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Bystander Intervention, Victimization, and Routine Activities Theory: An Examination of Feminist Routine Activities Theory in Cyber Space

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by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to all those people who have been told they are not good enough, or not smart enough to accomplish their goals. With hard work you can accomplish your goals.

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ABSTRACT

Routine Activities Theory (RAT) is one of the most widely used theories to explain victimization. It has been applied to a wide range of criminal victimizations, such as property crimes (Miethe, Stafford, & Long, 1987) and urban murder (Messner & Tardiff, 1985). While traditional RAT has been used to explain violence against women, the feminist perspective of RAT developed by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) provides a better explanation by incorporating cultural factors that shape the conditions that give rise to offending. The current study draws on feminist RAT in order to explore three different types of victimization involving women: stalking, dating violence and sexual violence.

In doing so, the current study extends the RAT and feminist RAT literature by more thoroughly exploring what it means to be a capable guardian and by incorporating literature on bystander intervention. Though bystander intervention literature and feminist RAT literature are similar in that they view people as having the ability to prevent violence and crime, the two areas have developed relatively separately and have rarely been integrated together. In addition to expanding the literature on RAT, this study also contributes to the bystander intervention literature by analyzing willingness to intervene in three types of cyber violence against women. Though bystander intervention research has greatly expanded throughout the years, research involving intervention into cyber stalking, cyber dating violence, and cyber sexual violence/harassment are greatly lacking. The current study employed a web based survey to assess bystander intervention in cyber violence and expand feminist and cyber RAT by analyzing victimization. College students were asked to judge their likelihood of intervention in situations involving potential dating violence, sexual harassment, and stalking. In addition, they were asked

about their routine activities and components related to the theory, as well as dating violence, sexual violence and stalking victimization. Unsurprisingly, students preferred to intervene in a direct manner. In addition, there were inconsistent findings regarding victimization and routine activities theory. The results of the study are discussed in terms of implications for the development of bystander intervention programs and will expand the feminist RAT literature.

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

"The words of our enemies aren't as awful as the silence of our friends."

Daisy Coleman

Every year a large number of women are affected by violence. For example, data from the National Intimate Partner Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS) showed that 22% of women experienced severe physical violence by an intimate partner and 15% of women have been stalked throughout their lifetime (Breiding, 2014). Furthermore, women are likely to experience violence at an early age. According to NISVS estimates, 71% of victims of contact sexual violence, physical violence or stalking by an intimate partner were victimized before age 25 (Breiding, 2014). As will be discussed throughout the study, it is important to study college students' victimization experiences. Rates of prevalence across different types of violence vary. A recent meta-analysis by Fedina and colleagues (2018) found that unwanted sexual contact was the most common form of sexual violence experienced by college women. Fisher and colleagues (2002) found that 13% of college women surveyed had reported being stalked. Smith and colleagues (2003) found that nearly half (47%) of first year college women surveyed experienced physical or sexual abuse by an intimate partner.

Violence against women has consequences both for victims and society as a whole. In an analysis of five studies, Campbell (2002) found that women who experienced intimate partner

violence (IPV) were more likely to report lower levels of health across all five studies. This includes mental health issues, such as depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, and substance use and abuse and physical issues such as headaches, chronic pain, and urinary tract issues (Campbell, 2002). Violence against women also represents an enormous financial burden. According to estimates from 1995, IPV cost American women $5.8 billion, including costs associated with sexual assault within intimate relationships costing an estimated $320 million and stalking by a current or former intimate partner costing an estimated $342 million (Max, Rice, Finkelstein, Bardwell, & Leadbetter, 2004). The majority of these costs, over $4 billion, stem from direct medical and mental health care costs.

Similar to studies involving adult populations, studies of college students have found that victimization is also linked with poor mental and physical health (Amar & Gennaro, 2005; Coker, Smith, McKeown, & King, 2000; Davis, Coker, & Sanderson, 2002). Victimization has been shown to have effects on college performance and completion. Mengo and Black (2016) found that students who experienced physical/verbal abuse or sexual violence experienced a significant reduction in their GPA and were more likely to drop out of college. For example, 34% of students who experienced sexual violence and 12% of students who experienced physical/verbal victimization dropped out of college. One potential reason for this negative impact is that college students may be unlikely to interpret violence as abuse. For example, Fass and colleagues (2008) found that nearly one quarter (22%) of college students who were perpetrators or victims of violent physical acts by intimate partners were unaware that the acts were a form of dating violence. Likewise, Jordan and colleagues (2007) found that less than half of the college aged participants in a survey on stalking self-identified as stalking victims though

they reported experiencing stalking behaviors. These findings have implications for prevention and intervention that will be discussed in more detail throughout the study.

Though violence against women includes a range of behaviors, physical violence is more likely to be interpreted as IPV (Carlson & Worden, 2005; Nabors, Dietz, & Jasinski, 2006). Extending beyond research, a national conversation regarding IPV occurred in 2014 when video emerged of NFL player Ray Rice knocking his fiancée unconscious in an elevator. While much of the discussion revolved around how someone could stay with, and eventually marry, the person who knocked them unconscious, people took to Twitter to explain why they themselves stayed (#WhyIStayed) as well as others who discussed what eventually made them leave an abusive relationship (#WhyILeft) (Jeltsen, 2015). However, physical acts are not the only type of violence that women can experience. While researchers have studied non-physical forms of victimization for some time, the awareness of non-physical victimizations has taken a longer time to be recognized by the general public as an area that needs to be better understood. In a study conducted by Carlson and Worden (2005), adults were much more likely to indicate that physical acts, such as punching, were domestic violence, while study participants were less likely to indicate that psychological acts, such as name calling, were domestic violence.

Whereas there has been a long tradition of research examining in-person physical acts of violence against women and more recently encouraging individuals to intervene, research regarding victimization and intervention in cyber interpersonal violence is in its infancy. Within popular media today, news reports often discuss the influence of cyberspace on victimization experiences. Some of these events will be discussed in more detail later. While the names and the specifics of the incidents vary, one thing that many of these cases have in common is that the victimization they experienced spread through cyber space. Dodge (2016) argues that when

harassment continues into cyber space after sexual victimization, the results serve to both magnify the original trauma and serve as their own form of trauma. In this regard, victims experience multiple forms of victimization. The current study builds on previous research that has examined victimization of and bystander intervention in cyber victimization.

Routine Activities Theory

While different criminological theories can be used to explain violence against women, Routine Activities Theory (RAT) serves as the foundation for why women experience violence at the hands of current or former intimate partners. RAT was developed by Cohen and Felson in 1979 to explain changes in burglary rates throughout the United States. They argued that changes in the routine activities of Americans resulted in increases in burglary. Crime is said to occur when three conditions converge in time and space: a motivated offender, suitable target, and the lack of a capable guardian. Since its inception, RAT has been used by researchers to explain a wide range of victimization.

Though RAT has been used to explain violence against women, incorporating the feminist perspective into RAT offers a better explanation for why women are more likely to be the victims of certain crimes and why some women are more likely to be victimized than other women. The feminist perspective was first incorporated by Schwartz and Pitts in 1995. Within this framework, Schwartz and Pitts (1995) argue that there are different interpretations of the three elements Cohen and Felson proposed. First, instead of viewing motivated offenders as given, Schwartz and Pitts argue that societal factors that encourage violence against women need to be examined. Next, feminist RAT argues that instead of goods being suitable targets, it is women who are suitable targets. Viewing women as the target allows for the explanation of why

women in general, and some women in particular, are more likely to be victimized. Lastly, the feminist perspective argues that capable guardianship is diminished. While Cohen and Felson postulate that home provides protection from criminal victimization, feminist RAT acknowledges that for some women home is not a safe place. Furthermore, because there is a culture that accepts violence against women, general capable guardianship is reduced.

In addition to incorporating the feminist perspective into RAT, the current study also examined cyber victimization. Research has been generally supportive of cyber applications of RAT, though there is some debate as to whether or not offenders and targets converge in time and space (Yar, 2005). However, Felson (2016) argues that RAT can explain cyber victimization. Similar to traditional RAT, cyber RAT assumes that motivated offenders are a given in society. In other words, there are always people who are looking to commit crime. Also similar to traditional RAT, routine internet activities are expected to be related to levels of victimization. However, researchers applying cyber RAT have had difficulty identifying what capable guardianship means online. Drawing from bystander intervention literature, the current study sought to integrate both in-person and cyber measures to assess capable guardianship.

Bystander Intervention

In addition to incorporating bystander intervention research into what capable guardianship entails, the current study examined when participants will intervene in cyber violence against women. As previously mentioned, cyber harassment occurs often. A report by the Pew Research Center found that nearly three-fourths of internet users have witnessed online harassment (Duggan et al., 2014). However, while there is a large body of research that has addressed when and how people are likely to intervene in in-person sexual violence, researchers

have rarely examined cyber violence against women (Katz & Moore, 2013). Marganski and Melander (2015) highlight the importance of studying cyber victimization and bystander intervention by stating "because cyber aggression experiences are indirect in nature in that they are facilitated through technological means rather than face-to-face encounters, participants may overlook or minimize actual victimization experiences" (p. 20).

Bystander intervention programs are built on the framework developed by Darley and Latané in 1968. Following the murder of Kitty Genovese, which was witnessed by over 30 of her neighbors, Darley and Latané (1968) sought to explain why people were unlikely to intervene within large groups. They recognized that group dynamics create situations where people can perceive that they have less responsibility to intervene or that someone else may have already intervened. In addition, other situational factors are important in the decision making process of bystanders. These factors will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

Bystander intervention research has most often examined sexual violence on college campuses. There are a number of programs that have been developed to increase the likelihood that people will intervene, for example Bringing in the Bystander and Green Dot. These programs work to break down barriers that potential capable guardians may experience. While sexual violence is often the victimization of interest in bystander intervention research, other forms of violence have been studied. For example, some bystander intervention programs aim to increase intervention in dating or intimate partner violence (Peterson et al., 2016). In addition, especially among younger populations, bystander intervention programs have been aimed at addressing bullying (see Polanin, Espelage, & Pigott, 2012). Though recent studies have shown that there are high rates of victimization experienced in cyber space, few bystander intervention studies have examined cyber violence against women.

