like to make the necessary revisions and test the efficacy of the program with more fraternities. In doing so I plan to continue to conduct ethnographic studies of campuses to determine the best ways to implement the program and to identify factors of fraternity chapter readiness.

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Appendices

1) Interview Questions for Ethnographic Decision Tree Model

Code:
Gender: Male Female
Race/Ethnicity: Caucasian Black Asian Hispanic/Latino

Screening Questions ***(must answer "Yes" to both questions to be eligible for participation):***

Are you between the age of 18 and 24 years? Yes
No

Have you had vaginal sex within the past 30 days? Yes
No

The last time you had sex did you use a male condom at all? Yes
No
Why/Why not?

I realize I that the remaining questions seem redundant, but we will use your answer to the initial question to test the model we will generate from the following questions.

These first questions relate to the last time you had sex:

1. Were you sober?	**YES**	**NO**
2. Were you worried about pregnancy?	**YES**	**NO**
3. Were you worried about sexually transmitted infections, not HIV?	**YES**	**NO**
4. Were you worried about HIV?	**YES**	**NO**
5. Was your partner sober?	**YES**	**NO**
6. Was your sexual partner someone you are in a committed relationship with?	**YES**	**NO**
7. Was your sexual partner someone you are casually involved with?	**YES**	**NO**
8. Was your sexual partner someone you trust?	**YES**	**NO**
9. Was your sexual partner older than you?	**YES**	**NO**
10. Was your sexual partner a UCONN student?	**YES**	**NO**
11. In your opinion, did your sexual partner look physically dirty or unwell?	**YES**	**NO**
12. Did you perceive this partner to be sexually promiscuous?	**YES**	**NO**
13. Did you have sex in a private space (for example: your or your partner's room/apartment)?	**YES**	**NO**
14. Were you or your partner using other forms of contraception (for example: pills, IUD, ring, spermicide, the pull-out method)?	**YES**	**NO**
15. Did you feel you were at risk of pregnancy?	**YES**	**NO**
16. Did you feel you were at risk of acquiring a sexually transmitted infection, not HIV?	**YES**	**NO**
17. Did you feel you were at risk of acquiring HIV?	**YES**	**NO**
18. Did you (or your partner) have a condom available to use?	**YES**	**NO**
19. Did you get 'caught up in the moment' and forget to use a condom?	**YES**	**NO**
20. Did you and your partner discuss the use of condoms or contraception?	**YES**	**NO**

21. Did you and your partner jointly decide to use or not use a condom (or other form of contraception)?	**YES**	**NO**

22. Do you regularly carry condoms with you?	**YES**	**NO**
23. Are you embarrassed to obtain free condoms or purchase condoms?	**YES**	**NO**
24. Do you have a physical dislike for condoms (for example: the way they feel or smell)?	**YES**	**NO**
25. Do you have an emotional dislike for condoms (for example: they put you off having sex, or reduce your ability to have sex)?	**YES**	**NO**
26. Do condoms reduce the feeling of intimacy?	**YES**	**NO**
27. In the past, have you had any bad experiences with condoms?	**YES**	**NO**
28. Has a condom ever broken during sex?	**YES**	**NO**
29. In your opinion, do condoms reflect your level of trust for a sexual partner?	**YES**	**NO**
30. Do you feel it is men's responsibility to provide condoms?	**YES**	**NO**
31. Do you feel it is up to men to decide to use or not use a condom?	**YES**	**NO**
32. Do you feel you can make your partner use a condom?	**YES**	**NO**
33. Do your friends use condoms?	**YES**	**NO**
34. Do you feel peer pressure to use condoms?	**YES**	**NO**
35. Are you affiliated with a sorority or fraternity?	**YES**	**NO**
36. Are you affiliated with a religious institution (for example: a church, temple, mosque)?	**YES**	**NO**
37. Do you attend a religious institution on a weekly basis?	**YES**	**NO**
38. Does your religious affiliation impact your decision to use or not use a condom?	**YES**	**NO**
39. Did you have formal sexual education prior to coming to UCONN?	**YES**	**NO**
40. Were you sexually active prior to entering college?	**YES**	**NO**

41. Would you have sex without any form of protection, contraception, or method to prevent pregnancy or disease?	**YES**	**NO**
42. Do you consider sex to be an act only to be shared with someone special?	**YES**	**NO**

2) Interview Questions for Students About Violence

Interview Questions:

Student Perceptions: Alcohol Use and Violence at the University of Connecticut

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Opening Script:

Thank you so much for being willing to take part in this study. This study will ask for your thoughts, perceptions and opinions on alcohol use and/or violence on the Storrs campus. I would like to remind you that your participation is completely voluntary and that you can stop at any time or only answer questions in which you feel comfortable responding to.

I would like to remind you that I am only interested in your perceptions on these subjects. You do not need to give specific information. In the event that you would like to give specific information you are instructed to not disclose any identifying information about yourself or others in relation to illegal behavior.

Screening Questions:

Students must answer, "Yes" to both questions to be eligible for participation.

Are you between the ages of 18 and 24 years?	Yes	No
Are you currently an Undergraduate Student at the Storrs Campus?	Yes	No

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Demographic Information:

Age	
Semester Standing	
Gender	
Major	
Ethnicity	
Sexual Orientation	
Relationship Status	

Note Regarding the Following Questions:

The following is a list of the possible questions that will be asked to the informants during the interview. Not all of these questions will be asked in every interview, as they may not be applicable to each informant.

Questions about Alcohol Use:

General Understanding	Student Perceptions
What are the different states of alcohol intoxication?	What is the drinking culture like on campus?
How would you define each of these states?	What factors influence the drinking behaviors on campus?
What are possible causes for these different states?	Do you feel that any changes should be made to the campus in regards to alcohol use amongst students? If so, what changes would you like to see?
How do social interactions affect alcohol consumption?	

Questions about Violence:

General Understanding	Student Perceptions
What are the different types of violence that you can think of?	Looking back at the types of violence you listed, which, if any are of concern here on campus?
Why might an individual engage in violence?	Do you feel violence is a problem on campus?
What consequences are there to those who engage in violence?	What does the University do to keep the campus safe?
Do these consequences deter violence?	Do you believe that this is enough? If not, what these would you like to see done?
How do social interactions affect violence?	Overall, do you believe that the student body feels safe on campus, why or why not?

Other Questions:

Spring Weekend	Community	Responsibilities
What are your thoughts on Spring Weekend?	What are your thoughts on the idea of community?	Who should be held responsible when issues such as alcohol abuse and subsequent problems occur on campus?
How does alcohol and violence affect Spring Weekend?	How does alcohol and violence affect this idea of community?	Who should be held responsible when violence occurs on campus?
Are these issues and concerns different on Spring Weekend when compared to a typical weekend on campus?	How can students and the administration work to foster a campus community?	

Final Thoughts:

Please feel free to share any other comments or concerns that you may have. Thank you again for your time and assistance in this important research.