The Current Study

The current study employed a web based survey to address gaps in the research involving victimization and bystander intervention. Overall, there are three research goals that this study sought to accomplish. They are:

> **Goal 1: Contribute to bystander intervention literature by examining when and how college students are willing to intervene in cyber violence against women.**
>
> **Goal 2: Expand the theoretical knowledge base of RAT by incorporating the feminist RAT approach to explain cyber stalking, dating violence, and sexual violence victimization.**
>
> **Goal 3: Integrate bystander intervention research with RAT in order to gain a better understanding of capable guardianship.**

These three goals guided the analysis in order to expand both the literature regarding bystander intervention and RAT on their own. In addition, the study sought to integrate elements of bystander intervention into RAT. By and large, research involving RAT has not incorporated the body of knowledge developed by those who have studied bystander intervention research. While RAT and bystander intervention share a common element, or the idea that people can act as capable guardians/bystanders to prevent crime from occurring, these two literatures have been largely divorced from one another.

In order to accomplish these research goals, college students will be asked to complete a quantitative survey that asks about a range of topics including factors related to components of the different applications of RAT and bystander intervention, and about their experiences with victimization. The three types of cyber violence and bystander intervention that will be studied are cyber dating violence, cyber stalking following a break-up, and cyber sexual harassment following a sexual assault. These types of violence are commonly experienced by college women (Finn, 2004; Lyndon, Bonds-Raacke, & Cratty, 2011; Marganski & Melander, 2018), yet few

research studies that have assessed how bystanders would intervene should they witness these types of violence online.

Chapter Overview

This dissertation is organized into seven chapters. Chapter 2 discusses the extent and nature of violence against women, including physical and non-physical forms of violence. The chapter also discusses the historical and cultural acceptance of violence against women. In particular, Chapter 2 examines violence against women on college campuses and the effects that it has on victims. Within this argument, the idea of Stealth Gender-Based Abuse (SGBA) developed by Belknap and Sharma (2014) is explained. SGBAs are non-physical forms of violence against women that are often hidden from others. Though Belknap and Sharma only consider cyber stalking as a type of SGBA, within Chapter 2 the argument is made that other forms of cyber abuse can be considered SGBAs. While physical forms of violence have been studied for some time, the need to study non-physical forms of violence against women are expanded upon in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 first discusses RAT as proposed by Cohen and Felson (1979). Then, this chapter incorporates the research originally developed by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) regarding the feminist application of RAT. Chapter 3 discusses the cyber application of RAT. In addition, Chapter 3 includes an examination of what capable guardianship entails and how the bystander intervention perspective can be incorporated to strengthen our understanding of capable guardianship. Lastly, Chapter 3 concludes by assessing what characteristics are related to bystander intervention.

Chapter 4 highlights the main arguments presented within the current study. In addition, the above mentioned research goals are also presented in more detail. The research hypotheses guiding this current study are discussed in detail within this chapter.

Chapter 5 explains the methodological procedure in the current study. Included in this chapter are the operationalization of each of the independent and dependent variables of interest. The vignettes that were constructed for the study are also discussed. Finally, the analytic plan is discussed.

Chapter six details the results of the analyses completed for this study. First, results from vignettes that assessed bystander intervention are discussed. Second, the analyses that assessed feminist and cyber RAT are discussed.

Chapter seven includes a discussion of the results. Within this chapter key findings are highlighted. Policy implications from this study are included in this chapter. In addition, limitations and directions for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 2:

EXTENT AND NATURE OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Every year a large number of Americans report being the victim of interpersonal violence. According to Uniform Crime Reports (UCR) in 2017, an aggravated assault occurred every 39 seconds and a sexual assault occurred every 3.9 minutes (FBI, 2017a). According to the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) data from 2017, nearly 400,000 people 18 and older had been stalked in the 12 months prior to being surveyed (Morgan & Truman, 2018) Furthermore, as reported from the National Intimate Partner Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS), 15% of women and nearly 6% of men have been the victims of stalking throughout their life (Breiding, 2014). Utilizing UCR data from 2017, there was an estimated 810,825 aggravated assaults reported to law enforcement (FBI, 2017b). A large number of men and women also report being the victims of sexual violence. Kilpatrick and colleagues (2007) found that about 18% of all women in the US have been sexually assaulted within their lifetime.

In many of these situations, the violence experienced occurs at the hands of someone known to the victim. For example, Catalano (2012) reports that nearly 70% of stalking victims knew the perpetrator in some way. In a sample of college students, Fisher and colleagues (2002) found that four out of five stalking victims knew their stalker and 40% were stalked by a current or former boyfriend. Also reported from the NISVS, 22% of women and 14% of men have experienced severe physical violence by an intimate partner (Breiding, 2014). In addition, only

28% of women sexually assaulted were assaulted by someone they classified as a stranger, with the remainder being by a known perpetrator (Truman, 2012).

Though men generally experience victimization at a higher rate than women (Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, & Lu, 1998), certain crimes are more likely to have victims who are women (Breiding, 2014; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). These crimes include IPV, sexual assault and stalking. Collectively, these types of violence have been given the label of violence against women. While researchers have traditionally examined physical forms of violence, today non-physical victimizations have received a greater degree of attention within the research community and popular culture. Non-physical forms of victimization include psychological abuse and coerced sexual assault. More recently, researchers have recognized that non-physical victimizations can occur in cyber space (Belknap & Sharma, 2014). In a survey of adult internet users conducted by the Pew Research Center, Duggan (2014) found that 73% had witnessed someone being harassed online and 40% had been harassed themselves. However, intervention tactics of bystanders to online victimization have received little attention by researchers.

The remainder of this chapter will proceed as follows. First, the literature on physical violence against women is reviewed. Next, non-physical victimization and their impact will be discussed. In particular, the concept of SGBA will be explained (Belknap & Sharma, 2014). While SGBA predominantly focuses on abuse that occurs in "real life," this dissertation argues that SGBA can be extended to cyber space. Lastly, this chapter concludes with an explanation of how violence against women has evolved to include cyber victimization.

Brief History of Violence against Women

Victimization of women, particularly at the hands of intimate partners, has been historically condoned or at least philosophically justified through attributions of gender roles and responsibilities. Dating back to the Roman Empire, men were given the legal authority to physically control and correct their wives. As evidenced by the following quote taken from the 1864 court case of Jesse Black, these attitudes extended to Colonial America,

> "a husband is responsible for the acts of his wife and he is required to govern his household, and for that purpose the law permits him to use towards his wife such a degree of force as is necessary to control an unruly temper and make her behave herself; and unless some permanent injury be inflicted, or there be an excess of violence, or such a degree of cruelty as shows that it is inflicted to gratify his own bad passions, the law will not invade the domestic forum." ("State v. Black," 1864)

It wasn't until the 1960s that wife battering became a social issue in the United States. In the 1970s domestic violence shelters and hotlines began opening. For example, the first shelter for battered women, Rainbow Retreat, is believed to have opened in 1973 in Phoenix, Arizona (Tierney, 1982). Around the same time, rape crisis centers began to open, first in Berkeley, California in 1971 and Washington, D.C. in 1972 (Ake & Arnold, 2018). Though states began to enact and enforce laws related to IPV in the 1970s, other types of violence against women took longer for laws to be developed and enforced. For example, in 1990, California became the first state to establish stalking as a criminal violation (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). While activists and academics pushed for legislation surrounding the marital rape exception since the 1960s, it has only been since 1993 that marital rape became illegal in all 50 states (Bennice & Resick, 2003). While laws to incriminate domestic violence were adopted by many states during the 1970s, federal legislatures failed to enact nationwide laws (Tierney, 1982). During the 1990s violence against women was brought to the forefront within federal legislations. In 1994, former Vice President Biden introduced the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), while he was a US

Senator, has been reauthorized throughout the years. This act provides services for all victims (now including men and women) of IPV, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking.

Just as laws have been changed and developed throughout the years, researchers' definitions of violence against women have changed. For example, though IPV is commonly used to describe abuse between two people involved in an intimate relationship historically other terms that have been used, including wife battering, domestic violence and family violence. Today, IPV encompasses a range of violence including sexual assault, physical and emotional/psychological violence, and stalking. In addition, when studying younger populations such as high school and college students, the term dating violence is often used. Dating violence can include threatening communication, verbal abuse, or physical aggression (Lewis & Fremouw, 2001). Stalking definitions today generally include three components that must occur and are related to the legal definition of stalking. They are (1) an intentional pattern of repeated behaviors toward a person or persons, (2) that are unwanted, and (3) result in fear, or that a reasonable person (or jury) would view as fearful or threatening (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). Lastly, definitions regarding rape and sexual assault have changed. For example, prior to 2013 the UCR reported sexual assault as "the carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will" (FBI, 2017c). Since this time, sexual assault has been defined as "penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with and body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim" (FBI, 2017c). Today, researchers generally make the distinction between forcible, incapacitated, and drug and alcohol facilitated rape/sexual assault. Kilpatrick and colleagues (2007) define forcible rape as the "unwanted sexual act involving oral, anal or vaginal penetration. The victim also experiences force, threat of force, or sustains an injury during the assault" (p. 10). Incapacitated rape is defined as "unwanted sexual

act involving oral, anal or vaginal penetration that occurs after the victim voluntarily uses drugs or alcohol. The victim is passed out or awake but too drunk or high to know what she is doing or to control her behavior" (Kilpatrick et al., 2007). Drug and alcohol facilitated rape (DFR) is defined as occurring when "the perpetrator deliberately gives the victim drugs without her permission or tries to get her drunk, and then commits an unwanted sexual act against her involving oral, anal, or vaginal penetration. The victim is passed out or awake but too drunk or high to know what she is doing or to control her behavior" (Kilpatrick et al., 2007).