3) Interview Questions for Fraternity Men

Interview Questions:

Opening Script:

Thank you so much for being willing to take part in this study. I would like to remind you that your participation is completely voluntary and that you can stop at any time or only answer questions in which you feel comfortable responding to.

Screening Questions:

Students must answer, "Yes" to both questions to be eligible for participation.

Are you at least 21 years old?	Yes	No
Are you an active member of a fraternal organization?	Yes	No

Demographic Information:

Age	
Semester Standing	
Gender	
Ethnicity	
Sexual Orientation	
Year of Initiation	

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1. What are the advantages of being a Greek man on campus?

2. What is your chapter like?
    a. What do you and your brothers do for fun?
    b. What things do you and your brothers have in common?
    c. Do you have close relationships with your brothers?

3. What are the stereotypes that society has of Greek Life?

a. How accurate do you believe these stereotypes are?
b. Do you have a problem with these stereotypes?

4. In your opinion, what does it mean to be a man?

5. What does it mean to be a fraternity man?

6. How often does your chapter party?
    a. Who hosts these events?
    b. What are these parties like?
    c. How much do your fraternity brothers drink?

7. How much and how often do you drink alcohol?
    a. What level of intoxication do you normally drink to?
    b. Why do you drink alcohol?
    c. Does being a fraternity man affect your drinking behavior in any way? Explain.

8. Can you explain what the college hook up is?
    a. Have you engaged in a hook up?
    b. How does the hook up work?
    c. How can one increase their chances of hooking up?

9. How often do you engage in sexual activities?

10. How do you and your brothers talk to each other about sex?
    a. In chapter or personal communications?
    b. Conversations on past sexual experience?
    c. Conversations on safe sexual practices?
    d. Conversations on sexual assault prevention?

11. What is sexual assault?
    a. Do you believe your views are different than those of your brothers?
        i. If so, how do your views differ?
        ii. Why do you think they are different/similar?

For the following please say how much you agree/disagree with the following
Strongly agree/Agree/Neither/Disagree/Strongly Disagree

<u>Being a man means:</u>

1. Being the authority in a relationship
2. Being strong in all situations
3. Dominating your opponents
4. Getting drunk often
5. Having sex often
6. Having many sexual partners

7. Knowing more than your partner
8. Proving yourself through competition
9. Showing a lack of emotions

For the following please say how much you agree/disagree with the following
Strongly agree/Agree/Neither/Disagree/Strongly Disagree

Questions about sexual assault/rape:

1. Women frequently cry rape; false reporting of rape is common.
2. Men can be raped.
3. Rape is a crime of passion
4. If a person doesn't fight back, she or he wasn't really raped.
5. Women put themselves in danger by the way they dress or the places they go.
6. Once a man is sexually aroused he cannot help himself.
7. Rape doesn't happen very often. Because of a few violent incidents, the issue of rape tends to be over-dramatized.
8. Sexual assault is an impulsive, spontaneous and uncontrollable sexual urge.
9. Rapists are usually non-white and lower class.
10. Sexual assaults are rare deviations and affect only few people
11. Sexual assault usually occurs between strangers
12. If a woman goes to her date's room on the first date, it implies she is willing to have sex
13. A man can rape his wife.
14. When a woman says no, she often means yes
15. It's not really rape when a woman changes her mind in the middle of a sexual activity.
16. If the victim isn't a virgin, then it wasn't really rape.
17. If a woman agrees to some degree of sexual intimacy, she wants to have sexual intercourse.
18. Anyone who is drunk or high and being a flirt wants to have sex.
19. You can tell a rapist by the way he looks
20. Many women enjoy or are sexually aroused by rape.
21. Sexual assault is impossible without some cooperation from the victim

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Final Thoughts:

Please feel free to share any other comments, questions, or concerns that you may have. Thank you again for your time and assistance in this research.

4) Outline of the Intervention

- Set up food and drink

- Welcome
    - President leads
        - "The purpose of today's workshop is to have an open and honest conversation about consent and sexual assault."
        - "I have asked for assistance in running this workshop."
        - Introduces Matt and Rich as fraternity men and consultants who work on sexual assault prevention and education.
    - Matt and Rich
        - Each introduces themselves to the group.
        - Make sure to state that we are fraternity men and are not against fraternities.

- Setting ground rules
    - Matt will run this section
        - Be sure to get the men to agree to the following:
            - Confidentiality
            - Respect privacy
            - Respectful communication.
            - Listen actively
            - Be honest
            - Participate to the level you are comfortable.
            - Keep cell phones away

- Why is this important?
    - Rich will run this section:
        - Sexual assault is a huge problem on college campuses.
            - Every 2 minutes, someone is sexually assaulted in US (NCVS, 2006)
            - 25% of college women experience rape/attempted during college
            - 90% of all campus rapes occur under the influence of alcohol
            - 9 out of 10 college students knew their attackers
            - Only 41.4% of sexual assaults are reported to the PD. (NCVS, 2007).
            - Only 2% of rapes are false allegations (FBI).
                - If push back
                - Address it that 2-8% exist in literature
                - But 2% is FBI
            - Most perpetrators are never caught and remain in our community

            - Many victims develop post-traumatic stress disorder.
        - The reason why we are here today is because everyone says that we (as fraternity men) are the problem:
            - Academic literature:
                - McMahon 2010, McMahon 2011, Boswell and Spade 1996 (Bleeker & Murnen, 2005; Boeringer, 1999 Foubert, Garner & Thaxter, 2006, Sanday 2007, Loh et al. 2005, Lackie & de Man, 1997
            - News stories of frats committing rape
                - NCSU, UVA, Brown, Wesleyan,
        - People are talking about shutting down fraternities
                - Wesleyan, Dartmouth
        - We need people to think of Greeks as leaders and helping to stop this issue

- Definitions
    - Matt will lead
        - The group will come up with the following definitions
            - Sexual harassment
            - Sexual assault
            - Rape

- Discussion on Values
    - President will lead (this is one of the most important parts of the program).
        - What does it mean to be a fraternity man?
            - What are the values of your fraternity?
            - How do you live up to these values?
            - Get the men to say the word gentleman.
        - Values associated with being a gentleman
            - What does it mean to be a gentleman?
            - How do you live up to these values?
        - Contradictions
            - In what ways do you not live up to these values?
            - In what ways are your actions not that becoming of a gentleman?
                - Make sure that the men bring up the concept of being a gentleman
        - Discussion on why there is a contradiction between values and actions?

- Bystander Intervention (All 3 Facilitators)
    - Rich
        - "The men who commit violent physical rape and use date rape drugs is rare"
            - Less than 10% of the men rape this way.