Cultural Acceptance of Violence against Women

Much like there has been a change in definitions of violence against women, there have been changes in the cultural acceptance of violence. For example, coinciding with the civil rights movement of the 1960s and 1970s, efforts to combat sexual assault, wife beating, and stalking developed as a way to challenge cultural beliefs that accepted violence against women (Ake & Arnold, 2018). However, despite these movements, attitudes supporting violence and blaming victims continues to persist today. Generally speaking, the idea of patriarchy, or that men are dominant and superior to women, is thought to be one of the sources that creates an environment or culture where violence is accepted (Fox, 2002). Central to this are the attitudes that people hold regarding the acceptance of violence against women. As Flood (2009) argues, "attitudes play a role in the perpetration of this violence, in victims' responses to victimization, and in community responses to violence against women" (p. 125).

Throughout the literature, different types of attitudes and ways to assess attitudes supportive of violence against women have been developed. One example is rape myths, which are "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but widely and persistently held, and that serve

to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). Just as rape myth scales measure under what conditions it is acceptable for a man to sexually assault a woman (e.g., if she is wearing "skimpy" clothes), other measures have been constructed to assess attitudes supporting other types of violence such as the Domestic Violence Myth Acceptance Scale (Peters, 2008), the Inventory of Beliefs about Wife Beating (Saunders, Lynch, Grayson, & Linz, 1987) or the Stalking Myth Acceptance Scale (Dunlap, Lynch, Jewell, Wasarhaley, & Golding, 2015). In addition, attitudes assessing endorsement of traditional gender roles have been shown to be related to the acceptance of violence against women (e.g., Burt, 1980; Forbes, Jobe, White, Bloesch, & Adams-Curtis, 2005; Grubb & Turner, 2012). Ashmore and colleagues (1995) developed the Gender Attitude Inventory to evaluate opinions related to among other things, superiority of women, homosexuality, and disapproval of sexual relations of women. Also included in their measure was a scale to assess chivalry. Glick and Fiske (1996) also developed a survey to assess attitudes related to chivalry, which they termed benevolent sexism. In addition, their Ambivalent Sexism Inventory assesses hostile sexism. These two scales are complementary of one another to reinforce the idea that "women inhabit restricted domestic roles and are the "weaker" sex" (Glick & Fiske, 1996, p. 492). Taken together, these scales attempt to assess the culture that supports violence against women.

Research on the endorsement of attitudes supportive of violence towards women has found that men are much more likely to endorse negative attitudes than women. For example, in a meta-analysis, Suarez and Gadalla (2010) found that men endorse significantly higher levels of rape myth acceptance than women. Endorsement of rape myths and other negative attitudes regarding women has been found to be associated with perpetration of sexual violence. For example, Abbey and McAuslan (2004) found that men who committed sexual violence more

than once were more likely to have hostile gender-role beliefs, more callous attitudes towards women and a greater belief that verbal pressure is an acceptable sexual strategy (i.e., not a sexual assault) than non-assaulters. Furthermore, among high school students, Reed and colleagues (2011) found that high school boys who endorsed traditional gender roles were more likely to report dating violence perpetration.

Violence against Women on College Campuses

While colleges may not be considered particularly criminogenic for most offenses, there is evidence to suggest that college women are at particular risk for gender-based victimizations. As will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3, certain factors related to the lifestyles of college students make victimization more likely. Traditional aged college students are among the highest age range (16-24) for victimization (Fisher et al., 1998). According to estimates from the NISVS, 71% of women who experienced contact sexual violence (e.g., kissing or fondling), physical violence/other forms of IPV or stalking at the hands of an intimate partner had their first victimization before the age of 25 (Breiding, 2014). While Fisher and colleagues (1998) argue that college is not a "hot spot" for crime generally, they do acknowledge that college women are at increased risk for sexual assault by known perpetrators.

When crime does occur on college campuses, it is often accompanied by the consumption of alcohol by either the perpetrator or victim (Hart & Miethe, 2011). Crimes involving violence against women are no different. For example, about half of all sexual assaults of college students involve drug or alcohol use, knowingly or unknowingly, by the perpetrator or victim (Abbey, Zawacki, Buck, Clinton, & McAuslan, 2001; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). In addition, IPV victimization is associated with drug and alcohol abuse. For example, in a meta-analysis of

47 studies involving IPV perpetrated by men, Foran and O'Leary (2008) found a small to moderate effect for the association between alcohol consumption and abuse and IPV perpetration. Furthermore, Coker and colleagues (2000) found that the strongest predictor of physical and sexual IPV was the male partner's drug or alcohol abuse.

Issues related to alcohol and drug use may be exacerbated on college campuses, as they are often associated with a drinking and hook up culture (Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012). For example, even when discussing consensual "hooking up" LaBrie and colleagues (2014) found that 34% of women and 28% of men believed they would not have gone as far as they physically did had they not consumed alcohol. In regards to sexual assault, research has shown that on college campuses, alcohol has been used by perpetrators to make victims more vulnerable (Lisak, 2008).

Though there is a culture that accepts violence against women, research generally suggests that Americans agree that physical acts of violence against women are forms of IPV. As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, Carlson and Worden (2005) found that while nearly all of the 12,000 adults they surveyed believed acts of physical violence, such as slapping, punching, or physically forcing wife to have sex, were instances of IPV, only about half believed that non-physical victimizations, such as stalking or psychological abuse (e.g., name calling), were instances of IPV. In a study that extended Carlson and Worden's (2005) research to college students, Nabors and colleagues (2006) found that college students generally had similar levels of agreement about IPV, with one notable exception. They found that only 29% of college students believed that a husband insulting his wife by calling her a "stupid slob" was IPV, compared with 54% of the adult sample. While law makers have attempted to strengthen laws and prevention efforts for violence against women on college campuses, such as requiring

bystander intervention programs to all new students, much of these efforts focus on physical acts. The results of the study by Nabors and colleagues (2006) suggest that it is vitally important that student college students' attitudes about and reactions to a range of non-physical acts of violence are studied as they are among the age group that has the highest rates of victimization (Fisher et al., 1998) and, as will be discussed in more detail, cultural conditions on college campuses perpetuate an environment where violence is accepted.

Non-Physical Violence against Women

Thus far, this chapter has predominately focused on violence against women that is physical in nature; however, this is not the only type of violence that women experience. IPV and dating violence often have a psychological component. In addition, certain types of sexual violence, such as incapacitated rape and drug and alcohol facilitated rape, are distinguished from forcible rape since they lack an element of force. Furthermore, certain acts related to stalking have been recognized as being non-physical and psychologically damaging. More covert forms of violence, such as the psychological abuse previously mentioned in the Nabors and colleagues' (2006) study, are being recognized for the strong negative impact that they can have on victims and may be viewed by victims to be more harmful than physical abuse (O'Leary, 1999; Walker, 1979).

Today, greater attention has been given to non-physical forms of victimization experienced by women. For example, the metadata tag "#MaybeHeDoesntHitYou," which originated on Twitter in 2016, draws attention to the fact that IPV encompasses more than physical abuse. Women throughout the world have used this hashtag to provide examples of the non-physical abuse that they have experienced, such as the following post by one women,

"#maybehedoesnthityou but he manipulates you and threatens to commit suicide if you leave him" (Dicker, 2016). While non-physical victimization has received greater attention from the general public in recent years, researchers have known for some time that non-physical victimization can have long lasting and detrimental effects for women. For example, Coker and colleagues (2002) found that even after accounting for the effects of physical IPV, those who experienced higher levels of psychological IPV were more likely to have negative health outcomes, including developing a chronic disease or mental illness, injury and depressive symptoms. Likewise, Sargent and colleagues (2016) found that college students who experienced psychological IPV and cyber victimization were more likely to experience increased depressive symptoms and antisocial behavior. Furthermore, Brown and colleagues (2009) found that there were no differences between women who experienced forcible or incapacitated rape in terms of indicating an emotional or psychological response. While forcible rape victims believed they experienced more trauma immediately following the sexual assault than incapacitated victims, incapacitated victims were more likely to blame themselves and less likely to blame the perpetrator than were victims of forcible rape. Brown and colleagues (2009) also found that victims who experienced forcible or incapacitated rape experienced more long-term post-traumatic stress symptoms, though victims of forcible rape experienced more symptoms. Findings such as these highlight the importance of studying in more detail the effects of less violent victimizations.

In examining violence against women on college campuses, Belknap and Sharma (2014) argue that there is a high degree of non-violent/physical gender-based abuse. These non-violent/physical forms of abuse are often hidden from other students or adults who may be able to intervene. The hidden nature leads Belknap and Sharma (2014) to define these types of

violence as SGBA. SGBAs are non-violent/physical forms of victimization that women experience along a continuum of violence against women. SGBA can include psychological or other non-violent/physical forms of IPV, non-violent/physical forms of stalking and incapacitated or coerced sexual assault.

As outlined by Belknap and Sharma (2014) there are several characteristics that are common among the different forms of SGBA. First, SGBAs occur in greater frequency than forms of violent/physical abuse. For example, a woman is more likely to be the victim of incapacitated sexual assault than forcible rape (Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004). Though they have been studied to a lesser extent, non-physical forms of IPV have been shown to occur at a higher frequency than physical forms of abuse. In a study of 2,541 college students, Gover and colleagues (2008) found that for both men and women, 52% reported psychological abuse victimization by an intimate partner compared with 22% who were victimized by physical violence. In addition to occurring more frequently, they may have a different impact on victims. Research has shown that the impact of non-physical abuse can have a lasting impact on victims (Brown et al., 2009). Relatedly, research has shown that women are more likely to leave a relationship when it is violent but are more likely to stay and try to fix a relationship where there is emotional abuse (Rhatigan & Street, 2005). This tendency to stay in a relationship longer where psychological and emotional abuse is occur prolongs the chances of abuse occurring.

While these crimes may at first glance seem distinct, there is often overlap among the different types of victimization. For example, Fisher and colleagues (2002), who found that women who had been previously sexually assaulted were more likely to be stalked. Relatedly, in a study of acutely battered women, Mechanic and colleagues (2000) found that “battering

(physical abuse), emotional abuse and stalking tend to be serial and ongoing and can occur during and after the termination of the romantic relationship" (p. 11). Mechanic and colleagues (2000) also found that for their sample, stalking was more closely related to emotional and psychological abuse than physical violence. As will be discussed in more detail below, there is overlap between in-person and cyber victimization. For example DeKeseredy and colleagues (2019) found that technology-facilitated stalking was strongly associated with IPV and sexual assault.

Lastly, SGBAs have consequences that permeate through different ecological levels of society. First and foremost, victims of SGBA experience negative consequences as related to their victimization. For example, college students who reported experiencing stalking were more likely to experience somatization, depression and hostility than those who were not stalked (Amar, 2006). In addition, students are likely to experience adverse consequences related to school performance. In a study of 74 students who had experienced sexual or physical/verbal abuse by an intimate partner and sought university support, Mengo and Black (2016) found that there were significant drops in GPA following each of the types of violence experienced. However, students who experienced both sexual and physical/verbal abuse by an intimate partner had the largest decline in GPA following victimization.

Extending Violence against Women to Cyber Space

The previously mentioned case (see Chapter 1) involving NFL player Ray Rice highlights how instances of violence against women can be continued in cyber space. While the Ray Rice case sparked Twitter hashtags that ultimately helped to show the complicated nature of domestic violence through the hashtags "WhyILeft" and "WhyIStayed," the underlying sentiment

perpetuates a culture that blames women for the abuse they experience. While the "#Metoo" movement was started in 2006 by Tarana Burke, it exploded on the internet in 2017 following allegations against Harvey Weinstein (Johnson & Hawbaker, 2018). Although these movements and hashtags have brought to light the impact of violence against women, there remains a culture where violence against women is minimized. When moved to the online setting, people often minimize and attack the experiences of an alleged victim. For example, following allegations against Johnny Depp, many people took to Twitter and Facebook to express their opinion that Amber Heard was lying about the allegations. As an illustration, one person posted "Johnny didn't do it. She is so full of crap. She probably tripped and hit her face on something and decided to blame Johnny" (Finn, 2016).

Examples of negative reactions to violence against women directed towards victims are not limited to celebrities. There are numerous examples of young women being condemned online following sexual assaults. For instance, following the 2012 sexual assault of 16 year old Jane Doe, of Steubenville, Ohio, people across the country attacked the girl on social media. Pictures and video of the unconscious girl were posted on numerous social media platforms and spread throughout the school and town (Goldman, 2013). Ultimately, the 16- and 17- year old perpetrators who sexually assaulted Jane Doe were convicted (Goh, 2013). As shown in the documentary entitled *Audrie and Daisy* by Cohen and Shenk (2016), the posting of sexually violent pictures can have a lasting effect on its victims. The profound impact of cyber sexual violence can be seen in the case of Audrie Pott, a 16 year old from California who was sexually assaulted by classmates and had pictures distributed among students at the school. Other than talking to the perpetrators she largely kept the experience quiet. Ultimately, she did not tell her parents about what happened to her before committing suicide one week after the assault

occurred (Cohen & Shenk, 2016). As this case highlights, when pictures and videos are presented online the experience associated with victimization are heightened.

Comments made by Leah Parsons, following the suicide death of her 17- year old daughter Rehtaeh Parsons after being sexually assaulted by four boys, show the pervasiveness that occurs once pictures and videos of sexual assaults are displayed online. Speaking of the harassment that her daughter experienced before she took her life, Parsons said, "she was never left alone. She had to leave the community. Her friends turned against her. People harassed her. Boys she didn't know started texting her and Facebooking her asking her to have sex with them. It just never stopped" (Jauregui, 2013). A similar sentiment was echoed by Delaney Henderson, who was also sexually assaulted while in high school. In the 2016 *Audrie and Daisy* documentary, Henderson talks about her experiences following the assault (Cohen & Shenk, 2016). She said, "like the assault and the rape happened but it was the after effect, I think that was so much worse. I mean there was pictures forwarded all over Facebook, all over Twitter. There was hashtags created #DelaneyHendersonIsASlut." For each of these high profile examples, there are countless others that have not received widespread media attention.

In examining the different ways that victimization carries into cyber space several things become evident. First, all forms of violence against women can occur in cyber space. The above mentioned situations involving high school students show some of the ways that sexual violence victimization can occur online. In addition to harassment occurring after sexual violence, other forms of sexual violence, such as image-based abuse (i.e., the sending of unwanted sexual pictures, sharing of sexual pictures/videos without a person's consent, or revenge porn), can occur in cyber space. In addition, sexual assaults have been broadcast via Facebook and other social media sites. Dating violence in cyber space can take on a variety of forms. Much of the

research involving IPV and technology has focused on high school students (e.g., Zweig, Lachman, Yahner, & Dank, 2014). Cyber IPV can include making threats through technological devices, using social media or texting to call a person names or spread rumors, or using technology to keep track of a person (Marganski & Melander, 2015; Zweig et al., 2014). Cyber abuse has been viewed by researchers as another avenue for victimization to occur. In focus groups of college students, participants told Melander (2010) that technology was used to victimize partners in intimate relationships because it is "quick and easy violence" and private matters become public. In others words, students recognized that perpetrators employed technology as a way to insult or embarrass partners in a public setting.

Arguably the area that has received the most attention regarding technology and victimization is stalking and cyber stalking. Like stalking, cyber stalking is repetitive unwanted contact (Fraser, Olsen, Lee, Southworth, & Tucker, 2010). However, cyber stalkers exploit technology, such as mobile phones, email, or social media, to engage in stalking beyond traditional means (Fraser et al., 2010). Cyber stalking can include monitoring a person's email communications, sending emails that threaten or insult, or using the internet to find information about the victim (Southworth, Finn, Dawson, Fraser, & Tucker, 2007). In addition, a number of technological advancements have made it easier for stalking to occur, such as the use of GPS and location services, computer monitoring software and hidden cameras (Southworth et al., 2007).

Within each of these three types of victimizations, technology is seen as a way to facilitate violence. As Marganski and Melander (2015) argue, "technology allows for the extension of behaviors found in person and can be deemed an outgrowth of other abusive behaviors" (p. 4). In other words, as described by Fraser and colleagues (2010), technology provides perpetrators with additional tools to perpetrate violence. Previous research does indicate

that cyber victimization often co-occurs with other types of violence. For example, Marganski and Melander (2015) found that intimate partner cyber aggression was significantly related to in-person psychological, physical, and sexual aggression. Among women who had experienced technology-facilitated stalking by an intimate partner, Woodlock (2017) found that 82% had also experienced emotional abuse, 58% experienced sexual abuse, 39% experienced physical violence and 37% experienced financial abuse.

Furthermore, a large number of people experience varying degrees of harassment online. For example, Duggan (2014) found that 40% of online users surveyed had been targeted at least one time, with 8% being physically threatened or stalked and 6% having been sexually harassed. Wolford-Clevenger and colleagues (2016) found that 40% of the 502 college students they studied had been the victim of cyber dating violence. However, there is great variation in the amount of victimization found in studies as Marganski and Melander (2015) found that nearly three-fourths of the 540 college students studied had experienced at least one type of intimate partner cyber aggression and over half had experienced at least one type of in-person IPV during the previous year.

Unfortunately, given that there is no way to measure the true extent of victimization a completely accurate count of victimization is impossible. One of the biggest reasons for this is a lack of clear definitions and conceptualizations of victimization. For example, terms used to study IPV that occurs in cyber space include cyber aggression, electronic aggression, electronic victimization, electronic intrusion, technological aggression, cyber harassment, and online harassment (Bennett, Guran, Ramos, & Margolin, 2011; Marganski & Melander, 2015; Reed, Tolman, & Safyer, 2015; Wolford-Clevenger et al., 2016). In addition to different terms employed by researchers, there is variation in measures of abuse. For example, Wolford-

Clevenger and colleagues (2016) used a nine-item measure that included items asking about partner monitor of social media, use of technology without partners permission, or as a way to send angry messages. While Marganski and Melander (2015) studied victimization with a 18-item measure that included threats to the victim, their family and the perpetrator. In regards to sexual violence, some instances of harassment following sexual assault have been characterized as bullying. However, doing so would be inappropriate. Dodge (2016) argues, cases involving cyber harassment following sexual violence, "may be more accurately explained as instances of online sexual violence, digital sexual assault or as the proliferation of digital *evidence* of sexual assault" (p. 67) and to classify them as bullying minimizes the impact that they can have on victims. As these sentiments indicate, it is important that researchers accurately define and conceptualize cyber victimization.

Researchers generally agree that cyber space creates a new dimension that enhances victimization. For example, as Dodge (2016) notes, cyber space presents a new way to exacerbate issues surrounding sexual violence. Similar sentiments were echoed by White and Carmondy (2016) who said, "new technologies provide new tools to inflict harm, whether intentional or unintentional" (p. 2). Belknap and Sharma argue, "the vastness of the virtual world allows for a more protected and shielded environment for cyber stalking to occur without notice and restraint" (Belknap & Sharma, 2014, p. 186). Likewise, as discussed by Bocij and McFarlane (2003), "technology both enables and invites participation in criminal or antisocial behaviour from individuals who would not normally take part in such activities" (p. 204). Though Bocij and McFarlane (2003) only discuss cyber stalking, they argue that many of the components of cyber space make victimization more likely. Much like the presences of "rape culture" that accepts violence towards women protects men who commit violent acts (see

Schwartz & Pitts, 1995), technology provides ways for perpetrators to commit violence and deviant acts without fear of sanction (Bocij & McFarlane, 2003). Some of these technological and social factors include anonymity, the ability to disguise or remove evidence of deviant acts, perceptions of power and control and a lack of policing. Throughout the literature, these types of victimization are often discussed in isolation. For example, though Belknap and Sharma (2014) acknowledge that cyber stalking can be viewed as a form of SBGA, they do not discuss non-physical online forms of victimization involving sexual or dating violence. The present study sought to incorporate literature from each of these areas to broadly discuss cyber violence against women.