            - Repeated rape on average of 5.8 times each (Lisak and Miller 2002)
        - Part of the problem is that we do not act to stop sexual assault when we see it
    - Matt
        - Explain Being a Stand Up Guy
            - Bystanders are individuals who witness emergencies, criminal events or situations that could lead to criminal events and by their presence may have the opportunity to provide assistance, do nothing, or contribute to the negative behavior.
    - President
        - Use vignette below:

You are at a party. You see a guy trying to get an obviously drunk woman to go home with him. She's not just buzzed; she's stumbling over her own feet. You know the woman and she seems reluctant. What should you do?

        - Ask for a volunteer to read the scenario
            - Have the men write down:
                - List the option of things that you could do
                - Choose the option of what you would do
            - Explain why you chose this
    - President and Matt lead discussion
        - President
            - What were the options we chose to go with?
            - See if the group decides to intervene
                - If so, have the men explain why they decided this
                - If not, explain to the men that this woman is someone's sister and daughter. How would you feel if this was someone in your family?
        - Matt
            - Be sure to explain why we should intervene
            - Be sure to explain what would be the best way to intervene
            - Be sure to explain that alcohol is a date rape drug too

- Starting to Reframe the Issue to the men
    - Rich will lead this section
        - What are your feelings towards rapists?
            - During interviews the men said that they were against rape and would kick rapists out of chapter
        - What does it means when we hear that someone was sexually assaulted?

        - What does it mean when we hear that someone we know and care about sexually assaulted someone?
        - Many sexual assault cases are not instances of physical force and roofies.
            - Rape means that their was sexual activity without consent
            - Most people who commit these crimes are not violent rapists
            - We should not vilify these people (circles of support).
            - They are not bad people; they would be considered good guys. In fact.
            - They don't realize that what they are doing is sexually violent.
        - All of this revolves around the concept of consent

- Consent (All 3 Facilitators)
    - President
        - Discussion on what consent is
            - The lack of a "no" is not enough
            - You need affirmative consent
            - It needs to be clearly communicated
    - Matt
        - Defines and explains consent
        - Unambiguously communicated indication that all involved parties want what is going to happen to happen
        - Maybe money analogy
            - Taking money you need permission
    - Rich
        - Example 1
            - Make move and see if she does something about it.
                - If she does not then you go further
            - By show of hands have you been in or saw this situation?
            - But this is not consent
            - Explain in more detail
            - Explain the GPS analogy
            - Fight or freeze response
                - Unresponsive
                - Not fair to expect otherwise
                - When human physiology says cannot happen
            - Just imagine how much harder this is when drinking

    - President
        - Example 2
            - Notice a girl through body language and signals
                - Ask for examples from the members
            - But this is not enough

            - Men commonly misperceive sexual intent in women
            - Clothing, going back to an apartment, alcohol use,
            - Especially true when alcohol is involved
            - Men have trouble recognizing facial expressions
            - Being drunk affects your ability to understand signals
    - Matt
        - Explain what needs to be done to receive consent
            - Need an affirmative response
            - How many drinks do you aim for?
                - At this stage can you recognize consent?
                - If we cannot understand the no signals how can you understand the yes
                - Especially when drunk
            - Even pretty clear signals do not indicate consent more than that
                - Grab dick
            - Consent on a continuum
                - Can change mind at any time
        - If unsure, ask
        - So let's see what this would look like in the real world

- Modeling Consent in Real World Situations
    - Rich
        - The wrong way:
            - Discuss not getting consent
                - She is passed out
                - You have to hold down
                - But you can tell
                - Clip 1: How to not ask for consent
                - Clip 2: Not signs of consent
                - Keep moving unless she says no
            - Unrealistic expectations
                - Clip 3: Not real PSA
                - Clip 4: The contract
        - The right way
            - Go over what consent is again
                - Clip 5: Here are signs
                - Clip 6: How to ask for consent
            - But what would this look like in the real world?
                - Clip 7: Friends with Benefits

    - Model
        - Matt leads
        - Explain what this would look like in the real world
    - Practice

        - Have the men practice and role play
        - Have volunteers come up and interact with the board
            - Matt does the voice
        - Have the chapter critique what they saw
            - Give the volunteer a reward of some sort
        - Have the men partner up
            - Matt should say that this will be awkward and uncomfortable
    - Debrief as a group
    - Things to go over
        - Do you need to ask every time?
        - Is it a turn off?
        - Fantasies vs. realities
        - Make anxious situation better

- Problematic Sexual Encounters (All 3 facilitators)
    - Matt
        - Targeting
            - Explain why this is problematic behavior
            - Explain why it is hard to get consent
            - Point values or competition
                - Or plays to do on women
                - Sex by deception
    - President
        - Persuasion
            - Explain why this is problematic behavior
            - Explain why it is hard to get consent

    - Rich
        - Drunkenness
            - Explain why this is problematic behavior
            - Explain why it is hard to get consent
            - Can happen to men as well
    - Matt
        - Intersection of all 3
            - Trying to get someone to drink to have sex with them
                - Maybe clip of superbad?
        - Get the men to recognize their own behaviors as problematic.
        - I bet many men in this room have engaged in such behaviors.
        - The facilitators list examples with some personal stories.
        - By a show of hands has anyone seen or engaged in such behavior?
        - Is there anyone brave enough to share?
        - You are not a bad person
            - You did not realize that the behavior was wrong.
            - Get the men to openly admit this
        - Don’t make your position is anti-rapist

            - Be against the behavior
                - Change the behavior
            - Labeling game is wrong
        - From guys who have been there
            - Made mistakes along the way
            - Here is what we figured out

    - President
        - Let this fact sink in.
        - Tell the men the legal and social consequences of sexual assault
        - Now we have a time of reflection for the men
        - We have counseling resources if need be

- Let's Look at some examples
    - Rich
        - Ask for a volunteer to read the scenario
        - Have the men write down:
            - Why would this be an example of sexual assault?
            - What should the man do differently?
        - Break up into three groups and have one facilitator in each group
        - Discuss what the men wrote down
            - Make sure that the facilitator keeps the men on track
            - If the men do not, challenge the men.
                - Tell them that a court might see this differently.
                - Figure out why a court would consider it sexual assault
        - Come back together as a group
            - Explain to the men how this would be considered sexual assault
            - Explain what should be done differently in each situation

1. Intoxicated and no consent given
    a. Steve's fraternity is hosting a party. He sees a group of girls so he gets them some drinks. He looks for the drunkest one and starts flirting her. Steve continues to get the girl drinks and begins making out with her. He then takes her by the hand and leads her to his room in the house. They then continue to have sex.
        i. Targeting behavior

2. Boyfriend and girlfriend
    a. Kyle and Rachel have been going out for the last two years. They have sex regularly, several times a week. After a night of partying Rachel starts making out with Kyle and they start messing around. During this time Rachel passes out. Kyle tries to wake her up but she is too tired. Since they have sex every weekend anyway, Kyle decides to have sex with her.

        i. Need consent each and every time

3. Moving on without getting consent
    a. Jerry starts dancing with a girl in a blue dress on the dance floor. After grinding for several songs they start making out. During the next song Jerry starts to slide his hand up her leg towards her dress. She takes Jerry's hands and puts them on her hips and they continue to dance. Jerry starts sliding his hands up her legs again and she slightly pushes his hand back but they continue dancing. Jerry again slides his hands up her legs but she does not stop him this time so her slides his hands under her dress.
        i. Didn't get consent from one activity to the next

- Return to the idea of values and being a gentleman.
    - President
        - We are not saying that you should not hook-up.
        - But how can these behaviors be considered gentlemanly?
        - Do you want to be remembered as the guy they tolerated inside them or the guy that blew their mind

- So where do we go from here?
    - Matt
        - Analogy of drunk driving
            - Too drunk to drive too drunk to consent
        - Fraternities and parties don't need to go, just some of the behaviors.
        - The purpose of the frat is to make good men better,
        - We just need to make sure that we actually get consent.

- What do you do if you notice this with one your brothers?
    - President

- Chapter goal setting session
    - Possible ideas
        - Changes in Risk Management policy
        - Informal reach out to female friends of the fraternity
            - Informal data gathering
            - Do you feel safe
            - What are your opinions?
        - Philanthropy?
        - Work with women's center
        - Support Take Back the Night
        - Add into chapter discussions
        - Jackson Katz lecture
            - Tuesday 4/28 at 7 pm in Konover Auditorium at the Dodd Center
        - Add as a component to pledge education

- What did we miss
    - Anything that we forgot to cover?

- Closing

- Survey 2

Things to still work into the workshop

- Alcohol as the number 1 date rape drug
- Getting a yes
    - Cannot be coercive
    - Cannot be drunk
    - Examples
        - Says she wants to fuck you but really drunk
        - Hanging out and guy makes move, she says no
            - He then wont drive her home until they talk
            - He gets them drinks
            - They have sex
        - Coercion
            - Feel guilty
    - Silence is not consent

5) Questionnaire for the Intervention

Please write down your ID number for the survey below:

Your ID number will be based on the following rubric:

1) First two letters of the name of the high school that you graduated from.
2) Day of the month you were born in 2 digits (example: 04).
3) First letter of your mother's first name.
4) First letter of the town you were born in.

Example: FR07JB = Frost High School, 7th of month, Jillian, Boston

ID Number: _____

Age	
Semester Standing	
Gender	
Ethnicity	
Sexual Orientation	
Semester & Year of Initiation	
Relationship Status	
If in Relationship: How long?	

1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?

2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?

3. In instances when you think **you received consent** from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?

4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?

5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?

6. How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always	I do not engage in sexual activity
1	2	3	4	5	N/A

Instructions: Please note that the term sexual consent is used throughout this questionnaire. Please use the definition of sexual consent below when answering the questions that follow.

Sexual consent: the freely given and unambiguously expressed verbal or nonverbal communication of a feeling of willingness to engage in a particular sexual activity.

Using the following scale, please circle the number that **best** describes how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers, just your opinions

7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.

Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly

Disagree		Disagree		Agree		Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. I think that verbally asking for sexua1 consent is awkward.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28. If a couple has a long history of consenting sexual activity with each other I do not believe that they need to ask for consent during each sexual encounter.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. I think it is okay to assume consent and proceed sexually until the partner indicates "no."

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

31. If a sexual request is made and the partner indicates "no" I feel that it is okay to continue negotiating the request.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

32. I think nonverbal behaviors are as effective as verbal communication to indicate sexual consent.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

33. Asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

34. In making a sexual advance, I believe that it is okay to assume consent unless you hear a "no."

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

45. I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner **at times other than during sexual encounters**.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

46. I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

47. I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

49. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

52. I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6) Data Analysis Plan

All respondents completed the surveys using paper and pen. The respondents completed the Pre-Test (Baseline) one week before participation in the intervention, Post-Test 1 immediately after completing the intervention, and Post-Test 2 five months later. The responses were entered into Excel. Some of the Likert-scales on the survey had reverse order of scaling. The responses for these were reversed so that all the responses were in the same direction. Missing data was replaced with the modal answer for each question. 59 respondents completed the Pre-Test and Post-Test 1 but only 33 completed Post-Test 2. The 26 respondents who did not complete all three surveys were removed from the analysis (these were largely men who graduated or left the university for other reasons). The results presented here are for the 33 respondents who completed all three surveys. I used Qualtrics for the descriptive analysis.

The aim of the study was to see the effect of the intervention on knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors for each respondent and analysis examined whether exposure to the intervention significantly changed any of these and whether the changes produced were maintained over time. I used SPSS, a statistical software program, for this analysis.

The demographic characteristics were analyzed to see if there was any correlation between a certain characteristic and the way a person responded. A Pearson's Correlation was run on each of the demographic characteristics against each of the survey items. This test was run on all three sets of data (Pre-Test, Post-Test 1, and Post-Test 2). The test used a significance level that was less than 0.05 (see table). A cross tabulation was run on any correlated pair (demographic variable and survey item) that indicated significance.

These tabulations can be found below in the next appendix. Each cross tabulation was then used to construct charts of each correlated pair.

The responses for each of the five questions on knowledge about consent were first grouped into themes according to similarities between the men's responses. From here the responses for each question were pared down to two options and coded as a 1 or a 2. Since this data are nominal and non-parametric chi-square tests were run using the McNemar test of symmetry. The chi-square test was run for each of the five questions on the three different data points: Pre-Test to Post-Test 1, Post-Test 1 to Post-Test 2, and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. If the result of the McNemar test was lower than 0.05 the test showed a significant change in response.

The final part of the survey that was analyzed were the 45 items from the Sexual Consent Scale-Revised. The typical way to analyze data like these would be to run a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures. The ANOVA would compare the mean score of each of the items against the three time periods. Unfortunately, ANOVAs can only be run on data that are normally distributed, which this data set is not. The Friedman Test was used as an alternative to the ANOVA. This test measures the mean differences between groups with repeated measures when the data is non-parametric. The test compared the responses of the men over the three points in time and was run on each individual item, each sub-scale (group of items identified by the creators of the survey), and overall to measure the effectives of the program as a whole. If significance was less than 0.05 then the test showed a significant change of response.

For any test that revealed significance the data was further run through a post hoc test. The Wilcoxon test was used to determine where the significant change occurred. The

Wilcoxon test was run three different times for each item to measure the difference between Pre-Test to Post-Test 1, Post-Test 1 to Post-Test 2, and Pre-Test to Post-Test 2. Normally a significance level less than 0.05 would indicate that the change was significant. To account for Bonferroni's correction the significance level of 0.05 was divided by the number of time points (three) to give the significance level of 0.017. Thus, a significant change would be observed only if the significance level was less than 0.017.