One of the characteristics of SGBAs that Belknap and Sharma (2014) discuss is that they often go unnoticed, unreported and untreated. These three areas may interact differently for cyber violence against women. Research suggests that cyber victimizations are underreported. For example, Kraft and Wang (2010) found that among college students who had experienced cyber stalking or cyber bullying one in five did not report the experience to anyone. While Branch and colleagues (2013) found that the majority of incoming freshman reported that they would attempt to intervene if their friend was the victim (87%) or perpetrator (84%) of dating violence, just over half reported that they would tell university officials (54%) or law enforcement (56%) about friend's victimization and even less reported that they would tell university officials (38%) or law enforcement (42%) about friend's dating violence perpetration. However, not reporting victimization may be amplified in cyber space victimizations as the victimizations do not go unnoticed. When victimizations occur online, hundreds and potentially thousands of people see the victimization. As shown by research conducted by Bauman and Baldasare (2015) when social media sites, such as Facebook, are used to perpetrate bullying,

there is a higher level of emotional distress for the victim. Yet, little is known about when and how intervention will occur. The sentence displayed at the beginning of Chapter 1, that "the words of our enemies aren't as awful as the silence of our friends" uttered by Daisy Coleman at the end of the *Audrie and Daisy* documentary highlights the need to assess reactions of peers and develop programs that help peers support victim of cyber violence. Intervention will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

Summary

As discussed throughout this chapter violence against women has been a topic studied by researchers throughout the past 50 years. Today, there is a greater understanding of the many different forms of violence that women experience. While researchers have historically examined aspects related to physical violence, today there is a greater call for understanding other types of violence against women. Belknap and Sharma (2014) have discussed the need for focusing on SGBAs. These abuses are non-physical, experienced by a large number of college women, and often unreported, unnoticed and untreated. This dissertation sought to expand the research regarding SGBAs by looking at cyber forms of these victimizations. As will be discussed in Chapter 3, this study sought to understand victimization utilizing the feminist routine activities theory. In addition, knowledge gained through the assessment of bystander intervention will be incorporated to gain a better understanding of what capable guardianship entails.

CHAPTER 3:

ROUTINE ACTIVITIES THEORY AND FEMINIST ROUTINE ACTIVITIES THEORY AS A FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

While originally developed to explain differences in burglary rates, routine activities theory (RAT) have been used throughout the years to explain a wide variety of victimizations. This theory posits that differences in the lifestyle and demographics of individuals are related to their risk for victimization. As it relates to the dissertation, RAT has been used to explain violence against women, such as sexual violence (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995), stalking (Fisher et al., 2002), and cyber victimizations (Reyns, Henson, & Fisher, 2011). Within this chapter, traditional RAT will first be discussed. Next, two applications of RAT will be discussed. First, the feminist perspective and how it enhances our understanding of violence against women is incorporated into RAT. Though there are different feminist perspectives, this study builds on the feminist framework of RAT proposed by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) to discuss differences in victimization of women. Second, this chapter examines how RAT has been conceptualized within the literature regarding cyber victimization. Though some (e.g., Yar, 2005) argue that RAT is not applicable for cyber victimizations, this dissertation argues that RAT is ideally suited to explain the cyber violence being studied. While each of the components of RAT have been operationalized in a number of different ways, one component of RAT frequently yielded inconsistent findings. The current study sought to address this issue by further examining what capable guardianship means

by incorporating aspects related to bystander intervention research. Bystander intervention research strengthens our understanding of what capable guardianship is and provides a greater understanding of when a person may act as a capable guardian.

Routine Activities Theory

RAT was developed in 1979 by Cohen and Felson as a theory that examined the fluctuations in crime trends occurring in the United States. Cohen and Felson saw that the nature of the American lifestyle was changing and crime rates were increasing. In other words, there were changes to the routine activities that citizens engaged in that could account for higher rates of crime. For example, more women were working outside the home, there was more expendable money, and luxury items (e.g., TVs, VCRs) were becoming smaller and lighter, making them easier to be stolen. Based on these observations, Cohen and Felson (1979) suggested that three factors are necessary components of crime. They are a suitable target, motivated offender, and the lack of a capable guardian. When these three elements converge in time and space, crime may occur. Within the theory motivated offenders are seen as a given. Suitable targets may be locations (e.g., unoccupied homes) or people (e.g., a person walking home alone). Capable guardianship can come from one's self, physical measures, such as lighting and cameras or other target hardening measures, or as social guardianship, in which other people may act as guardians (Fisher et al., 2002).

Developed around the same time as RAT, lifestyle theory posits that an individual's lifestyle is related to their risk of victimization. Hindelang and colleagues (1978) argue that demographic differences in the likelihood of victimization are attributed to differences in the personal lifestyles of victims. Variations in the lifestyle of individuals interact to create

variations in exposure to high risk situations. Stated differently, people's daily activities may naturally bring them in contact with criminal elements and increase the chance of being victimized. Though lifestyle theory and routine activities are different theories, some have suggested that the concepts are essentially the same and can be considered together (Meier & Miethe, 1993). Throughout the remainder of the study, these theories will collectively be referred to as RAT.

While it is often believed that RAT developed as a macro level theory (Wilcox & Cullen, 2018), Felson (2016) argues that since its inception RAT has incorporated macro and micro level characteristics. At the macro level are the characteristics related to larger society and communities that converge, making crime more likely. At the micro level, crime occurs when a suitable target and likely offender converge in the absence of a capable guardian. The work by Hindelang and colleagues (1978) further strengthens the micro level understanding of RAT. For example, Hindelang and colleagues (1978) discuss how individual characteristics and activities increase their likelihood of victimization.

Throughout the years, RAT has been used to explain a wide variety of crimes and victimization, including property crimes (Miethe et al., 1987), street robbery (Groff, 2007), and urban murder (Messner & Tardiff, 1985). RAT has also been applied to crimes involving the elderly, such as financial elder abuse (Setterlund, Tilse, Wilson, McCawley, & Rosenman, 2007). The applicability of RAT has been shown to explain crimes against children and adolescents, such as physical abuse and neglect (Freisthler, Midanik, & Gruenewald, 2004) and sexual victimization (Sasse, 2005). In addition, Gover (2004) found that high school students in South Carolina who engaged in risky lifestyles, such as using drugs, driving under the influence

and engaging in risky sexual behavior, increased their chances of becoming victims of teen dating violence.

The demographics and routine activities of college students may work together to create opportunities for victimization to occur. In one of the first wide scale victimization studies involving college students, Fisher and colleagues (1998) contend that the demographic characteristics of college campuses are particularly conducive to victimization. College campuses feature a large number of students, who are young, and unmarried. Both of these characteristics have been shown to be related to increased risk for victimization. Fisher and colleagues (1998) argue that younger students may be less vigilant in protecting themselves and their property or may participate in activities that increase their exposure to motivated offenders. Similarly, those who are unmarried may increase their exposure to motivated offenders through different activities. Many students live away from parents who could provide a level of capable guardianship. This lack of guardianship coupled with an at-risk demographic and a risky lifestyle, where students frequently go out at night, use drugs or alcohol and join organizations that encourage social activities increase their exposure to criminal victimization (Fisher et al., 1998).

Tests of RAT have found support for the theory's application on college campuses. Fisher and colleagues (1998) found that in regards to violent victimization, those who spent several nights per week partying or who used recreational drugs were at an increased risk for victimization. However, the only guardianship measure that was significant was attending a non-mandatory crime prevention or awareness meeting. In other words, those who chose to attend a meeting regarding crime prevention were less likely to be the victim of a violent crime. In addition, they found a number of proximity to crime variables increased theft victimization risk,

such as living in a dorm that had men and spending large amounts of money on nonessential items each week. These findings were echoed in a more recent study by Franklin and colleagues (2012) who found that routine activities of college students were associated with increases in property, personal and sexual assault victimization of college students. For example, the number of days per week spent partying (increased proximity to motivated offenders) significantly increased the likelihood of both property victimization and sexual assault victimization. Furthermore, Clodfelter and colleagues (2010) found that college women who had a greater presence on campus (proximity to a motivated offender) were more likely to experience sexual harassment, while women who increased their level of guardianship by carrying pepper spray and being escorted to their car at night by campus security were less likely to experience sexual harassment. Taken together, these findings suggest that there are particular types of crimes that occur among college students that are well suited to be explained by RAT.

While victimization of college students has been generally explained using RAT, some crimes do not follow the general rules of victimization. For example, Jennings and colleagues (2007) found that there were significant gender differences related to certain types of crimes committed on college campuses. They found that college women were two times more likely to experience sexual violence victimization than men. Likewise, Kilpatrick and colleagues (2007) found that women are more likely to be sexually assaulted by a person known to them. Though at first glance RAT may not be well suited to explain these types of victimization, researchers have shown that RAT can provide a useful explanation for violence against women (Clodfelter et al., 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). For example, Schwartz and Pitts (1995) found that compared to college women who experienced sexually coercive aggression or no sexual violence, women who experienced sexual assault were more likely to go

out drinking more often and have friends who intoxicated women for the purpose of having sex with them.

In explaining sexual violence, researchers have noted that there are key differences in violence against women that are not captured within the original Cohen and Felson RAT. For example, violence against women is likely to occur at home, thus negating the protection that is said to occur by being at home. Furthermore, although motivated offenders are taken as a given in Cohen and Felson's RAT, motivation is important when discussing violence against women. Many argue that it is the desire to maintain power and control over women that leads to violence against women (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). The next section discusses the integration of this perspective into Cohen and Felson's RAT to more adequately address the unique dynamics of violence against women.