7) Cross Tabulations for Significant Demographic Variables

Pre-Test Demographic Cross Tabulations		Age						Semester & Year of Initiation										Relationship Status		
		18	19	20	21	22	Total	Fall 2011	Spring 2012	Fall 2012	Spring 2013	Fall 2013	Spring 2014	Fall 2014	Spring 2015	Fall 2010	Total	Single	In a relationship	Total
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Completely understands	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Focus on verbal affirmation	0	2	2	5	1	10	0	1	0	1	1	4	0	2	0	9	8	2	10
	Focus on agreement from both partners	0	2	4	1	1	8	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	0	8	8	0	8
	Both parties agree and are not under the influence	0	1	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	3	3	0	3
	Being okay with sex but no mention of communicating this to partner	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	2	0	2
	Focus on being sober	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Approval/confirmation to have sex (not mentions how this is communicated)	1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	0	2
	Verbal agreement to have sex and they are sober	0	1	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	2	1	3
	Agreement throughout the encounter	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
	Does not understand at all	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
	Total	1	9	13	7	2	32	0	1	1	3	4	9	3	10	0	31	28	4	32
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	No: always need consent	0	7	3	1	0	11	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	4	0	10	10	1	11
	No: especially if they are under the influence	0	2	3	2	0	7	0	0	1	2	1	2	1	0	0	7	6	1	7
	No: especially if they aren't into it	1	1	4	2	1	9	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	6	0	9	9	0	9
	Yes: she sees/gets you naked and you two go from there	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	2
	Yes: in a long-standing relationship with partner	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	2
	Yes: Situation/Mood is right	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Yes: Mixed signals	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Never had a problem with it	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexua...	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Neither	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Somewhat Agree	0	2	3	2	1	8	0	1	0	2	1	4	0	0	0	8	6	2	8
	Agree	0	3	4	0	1	8	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	8	7	1	8
	Strongly Agree	1	5	6	4	0	16	0	0	1	1	3	3	2	6	0	16	15	1	16
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have s...	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2
	Neither	0	2	1	2	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	0	5	4	1	5
	Somewhat Agree	0	0	4	1	1	6	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	6	5	1	6
	Agree	1	6	4	1	1	13	0	0	0	1	2	3	2	5	0	13	13	0	13
	Strongly Agree	0	2	3	2	0	7	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	3	0	7	5	2	7
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requir...	Strongly Disagree	0	3	0	2	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	5	5	0	5
	Disagree	0	6	4	0	1	11	0	0	1	0	1	5	1	3	0	11	9	2	11
	Somewhat Disagree	1	1	2	2	0	6	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	6	5	1	6
	Neither	0	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	3	0	3
	Somewhat Agree	0	0	4	1	1	6	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	6	5	1	6
	Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Strongly Agree	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	Strongly Disagree	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
	Disagree	0	3	2	1	1	7	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	2	0	7	6	1	7
	Somewhat Disagree	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	3	3	0	3
	Neither	1	4	5	1	1	12	0	1	0	0	0	5	1	5	0	12	11	1	12
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	2	2	0	5	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	4	4	1	5
	Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Strongly Agree	0	0	2	2	0	4	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	4	3	1	4
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	0	1	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	2	1	3
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Neither	0	1	2	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	4	4	0	4
	Somewhat Agree	1	3	5	1	1	11	0	0	1	1	1	2	3	3	0	11	10	1	11
	Agree	0	4	3	2	1	10	0	1	0	1	2	5	0	1	0	10	9	1	10
	Strongly Agree	0	1	1	2	0	4	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	4	3	1	4
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Neither	0	1	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	4	4	0	4
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	1	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	4	4	1	5
	Agree	1	4	5	2	1	13	0	0	0	1	1	5	2	4	0	13	11	2	13
	Strongly Agree	0	4	4	2	1	11	0	1	1	2	1	4	1	1	0	11	10	1	11
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Strongly Disagree	0	3	2	3	1	9	0	1	1	1	1	4	0	1	0	9	8	1	9
	Disagree	0	6	1	2	1	10	0	0	0	1	0	4	2	2	0	9	9	1	10
	Somewhat Disagree	0	1	4	1	0	6	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	2	0	6	5	1	6
	Neither	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	4	4	0	4
	Somewhat Agree	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	2
	Agree	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Strongly Agree	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
	Total	1	10	13	7	2	33	0	1	1	3	4	10	3	10	0	32	29	4	33

Post-Test 1 Cross Tabulations		Age						Semester & Year of Initiation										Relationship Status		
		18	19	20	21	22	Total	Fall 2011	Spring 2012	Fall 2012	Spring 2013	Fall 2013	Spring 2014	Fall 2014	Spring 2015	Fall 2010	Total	Single	In a relationship	Total
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have s...	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Neither	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Agree	0	4	4	4	0	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	1	12
	Strongly Agree	0	5	8	3	1	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	3	17
	Total	0	10	13	7	2	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	5	32
	Strongly Disagree	0	2	2	1	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	5
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to...	Disagree	0	4	4	1	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	2	10
	Somewhat Disagree	0	3	2	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	6
	Neither	0	1	2	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Somewhat Agree	0	0	2	2	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Agree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Strongly Agree	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Total	0	10	13	7	2	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	5	32
	Strongly Disagree	0	1	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
42. I donâ€t have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in...	Disagree	0	5	3	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	8
	Somewhat Disagree	0	2	1	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	4
	Neither	0	1	2	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	5	2	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	8
	Agree	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4
	Strongly Agree	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Total	0	10	13	7	2	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	5	32

Post Test 2 Cross Tabulations

		Age						Semester & Year of Initiation										Relationship Status		
		18	19	20	21	22	Total	Fall 2011	Spring 2012	Fall 2012	Spring 2013	Fall 2013	Spring 2014	Fall 2014	Spring 2015	Fall 2010	Total	Single	In a relationship	Total
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have s...	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Neither	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	2	2	0	5	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	4	3	2	5
	Agree	0	3	6	5	0	14	0	0	1	1	3	3	3	0	0	11	8	6	14
	Strongly Agree	0	1	4	5	2	12	0	0	1	0	5	0	4	1	0	11	10	1	11
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31
	Strongly Disagree	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a com...	Disagree	0	1	2	1	0	4	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	3	4	0	4
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Neither	0	1	3	3	0	7	0	0	1	1	0	1	3	1	0	7	5	2	7
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	2	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	4	3	2	5
	Agree	0	1	5	5	2	13	0	0	0	1	7	3	0	0	0	11	8	5	13
	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a...	Disagree	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	2
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	2
	Neither	0	0	3	2	0	5	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	5	2	3	5
	Somewhat Agree	0	2	4	4	1	11	0	0	0	0	4	1	3	0	0	8	7	3	10
	Agree	0	3	2	4	1	10	0	0	2	0	4	1	2	0	0	9	7	3	10
	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31
	Strongly Disagree	0	2	4	3	1	10	0	0	1	1	3	0	2	1	0	8	9	0	9
33. Asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Disagree	0	0	2	3	1	6	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	4	4	2	6
	Somewhat Disagree	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	2
	Neither	0	1	4	4	0	9	0	0	1	1	1	2	3	0	0	8	5	4	9
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	1	2	3
	Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	3	3	0	3
42. I donâ□□t have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in...	Disagree	0	1	2	4	1	8	0	0	2	0	4	1	1	0	0	8	5	2	7
	Somewhat Disagree	0	2	2	3	1	8	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	5	6	2	8
	Neither	0	0	2	4	0	6	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	4	4	2	6
	Somewhat Agree	0	1	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	4	2	2	4
	Agree	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	1	2
	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31
	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Disagree	0	0	1	2	1	4	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	4	0	4
	Somewhat Disagree	0	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	3	3	0	3
	Neither	0	1	3	3	0	7	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	0	0	5	6	1	7
	Somewhat Agree	0	2	4	4	0	10	0	0	1	1	2	0	4	0	0	8	6	3	9
	Agree	0	2	2	3	0	7	0	0	0	0	4	1	2	0	0	7	1	6	7
	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	0	5	12	13	2	32	0	0	2	2	11	4	7	1	0	27	21	10	31