Feminist Routine Activities Theory

Schwartz and Pitts (1995) intertwined the feminist perspective with RAT in order to explain how RAT is enhanced by the feminist perspective in the understanding of sexual violence. Today, this perspective has been expanded in order to explain other types of violence against women, such as stalking and interpersonal victimizations (Franklin et al., 2012; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999, 2002; Schwartz, DeKeseredy, & Tait, 2001). This approach considers the broader context around violence against women in their explanation for the victimization of women. Likewise, feminist RAT maintains that there are differences in the types of victimization that men and women experience. Men, for example, are more likely to be the victim of crime generally; however, women are more likely to be the victim of certain crimes, such as sexual assault (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). In addition, victimization of women often occurs in the context

of power and control. Men may feel the need to maintain power and control over specific individual women or their actions may be viewed on a societal level where there is a culture of acceptance whereby men instill fear and control over women (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). Incorporating RAT and feminist theories allows for an explanation of why some women are at a higher risk for victimization than other women and incorporates "the context of cultural and societal norms and values about violence, especially violence against women" (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002, p. 90). While there are different feminist theories, the current study focuses on the application developed by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) and elaborated on by others (i.e., Mustaine &Tewksbury, 2002). The following section will discuss how each of the three tenants of RAT or enhanced by the feminist perspective.

Motivated Offenders

Within Traditional RAT motivated offenders are viewed as something that is always present; however, feminist RAT argues that the societal conditions that allow for violence against women create an environment where motivated offenders exist. Broader societal influences should be examined to understand the context in which motivated offenders exist. For example, both male peer support networks and the presences of a rape supportive culture allow for motivated offenders to exist (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Generally speaking, male peer support is the relationships with male peers that support attitudes accepting violence against women (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2013). Similarly, rape supportive culture is the set of beliefs and values that allow an environment that fosters sexual violence (Buchwald, Fletcher, & Roth, 2005). Rape supportive culture can be seen through the endorsement of rape myths, which serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against

women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Taken together, both male peer support groups and the culture that accepts violence against women are two ways that feminist scholars have shown that motivated offenders exist in our society.

Target Suitability

While Cohen and Felson maintain that motivated offenders are seen as a given, feminist RAT suggests that women as suitable targets on college campuses are a given. Feminist RAT argues that instead of property being viewed as a "suitable target" it is women who are viewed as a "target" (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). This notion allows for a differential explanation of victimization risk based on the routine activities and lifestyle characteristics associated with different groups of women (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). For example, feminist RAT acknowledges that though women are more likely to experience certain crimes, there are differences in routine activities that differentiate the risk of victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). As an illustration, researchers have found that women who have been intoxicated in public are more likely to experience sexual violence and stalking victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). While this does seem to suggest that women who consume alcohol or engage in other "risky" behaviors, such as going out at night, are responsible for their victimization, feminist RAT argues that it is the cultural norms surrounding masculinity and the acceptance of violence towards women that creates motivated offenders who are more likely to view women as suitable targets when they are intoxicated or otherwise engaging in "risky" behaviors. It should be stated clearly, in no way do feminist routine activities scholars blame women for victimization that they experience, nor is that the intention of this author.

Research has shown that there are lifestyle routines that increase the likelihood of a women experiencing victimization. Certain factors, such as drinking alcohol more often and having friends who used alcohol as a means to increase chances of having sex, were found to be associated with sexual violence (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Within their more in depth analysis of the theory proposed by Schwartz and Pitts (1995), Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) found that sexual assault victimization risk was primarily related to the proximity that women had to rape-supportive male peer groups. Women who were involved in more organizations, went out more often at night and used drugs were at increased risk for sexual assault (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). Fisher and colleagues (1998) found that several lifestyle activities were related to violent victimization. College students who indicated that they spent a lot of time partying on campus or used recreational drugs were more likely to experience violent victimization.

Capable Guardianship

Lastly, college is a time where there is an increased likelihood for the absence of capable guardians (Fisher et al., 1998). This is in part due to demographic and lifestyle activities of college students, coupled with the students first experiences with a lack of guardianship. While parents may act as a capable guardian for high school students, the influence of parents is often diminished for college students. Among high school students, Bjarnason and colleagues (1999) found that parental support was moderately related to violent victimization. Similarly, Spano and Nagy (2005) found that parental monitoring was related to lower levels of victimization of high school students. While research has shown that high school students are afforded some level of guardianship by their parents, these effects may not exist once a student moves away from home. While the role of parents acting as a capable guardian may be weakened, friends may exhibit a

greater guardianship effect of college students. Again, predominately studied at the high school level, friendship quality has been shown to have a protective factor on victimization (Jantzer, Hoover, & Narloch, 2006; Schmidt & Bagwell, 2007). Though these studies do not examine routine activities theory specifically, they do account for the role that parents and friends can play as capable guardians. The potential protective role of parents and friends to act as a capable guardian on college students will be examined within this study.

As related to the current study, feminist RAT builds upon capable guardianship in three important ways. First, in part due to the rape supportive culture, values that legitimize sexual violence can be acquired or strengthened while on college campuses and impact capable guardianship. College is a time when, more than ever, students self-select into groups that are similar to them. For example, in a meta-analysis of 29 studies, Murnen and Kohlman (2007) found that men in fraternities held more negative attitudes towards woman than did men who were not in fraternities. This would suggest that, within these groups, there is a lack of men who would act as a capable guardian and speak out to prevent violence against women. In addition to individuals acting as a capable guardian, institutions can also act as capable guardians. Due to the lack of accountability within the criminal justice system, deterrence for committing sexual violence is low, thus enhancing perceptions that there is not a capable guardian present (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995).

Second, feminist RAT scholars suggest that it is important to study who potential guardians are. Hayes (2016) applied feminist RAT to the analysis of IPV of adult women and focused on the presence of capable guardians. Her findings highlight the importance of examining what capable guardianship entails. Cohen and Felson (1979) argue that crime occurs in the absence of a capable guardian. Capable guardianship is often measured as the mere

presence of others. When Hayes (2016) analyzed her data, she defined capable guardian in two separate ways. When analyzed as the presence or absence of another person there was no protection from continued IPV. However, when guardianship looked at the presence of friends or family members of the victim there was a reduction in IPV. These findings suggest that simply being present may not constitute capable guardianship for all crimes. The idea of the quality of the capable guardian, instead of just the mere presence of another, is elaborated at the end of this chapter when the bystander intervention framework is discussed.

Lastly, while Cohen and Felson (1979) propose that home is a safe place, where the likelihood of victimization is minimized, feminist RAT scholars argue that home may not provide a safe place where guardianship is increased. In other words, Cohen and Felson (1979) argue that victimization is increased when people engage in activities outside their home, presumably because there is an increased chance of coming into contact with motivated offenders and a lack of capable guardians. It is generally thought that offenders are unknown to victim. However, crimes involving violence against women are likely to occur at home or by a person that the victim knows (Truman, 2012), people who would presumably be viewed as capable guardians under the original formulation of RAT. Likewise, feminist RAT offers a different explanation for why activities outside of the home may be related to increased victimization. In examining stalking victimizations, Mustaine and Tewksbury (1999) found that women who lived off campus, who went shopping at malls, and who have used drugs and alcohol were more likely to be victims of stalking. Traditional and feminist perspectives of RAT can provide different explanations for why shopping at a mall was related to stalking victimization. In line with traditional RAT, women who go shopping at the mall increase their chances of coming in contact with a motivated offender by being out in public more often.

However, Mustaine and Tewksbury (1999) argue that women do not feel safe in their own homes because of stalking victimization and participate in public activities to stay away from their home.

In summary, feminist RAT builds on RAT as originally developed by Cohen and Felson (1979). First, feminist RAT adds the important social conditions that allow for motivated offenders to exist within society. In addition, while feminist RAT posits that women generally are more likely to be victims of certain crimes simply because they are women, there is a differential risk of victimization based upon routine activities and lifestyle characteristics (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Furthermore, capable guardianship is reduced by societal attitudes that encourage violence towards women. These effects may be more substantial on college campuses as students move away from home. Considered together, feminist RAT builds upon the explanation of traditional RAT by incorporating acceptance of violence in the understanding of victimization involving violence against women.

Cyber Routine Activities Theory

Throughout this chapter, the discussion of victimization has revolved around in-person victimization. However, as discussed in Chapter 2, criminology as a field is increasingly recognizing the role of technology in facilitating interpersonal victimization and the deleterious effects of cyber victimization. For example, Dodge (2016) argues that online photos of sexual violence create new concerns for victims and serves as both a continuation of the original trauma and as its own form of trauma. While Cohen and Felson (1969) do not specifically talk about the use of computers or the internet in their original development of the theory, they do discuss the use of technology and crime. They state,

> "many technological advances designed for legitimate purposes – including the automobile, small power tools, hunting weapons, highways, rapid transit systems, telephones, etc. – may enable offenders to carry out their own work more effectively or may assist people in protecting their own or someone else's person or property" (Felson & Cohen, 1980, p. 393).

Recently, Felson (2016) argues that RAT can be applied to cyber crimes. RAT has been applied to cyber victimization involving interpersonal violence (e.g., cyber harassment, cyber bullying, and cyber stalking) and computer assisted victimization (e.g., online fraud, computer virus infection). Related to this dissertation, RAT has been applied to various forms of interpersonal violence victimization including cyber bullying (Navarro & Jasinski, 2012, 2013), cyber stalking (Leukfeldt & Yar, 2016; Reyns et al., 2011; Reyns, Henson, & Fisher, 2015), cyber harassment (Holt & Bossler, 2008; Marcum, 2008; Ngo & Paternoster, 2011), cyber dating violence (Van Ouytsel, Ponnet, & Walrave, 2016) unwanted solicitations that are sexual in nature (Marcum, 2008; Ngo & Paternoster, 2011; Wolfe, Marcum, Higgins, & Ricketts, 2016).

While there is a debate as to whether or not RAT can and should be applied to cyber space, researchers have found support for the usage of RAT in cyber applications of violence against women. As will be discussed in more detail below, even among opponents of using RAT to explain cyber crimes (see Yar, 2005), there is agreement that the three conditions Cohen and Felson argue are necessary for crime to occur are present in cyber victimizations. Using Yar (2005) as a stepping stone, motivated offenders can be viewed as a given in the cyber and real world. The suitability of targets is seen as more complicated though generally aligns to real world RAT. Lastly, Yar (2005) contends that capable guardians can be found in cyber space. Researchers have generally supported Yar's explanation of the three conditions, with target suitability and the presence of capable guardians receiving most of the empirical attention. What is inherent in these discussions of the applicability of RAT to explain cyber victimization is that

researchers must be flexible in how they define target suitability and capable guardianship and innovative in the way that they measure these concepts.

Motivated Offenders

In regards to motivated offenders, much of the research has examined the exposure and proximity to motivated offenders. For example, in their examination of cyber bullying, Navarro and Jasinski (2012, 2013) examine the number of hours spent online each week. Others have measured exposure by the usage of social networking sites (Mesch, 2009; Reyns et al., 2011, 2015; Van Ouytsel et al., 2016) and different types of communication (e.g., email, AIM, text messages) (Marcum, 2008; Mesch, 2009; Reyns et al., 2011). Generally speaking, those who have more exposure to motivated offenders are more likely to be victimized online. However, while these classifications of motivated offenders are in line with traditional RAT theory, they do not carry over to feminist RAT. Just as feminist theory posits that cultural beliefs create an environment conducive for motivated offenders to commit violence in person, researchers have discussed the gendered nature of technology (Jenson & De Castell, 2010). For example, Beck and colleagues (2012) found that there was an increase in the acceptance of rape myths for men who played a video game in which women were sexually objectified and victimized. Likewise LaCroix and colleagues (2018) found that male participants who played a first-person shooter game in which women were sexualized reported an increase in hostile sexism, but not benevolent sexism. These studies provide support for the gendered nature that exists within technology and the impact of attitudes supporting violence against women.

Target Suitability

Target suitability has been examined in a number of different ways across the literature. As will be shown through the examples that follow, target suitability in cyber space generally follows traditional and feminist RAT findings. As with studying RAT in real life, much of the cyber literature revolves around actions and behaviors that individual's take that increases their likelihood of victimization. For example, researchers have found that participating in a risky online lifestyle, such as using the internet to look for new friends and sending personal information to strangers (Choi, 2008; Van Ouytsel et al., 2016), or engaging in deviant behaviors (Holt & Bossler, 2008; Navarro & Jasinski, 2013; Reyns et al., 2011), such as hacking or bullying, increased victimization risk. Just as feminist RAT posit that's individuals who are in closer proximity to motivated offenders are more likely to be victimized in person (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995), individuals who are in closer proximity to offenders online may be more likely to experience cyber victimization. In examining a number of types of cyber victimization, including cyber stalking, unwanted contact, harassment, sexual advancements and threats of violence Reyns and colleagues (2011) found that in regards to proximity, adding a stranger to their social network increased the odds of victimization across the four types of violence (cyber stalking, unwanted contact, harassment, and sexual advancements) but not for threats of violence.

Capable Guardianship

Adapting capable guardianship to cyber space presents researchers with the most challenges for the RAT literature. Much of this research involving guardianship focuses on the use of technology to decrease victimization, such as the use of software that blocks spam or viruses. These types of programs can be considered digital guardianship (Choi, 2008). Although

their ability to provide protection to users is questionable (Holt & Bossler, 2008, 2014). Programs that provide digital guardianship are not as applicable to the use of technology to facilitate interpersonal victimization. Instead, the role of others as a potential guardian should be explored. Just as in-person traditional and feminist RAT suggests that others have the ability to act as a capable guardian, cyber RAT posits that people can act as a capable guardian online. This is often seen in research involving younger populations that asks about parental monitoring (Marcum, 2008; Mesch, 2009; Navarro & Jasinski, 2012, 2013; Wolfe et al., 2016). In terms of college populations, monitoring has been examined with regard to whether or not those that are potentially deviant are watching over a person. This has been assessed in the research as having motivated offenders as friends (Holt & Bossler, 2008; Reyns et al., 2011, 2015).

By focusing on crimes involving interpersonal violence against women, some of the criticism of RATs applicability of explaining cyber victimization are minimized. For example, the largest criticism of cyber RAT is whether or not offenders and victims converge in time and space. This argument depends on how convergence is defined. For example, opponents of the application of RAT say that there is not a convergence of time and space online as online activities can be considered disorganized (Yar, 2005). In other words, offenders do not know when a potential victim (suitable target) may engage online and therefore the two do not converge in time and space. Leukfeldt and Yar (2016) further contend that without the ability to know the distance and proximity between offenders and victims, the usage of RAT is problematic. However, Reyns and colleagues (2011) argue that by analyzing cyber victimization in terms of systems (as originally developed by Eck & Clarke, 2003) there is a convergence. As Reyns and colleagues (2011) postulate while victims and offenders do not come together in the traditional physical sense, they do converge within a system of networked devices. However,

there may be a delay in time. For example, an ex-partner may post threats online in the middle of the night on Facebook, which the ex-girlfriend sees when she opens her Facebook the next morning. Though they do not physically converge, there is a convergence through the internet and cyber systems that creates an opportunity for victimization. This convergence can be seen as similar to a person's house being broken into while they are away at work. The person does not know that they have been victimized until they return home. Similarly, in the cyber setting, with known perpetrators a victim does not know they have been victimized until they log into cyber space.

In summary, RAT has been applied to cyber victimization. While there is some debate as to whether or not there is a convergence in time and space with the three components necessary for crime to occur, researchers have generally found support for different forms of interpersonal violence involving the use of the internet. RAT has been shown to be useful in explain cyber harassment, cyber stalking, and cyber bullying. By examining interpersonal victimizations that occur in cyber space, many of the criticisms of cyber RAT are diminished.

Understanding Capable Guardianship and Incorporating Bystander Intervention

While the different components of RAT have been tested in a variety of ways since the inception of the theory, the tenet of capable guardianship has proven to be difficult to study. RAT argues that crime will occur when there is the absence of capable guardianship in the presence of a motivated offender and suitable target. Throughout the literature, guardianship has been examined in a number of ways. For example, Mustaine and Tewksbury (1999) found that self-protective measures, such as carrying a pocket knife or mace, were associated with lower levels of victimization. Generally speaking, these forms of guardianship are called target

hardening measures. This includes measures that people take to make themselves or their property less attractive to offenders. For example, by placing cameras on a home or carrying pepper spray a person attempts to increase their levels of guardianship of their property and person.

Other researchers have examined more social aspects of guardianship. Social guardianship is the term given to people who have the ability to prevent interpersonal crimes by their presence or by interrupting an attack (Miethe & Meier, 1994; Spano & Nagy, 2005). However, research suggests that the mere presence of others may not be enough to prevent crime from occurring, and rather other factors serve to encourage potential guardians to act (Cook & Reynald, 2016). Among adolescents, the quality of relationships with parents and peers has been shown to impact victimization. For example, Henson and colleagues (2010) found that attachment to mothers was associated with lower levels of victimization. Conversely, Schreck and Fisher (2004) found that it wasn't attachment to mothers or fathers, but rather a positive characterization of the family that facilitated parents acting as a capable guardian. In regards to peers, having deviant peers or a lack of close friends or someone to count on has generally been found to diminish the ability of peers to act as a capable guardian and increase the likelihood of victimization (Schreck & Fisher, 2004; Spano & Nagy, 2005) However, having close friends may in fact act as some form of social guardianship. As Tillyer and colleagues (2011) suggest,

> "Individuals with positive attachments may spend more time in the company of others willing to protect them, they may be more likely to seek out guardianship from their attached others when fearful, and their loved ones may be more vigilant in providing protection relative to unattached others." (p. 2912)

Support for the ability of friends and family to act as a capable guardian among children and adults was found by Banyard and colleagues (2016). They found that among eight out of nine different types of victimization analyzed, those that had higher levels of social support were

more likely to have someone intervene on their behalf during the victimization. In other words, participants who believed that their family tried to help them and cared about them, that they could count on their friends to help them and talk to them about problems and that there were adults who served as mentors to provide them care and guidance were more likely to believe that a bystander acted in a way that helped them while they experienced a victimization.

Considering the quality of a capable guardian is important as bystander are present during many, if not most, interpersonal victimizations (Hart & Miethe, 2011). When present, bystanders must make a decision on how they will act. They can do nothing, or offer direct (i.e., assist the victim) or indirect (i.e., call on others to help intervene) intervention tactics (Hart & Miethe, 2008). Furthermore, the actions that bystanders take may have a positive, negative, or neutral impact on the situation. For example, Hamby and colleagues (2016) found that while bystanders were more likely to help in a situation where violence was occurring they harmed the situation about 5 to 10% of the time. Frequently, between one-quarter and one-half of the time, bystanders were viewed as having no impact on the situation.

Bystander intervention research has found that a number of factors influence whether potential guardians actually act as a capable guardian in the prevention of crime. For example, within each of the five steps outlined by Darley and Latané (1968) there are barriers to intervention that can occur (Burn, 2009). For example, people may not notice an event or that it requires intervention or they may not believe a victim should be helped. In addition, research by Laner and colleagues (2001) shows that having the skills necessary for intervention make it more likely for intervention to occur. They found that having experience breaking up fights was a significant factor in whether or not respondents would intervene. Relatedly, Katz and colleagues (2015) found that participants who felt a stronger responsibility to intervene and empathic

concern were more likely to intervene in sexual assault. Furthermore, in defining what makes a capable guardian Reynald (2010) found that the ability to recognize potential offenders, as well as the willingness to supervise and to intervene when necessary, were significantly related to whether or not intervention would occur.