All Significant Pearson Correlations for Demographics for Pre-Test Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pearson Correlation	**-.349***	**-.454****	0.208	0.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.046**	**0.008**	0.246	0.688
2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	0.137	0.134	-0.294	-0.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.447	0.456	0.097	0.893
3. In instances when you think you received consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	Pearson Correlation	-0.264	0.038	-0.034	-0.169
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.137	0.835	0.852	0.348
4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Pearson Correlation	0.190	0.007	0.001	-0.163
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.290	0.970	0.995	0.365
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pearson Correlation	**.389***	**.345***	-0.206	0.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.025**	**0.049**	0.250	0.324
6. How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	0.154	0.255	-0.233	0.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.391	0.152	0.192	0.760
7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.120	0.121	-0.105	-0.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.506	0.502	0.559	0.583
8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.	Pearson Correlation	-0.048	-0.035	-0.041	0.117
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.792	0.847	0.820	0.515
9. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.	Pearson Correlation	-0.114	-0.088	-0.053	0.131
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.526	0.627	0.771	0.466
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.244	0.238	**-.377***	0.178
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.171	0.183	**0.031**	0.323
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.180	0.199	**-.351***	-0.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.315	0.268	**0.045**	0.717

12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.	Pearson Correlation	-0.004	0.066	-0.133	0.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.981	0.715	0.461	0.402
13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.	Pearson Correlation	0.140	0.100	-0.158	0.153
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.436	0.579	0.380	0.394
14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	Pearson Correlation	0.179	0.152	-0.220	0.078
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.318	0.399	0.219	0.667
15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed.	Pearson Correlation	0.215	0.182	-0.231	0.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.230	0.312	0.197	0.670
16. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	Pearson Correlation	-0.109	-0.112	0.318	-0.244
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.546	0.536	0.071	0.171
17. I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.078	0.192	0.032	-0.243
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.666	0.284	0.859	0.174
18. I think that verbally asking for sexua1 consent is awkward.	Pearson Correlation	-0.188	-0.233	0.250	-0.174
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.296	0.192	0.161	0.333
19. I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.	Pearson Correlation	0.134	0.173	-0.039	-0.248
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.457	0.337	0.830	0.164
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.090	0.040	0.044	-0.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.618	0.824	0.806	0.611
21. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.289	0.193	0.021	-0.197
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.103	0.283	0.909	0.273
22. I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	Pearson Correlation	-0.027	-0.051	0.282	-0.264
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.881	0.779	0.112	0.137
23. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	Pearson Correlation	0.225	0.257	0.014	-0.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.207	0.149	0.939	0.251
24. I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	Pearson Correlation	0.341	0.171	0.122	-0.208
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.052	0.342	0.498	0.246
25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent	Pearson Correlation	0.100	-0.017	-0.135	0.129

decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.579	0.924	0.455	0.473
26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.230	0.026	-0.194	0.312
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.197	0.886	0.280	0.077
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.211	-0.003	-0.156	0.272
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.238	0.987	0.387	0.125
28. If a couple has a long history of consenting sexual activity with each other I do not believe that they need to ask for consent during each sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.099	-0.010	0.039	0.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.582	0.957	0.829	0.684
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.024	-0.030	-0.055	-0.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.896	0.867	0.763	0.638
30. I think it is okay to assume consent and proceed sexually until the partner indicates "no."	Pearson Correlation	0.272	0.222	-0.324	0.127
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.125	0.215	0.066	0.482
31. If a sexual request is made and the partner indicates "no" I feel that it is okay to continue negotiating the request.	Pearson Correlation	0.107	-0.031	0.062	0.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.552	0.863	0.734	0.861
32. I think nonverbal behaviors are as effective as verbal communication to indicate sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.084	-0.163	-0.109	0.301
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.642	0.365	0.546	0.089
33. Not asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Pearson Correlation	0.221	0.126	0.131	-0.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.217	0.485	0.466	0.767
34. In making a sexual advance, I believe that it is okay to assume consent unless you hear a "no."	Pearson Correlation	0.165	0.107	0.159	-0.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.358	0.554	0.377	0.728
35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.094	-0.044	-0.049	0.266
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.603	0.807	0.785	0.135
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.327	**.356***	-0.213	-0.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.063	**0.042**	0.235	0.969
37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.	Pearson Correlation	0.239	0.181	-0.120	0.235
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.181	0.313	0.506	0.189
38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.	Pearson Correlation	-0.145	-0.183	0.245	-0.116
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.420	0.307	0.170	0.521

39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.020	-0.003	-0.163	0.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.914	0.987	0.364	0.692
40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.056	0.055	-0.077	-0.129
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.759	0.761	0.671	0.476
41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	Pearson Correlation	0.257	0.287	-0.119	0.236
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.149	0.105	0.510	0.187
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Pearson Correlation	0.017	-0.087	0.075	0.312
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.927	0.631	0.678	0.077
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	Pearson Correlation	-0.221	**-.371***	**.346***	-0.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.216	**0.034**	**0.048**	0.496
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.	Pearson Correlation	-0.074	-0.211	**.389***	0.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.684	0.238	**0.025**	0.891
45. I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	Pearson Correlation	0.024	0.046	0.049	-0.156
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.896	0.797	0.787	0.386
46. I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.092	0.071	0.055	-0.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.611	0.694	0.761	0.409
47. I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex	Pearson Correlation	-0.053	-0.104	0.339	-0.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.771	0.566	0.054	0.584
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Pearson Correlation	0.002	-0.031	**.374***	-0.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.991	0.865	**0.032**	0.899
49. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	Pearson Correlation	0.014	-0.041	0.261	-0.235
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.939	0.823	0.143	0.188
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Pearson Correlation	-0.177	-0.196	**.431***	0.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.325	0.274	**0.012**	0.848
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Pearson Correlation	0.249	0.004	-0.094	0.185
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.162	0.981	0.604	0.304
52. I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity	Pearson Correlation	-0.056	0.055	0.152	-0.262
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.755	0.760	0.397	0.142

****. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed).**

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).**

All Significant Pearson Correlations for Demographics for Post-Test 1 Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pearson Correlation	0.034	0.239	-0.228	-0.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.852	0.180	0.202	0.393
2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	-0.123	-0.113	0.090	-0.197
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.496	0.533	0.618	0.272
3. In instances when you think you received consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	Pearson Correlation	-0.112	-0.092	0.054	0.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.534	0.611	0.764	0.962
4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Pearson Correlation	-0.124	-0.082	0.204	0.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.492	0.650	0.255	0.605
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pearson Correlation	0.205	0.156	-0.299	-0.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.252	0.385	0.091	0.903
6. How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	-0.025	0.082	-0.179	-0.207
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.891	0.650	0.320	0.248
7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.130	0.284	-0.174	0.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.470	0.109	0.333	0.790
8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.	Pearson Correlation	0.139	0.323	-0.303	-0.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.442	0.067	0.087	0.972
9. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.	Pearson Correlation	0.024	0.111	-0.127	-0.147
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.895	0.538	0.483	0.416
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	-0.046	0.105	-0.268	0.143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.800	0.561	0.132	0.426
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one	Pearson Correlation	0.213	0.328	**-.381***	-0.059

should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.234	0.063	**0.029**	0.745
12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.	Pearson Correlation	-0.035	0.098	0.045	-0.096
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.847	0.587	0.805	0.594
13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.	Pearson Correlation	0.150	0.319	-0.149	-0.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.404	0.071	0.408	0.808
14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	Pearson Correlation	0.240	0.304	-0.243	-0.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.179	0.085	0.174	0.930
15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed.	Pearson Correlation	0.105	0.181	-0.084	-0.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.563	0.314	0.640	0.537
16. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	Pearson Correlation	0.009	-0.094	0.050	-0.259
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.960	0.603	0.783	0.145
17. I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.213	0.132	-0.091	-0.225
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.233	0.463	0.615	0.209
18. I think that verbally asking for sexua1 consent is awkward.	Pearson Correlation	0.120	0.012	0.076	-0.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.508	0.948	0.675	0.369
19. I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.	Pearson Correlation	0.076	-0.056	-0.108	-0.216
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.676	0.758	0.551	0.227
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.196	0.133	-0.073	**-.353***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.275	0.461	0.688	**0.044**
21. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.	Pearson Correlation	-0.079	-0.102	-0.011	-0.192
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.661	0.574	0.950	0.283
22. I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	Pearson Correlation	0.041	-0.041	0.110	-0.285
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.822	0.820	0.541	0.108

23. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	Pearson Correlation	-0.057	-0.088	0.050	-0.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.752	0.627	0.782	0.645
24. I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	Pearson Correlation	0.086	-0.062	-0.013	-0.289
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.634	0.733	0.943	0.103
25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	Pearson Correlation	0.311	0.196	-0.281	-0.106
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.078	0.273	0.114	0.556
26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	-0.023	-0.015	-0.090	0.138
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.897	0.936	0.618	0.444
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.182	0.161	-0.107	0.128
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.312	0.370	0.555	0.476
28. If a couple has a long history of consenting sexual activity with each other I do not believe that they need to ask for consent during each sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.084	0.011	-0.098	0.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.641	0.952	0.587	0.495
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Pearson Correlation	-0.203	-0.331	0.174	-0.137
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.257	0.060	0.333	0.448
30. I think it is okay to assume consent and proceed sexually until the partner indicates "no."	Pearson Correlation	-0.023	0.100	0.001	-0.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.898	0.582	0.996	0.563
31. If a sexual request is made and the partner indicates "no" I feel that it is okay to continue negotiating the request.	Pearson Correlation	0.205	0.019	0.125	-0.225
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.252	0.918	0.487	0.208
32. I think nonverbal behaviors are as effective as verbal communication to indicate sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	-0.001	-0.055	-0.159	-0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.995	0.762	0.375	0.873
33. Not asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Pearson Correlation	-0.023	-0.132	0.245	-0.328
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.899	0.462	0.170	0.062
34. In making a sexual advance, I believe that it is okay to assume consent unless you hear a "no."	Pearson Correlation	-0.122	-0.147	0.160	-0.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.498	0.413	0.374	0.438

35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.278	0.058	-0.148	0.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.117	0.750	0.411	0.963
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.126	0.113	-0.057	0.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.485	0.530	0.753	0.823
37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.	Pearson Correlation	-0.196	-0.208	0.083	0.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.274	0.246	0.646	0.655
38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.	Pearson Correlation	-0.052	-0.108	0.071	0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.772	0.549	0.696	0.874
39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	-0.090	-0.139	0.017	0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.617	0.440	0.924	0.872
40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	-0.143	-0.029	0.150	-0.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.428	0.873	0.404	0.569
41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	Pearson Correlation	0.063	-0.098	-0.053	-0.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.727	0.588	0.769	0.433
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Pearson Correlation	**.373***	0.228	-0.192	-0.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.032**	0.202	0.285	0.471
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	Pearson Correlation	0.043	0.046	0.098	-0.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.812	0.799	0.588	0.772
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.	Pearson Correlation	-0.249	-0.302	0.228	0.302
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.163	0.088	0.202	0.088
45. I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	Pearson Correlation	0.121	0.077	-0.157	-0.214
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.501	0.669	0.384	0.231
46. I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	-0.190	-0.134	-0.016	-0.267
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.290	0.456	0.928	0.133

47. I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex	Pearson Correlation	0.160	0.221	-0.208	-0.251
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.374	0.218	0.246	0.159
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Pearson Correlation	-0.124	-0.259	0.183	0.078
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.493	0.146	0.309	0.664
49. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	Pearson Correlation	-0.227	-0.229	0.267	-0.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.204	0.200	0.134	0.797
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Pearson Correlation	0.188	0.204	-0.254	-0.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.295	0.255	0.153	0.569
51. If consent for sexual intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Pearson Correlation	0.129	0.169	-0.185	0.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.473	0.347	0.302	0.533
52. I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity	Pearson Correlation	-0.137	-0.141	0.069	-0.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.449	0.434	0.702	0.661
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).					

All Significant Pearson Correlations for Demographics for Post-Test 2 Survey (N=33)

Item Number	Correlations	Age	Semester	Time in Frat	Relationship
1. How would you define consent (in relation to sexual activity)?	Pearson Correlation	-0.184	-0.212	0.028	0.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.304	0.236	0.879	0.735
2. What are ways that a person can indicate that they consent to sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	-0.158	-0.123	0.201	0.289
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.379	0.494	0.262	0.102
3. In instances when you think you received	Pearson Correlation	-0.075	-0.093	0.149	-0.140

consent from a partner, how does your partner let you know that they have given consent?	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.677	0.607	0.408	0.436
4. What do you do to get consent from a sexual partner?	Pearson Correlation	-0.101	-0.040	0.082	-0.167
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.577	0.825	0.652	0.352
5. Are there reasons why you might not get consent before sex?	Pearson Correlation	0.077	0.186	-0.216	0.090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.669	0.299	0.227	0.618
6. How often do you obtain verbal consent before sexual activity?	Pearson Correlation	0.000	-0.080	0.284	-0.188
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	0.656	0.109	0.294
7. I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.069	0.017	-0.050	-0.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.703	0.925	0.781	0.899
8. I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not the people have had sex before.	Pearson Correlation	0.000	-0.142	0.162	-0.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	0.431	0.368	0.379
9. I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any	Pearson Correlation	0.092	0.041	-0.022	-0.291
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.610	0.820	0.902	0.100

misinterpretations that might arise.					
10. I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	-0.019	-0.175	0.307	-0.219
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.917	0.329	0.082	0.222
11. When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	0.208	0.025	0.154	**-.344***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.245	0.890	0.392	**0.050**
12. I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital touching as it is for sexual intercourse.	Pearson Correlation	-0.055	-0.128	0.126	-0.234
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.763	0.479	0.484	0.190
13. I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior including kissing or fooling around.	Pearson Correlation	0.013	-0.165	0.295	-0.217
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.941	0.358	0.096	0.226
14. I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.	Pearson Correlation	0.000	-0.109	0.027	-0.155
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	0.545	0.883	0.388

15. Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed.	Pearson Correlation	0.082	-0.134	0.171	-0.200
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.648	0.456	0.342	0.264
16. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood.	Pearson Correlation	-0.088	-0.087	0.177	-0.089
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.628	0.630	0.324	0.621
17. I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	-0.153	-0.103	0.136	-0.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.395	0.569	0.451	0.809
18. I think that verbally asking for sexua1 consent is awkward.	Pearson Correlation	-0.105	-0.086	0.076	0.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.559	0.633	0.673	0.793
19. I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity they would think I was weird or strange.	Pearson Correlation	-0.152	-0.130	0.138	-0.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.399	0.470	0.443	0.821
20. I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to	Pearson Correlation	-0.188	0.053	-0.066	-0.094
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.295	0.770	0.715	0.603

engage in sexual activity.					
21. I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter.	Pearson Correlation	-0.047	-0.005	0.098	-0.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.794	0.979	0.588	0.801
22. I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy.	Pearson Correlation	-0.123	0.001	0.072	0.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.495	0.995	0.689	0.379
23. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner.	Pearson Correlation	0.087	0.107	-0.300	-0.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.629	0.554	0.090	0.979
24. I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active.	Pearson Correlation	0.074	-0.015	0.046	0.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.682	0.935	0.797	0.615
25. I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.	Pearson Correlation	0.046	0.248	-0.258	0.192
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.798	0.164	0.147	0.284
26. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than	Pearson Correlation	0.240	0.186	-0.243	0.207
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.179	0.300	0.172	0.247

in a committed relationship.					
27. I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.	Pearson Correlation	**.345***	0.317	-0.294	0.187
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.049**	0.072	0.097	0.298
28. If a couple has a long history of consenting sexual activity with each other I do not believe that they need to ask for consent during each sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.058	0.214	-0.136	0.084
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.750	0.231	0.450	0.644
29. I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.	Pearson Correlation	0.099	**.424***	-0.307	-0.092
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.585	**0.014**	0.083	0.611
30. I think it is okay to assume consent and proceed sexually until the partner indicates "no."	Pearson Correlation	-0.200	-0.110	0.097	0.317
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.263	0.544	0.590	0.072
31. If a sexual request is made and the partner indicates "no" I feel that it is okay to continue negotiating the request.	Pearson Correlation	-0.157	0.001	0.010	0.333
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.384	0.996	0.954	0.059

32. I think nonverbal behaviors are as effective as verbal communication to indicate sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	-0.063	0.219	-0.283	0.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.728	0.221	0.110	0.772
33. Not asking for sexual consent is not really a big deal.	Pearson Correlation	-0.064	0.032	-0.030	**.390***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.721	0.859	0.868	**0.025**
34. In making a sexual advance, I believe that it is okay to assume consent unless you hear a "no."	Pearson Correlation	-0.164	-0.122	0.010	0.248
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.362	0.500	0.957	0.164
35. I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	0.036	0.103	-0.206	0.251
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.842	0.570	0.251	0.159
36. I believe that sexual intercourse (vaginal or anal) is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.	Pearson Correlation	-0.083	-0.187	0.151	0.280
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.647	0.298	0.403	0.114
37. Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.	Pearson Correlation	-0.166	0.030	-0.039	-0.168
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.357	0.868	0.828	0.349
38. Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and	Pearson Correlation	0.024	-0.019	-0.148	0.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.893	0.915	0.411	0.433

waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.					
39. It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's non-verbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.	Pearson Correlation	0.042	0.266	-0.318	0.333
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.817	0.134	0.071	0.059
40. I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter.	Pearson Correlation	-0.055	-0.061	-0.032	0.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.763	0.737	0.861	0.802
41. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.	Pearson Correlation	0.054	0.228	-0.142	0.321
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.765	0.201	0.429	0.069
42. I don't have to ask for or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing."	Pearson Correlation	-0.057	0.153	-0.035	**.353***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.755	0.394	0.845	**0.044**
43. I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.	Pearson Correlation	-0.060	-0.042	0.119	0.271
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.741	0.819	0.510	0.127
44. I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by	Pearson Correlation	-0.104	-0.025	0.143	0.314
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.564	0.892	0.428	0.075

other students on campus.					
45. I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.	Pearson Correlation	-0.152	-0.247	0.310	0.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.400	0.165	0.079	0.810
46. I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent.	Pearson Correlation	-0.325	-0.158	0.239	0.211
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.065	0.381	0.181	0.238
47. I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex	Pearson Correlation	-0.079	-0.011	0.140	0.252
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.664	0.953	0.437	0.158
48. I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner	Pearson Correlation	0.060	0.074	0.074	-0.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.740	0.682	0.683	0.912
49. Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	Pearson Correlation	-0.100	-0.026	0.034	0.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.581	0.884	0.851	0.462
50. Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay.	Pearson Correlation	-0.212	0.030	0.038	0.293
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.235	0.868	0.835	0.098
51. If consent for sexual	Pearson Correlation	**-.434***	-0.152	0.143	**.531****

intercourse is established, fooling around can be assumed	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.012**	0.397	0.426	**0.001**
52. I think that the way that I treat my sexual partners reflects the integrity of my fraternity	Pearson Correlation	-0.012	0.104	0.037	-0.166
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.946	0.565	0.836	0.357

****. Correlation is significant at the 0.010 level (2-tailed).**
***. Correlation is significant at the 0.050 level (2-tailed).**