Further complicating the understanding of capable guardianship, Felson and Boba (2010) argue that an often important element of crime is "any audience the offender wants either to impress or intimidate" (pg. 31). These comments by Felson and Boba acknowledge that there may be groups of people present that do not do anything to stop a crime from occurring and, beyond that, serve to encourage the offender to commit a crime. In other words, there is a group of people who do not act as capable guardians by simply being there or by acting to prevent crime, but rather embolden a motivated offender to commit a crime. Within the bystander intervention framework, researchers have found that large groups of people create an environment where intervention is unlikely to occur (Darley & Latane, 1968). The bystander effect also persist online (Obermaier, Fawzi, & Koch, 2014; Voelpel, Eckhoff, & Förster, 2008).

Research involving bystander intervention has shown that characteristics of the situation impact intervention. As it applies to the current study, there are two ways that characteristics impact intervention. The first pertains to how bystanders view the violence. For example, in situations that are ambiguous, bystanders are less likely to intervene (Darley & Latane, 1968). For example, Nicksa (2014) found that compared to a physical assault with obvious injury, a sexual assault involving an incapacitated girl was less likely to result in participants indicating that they would intervene in the situation. Alcohol facilitated sexual assault is often viewed as ambiguous by survey participants as there is no clear line when a person is "too" intoxicated and injuries may not be apparent. Conversely, research suggests that as situations increase in severity

intervention is more likely to occur (Fischer et al., 2011; Hayes, 2018). In addition, qualitative analysis by Bennett and colleagues (2014) found that feeling a sense of responsibility to intervene and feeling that the situation was one that required intervention were the primary variables that increased the likelihood that bystanders would intervene.

Second, characteristics related to the victim and perpetrator have been shown to be related to bystander intervention. For example, Moule and Powers (2019) found that situations were perceived as more serious and the victim in need of help when the victim was a female. Furthermore, respondent attitudes about the situation were related to gender of the victim. With male victim, anger towards the situation was lower in a scenario that involved physical violence (i.e., a push into a way) than verbal aggression. However, when the victim was a woman, higher anger was reported in the scenario involving physical aggression than the scenario involving verbal aggression (Moule & Powers, 2019). The relationship between the victim and perpetrator may also affect intervention. If the victim and abuser know each other or are related people are less likely to intervene (Laner et al., 2001; Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002; Shotland & Straw, 1976).

Characteristics of Bystanders Related to Intervention

Characteristics related to the bystander are also important when discussing whether or not someone will intervene. The research has shown that gender matters. While early research generally found that men are more likely to intervene (Eagly & Crowley, 1986), these findings have not been found in recent years in regards to intervening in violence against women (e.g., Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004; McMahon, 2010). However, Hayes (2019) found that gender differences emerged in bystander intervention of cyber stalking victimization. She found

that women were more likely to offer support to the victim, call resident assistants, and recommend programming. These effects were even stronger for more severe forms of cyber stalking. In addition, researchers have found gender differences when examining different types of victims. Laner and colleagues (2001) found gender differences in helping bystanders. Women were more likely to help children while men were more likely to help women.

In addition to gender, other qualities of the bystander have been shown to be related to the decision to intervene. Fleming and Wiersma-Mosley (2015) found that there may be a complex relationship between alcohol use and bystander intervention. For example, they found that for men who drink often, when a perpetrator is known, there are lower reports of bystander intervention. These findings were not found with women, as there were no differences in bystander intervention based on alcohol consumption. Attitudes and beliefs that participants hold have been shown to be related to intervention. For example, Fleming and Wiersma-Mosley (2015) also found that those who endorse more alcohol expectancies are less likely to intervene when the perpetrator is known and more likely to intervene if the perpetrator is unknown. In addition, researchers have continually found that the acceptance of negative attitudes towards sexual violence, such as the belief in rape myths, is related to being less likely to intervene (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007b; Fleming & Wiersma-Mosley, 2015; McMahon, 2010).

Furthermore, who the bystander knows is related to intervention. For example, Katz and colleagues (2015) found that bystanders were more likely to intervene and interrupt a sexual assault when the victim was a friend than a stranger. Bennett and Banyard (2014) also found that participants with a close relationship to the victim were more likely to view a situation involving sexual assault as more of a problem and that the situation was safe to intervene in. Conversely,

participants who were told they knew the perpetrator were more likely to view the situation as less of a problem.

Summary

This chapter began with an outline of traditional RAT and the applications of feminist theory and cyber violence on RAT. Traditional RAT postulates that crime occurs when a motivated offender and suitable target converge in a location without a capable guardian present to intervene. Feminist RAT expands this notion by arguing that it is important to address the cultural conditions around particular types of violence and reframes why violence against women is likely to occur. Cyber RAT theorizes that crime occurs through a system of networked devices which allows the three elements to converge. Within all iterations of RAT discussed, the concept of capable guardianship is an area that is understudied and enhanced by integrating literature involving bystander intervention research. Bystander intervention research provides a groundwork understanding of why certain people in certain situations do or do not intervene. The current study sought to integrate each of these components to assess intervention in cyber violence and in-person and cyber victimization of college students. As shown in Table 1, the feminist perspective and cyber applications of RAT as well as the bystander intervention framework aid in the understanding of the explanation of RAT to explain violence against women.

Table 1. Key Elements of RAT and its Applications

	What makes someone a motivated offender?	Who is a suitable target?	When does capable guardianship occur?	When does crime occur?
Traditional RAT	Are a given as there is a society that has crime	Anyone based on the course of their daily activities	Depends on daily activities	Crime occurs when the three elements converge
Cyber RAT	Are a given as there is a society that has crime	Routine activities conducted online create differences in victimization risk	Generally found to exist but needs further exploration	Crime occurs when the three elements converge through a system of networked devices
Feminist RAT	There is a culture that creates motivated offenders (rape culture, male peer support)	Women are at increased risk; daily activities may further put women at risk	Being home doesn't mean there is safety; culture reduces capable guardianship	Crime occurs when the three elements converge and is influenced by a culture that accepts violence against women
Bystander Intervention	People should not be viewed as a motivated offender	People should not be viewed as a suitable target	People have the potential to act as a capable guardian	Crime is prevented with a person moves through bystander intervention steps and intervenes

CHAPTER 4:

CURRENT STUDY

The preceding chapters have laid the groundwork to argue for the need to research non-physical forms of violence against women, including those that occur in cyber space, in more detail. While violence against women affects women of all ages, this dissertation argues that particular attention should be paid to college students. It is particularly important to study college students as there are different factors that come into play on college campuses including the heightened risk for victimization (Fisher et al., 2002; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010), the presence of alcohol and a culture that encourages its consumption (LaBrie et al., 2014), and the increased usage of technology and social media by college aged students (Duggan, 2015). In addition, it is important to study violence against women on college campuses as studies have shown that some prevention strategies show great promise for preventing violence against women (DeGue et al., 2014; Katz & Moore, 2013). More specifically, this study examines when college students are likely to intervene in cyber violence against women. In addition to examining when college students would intervene in cyber violence against women, this study also assessed victimization of college students and applied RAT to victimization. To do this both the feminist and cyber applications of RAT are incorporated with traditional RAT. Lastly, the current study sought to increase the explainability of capable guardians by incorporating research regarding bystander intervention to assess capable guardianship.

The current research expanded on previous literature in three important ways. First, it assessed willingness to intervene in different types of cyber violence against women. While much of the research involving bystander intervention has focused on sexual violence, this study examined stalking, dating violence and sexual violence. Whereas previous research has typically only examined cyber harassment in a single context, such as cyber stalking OR cyber bullying, the current research will surveyed differences in the three above mentioned types of violence. Secondly, the current research expanded the theoretical knowledge of RAT by incorporating the feminist perspective in order to explain stalking, dating violence and sexual violence victimization. Lastly, the current research integrated the bystander intervention literature into RAT and explicitly within feminist RAT. Drawing on bystander intervention research allows for a greater understanding of capable guardianship.

Three goals, and their associated research questions and hypotheses, guided the current study. The three goals are to:

Goal 1: Contribute to bystander intervention literature by examining when and how college students are willing to intervene in cyber violence against women.

Goal 2: Expand the theoretical knowledge base of RAT by incorporating the feminist RAT approach to explain cyber stalking, dating violence, and sexual violence victimization.

Goal 3: Integrate bystander intervention research with RAT in order to gain a better understanding of capable guardianship.

To accomplish these goals, a quantitative survey was developed and administered to college students. The three research goals and their associated research questions and hypotheses are discussed in more detail below.

Research Goal 1

As previously stated, the first goal of this dissertation is to expand on the bystander intervention literature. When and how people chose to intervene in emergencies has been studied by researchers since the late 1960s following the murder of Kitty Genovese (see Chapter 2 for a greater discussion). Today, bystander intervention programs have been implemented in a wide variety of locations and with different populations. Bystander intervention programs operate by treating everyone as allies in the prevention of violence (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). The current study built on bystander intervention research by incorporating three types of victimization that have rarely been studied by researchers: cyber stalking, cyber sexual violence, and cyber dating violence.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In order to gain a better understanding of bystander intervention in potential instances of cyber victimization two research questions will be answered. The first research question addressed how bystanders would intervene in cyber violence ("How do bystanders intervene in cyber victimization?"). In order to answer this question, analysis was conducted to determine the manner that study participants were most likely to use to intervene. For example, participants could indicate that they would speak directly to the victim or perpetrator, or intervene indirectly by talking with other friends about the situation. Bystander intervention programs teach participants a variety of ways of intervening. For example, they may teach participants to ask someone if they need help or to call the police. However, little research has examined the ways that participants would intervene. The current study sought to fill this gap.

In regards to the first research question, that discusses the different ways that people intervene, one hypothesis can be made:

Hypothesis 1: Bystanders will be more likely to intervene directly.

Research has rarely examined the different ways that participants would intervene in different scenarios. However, much of the research focuses on direct intervention. While bystander intervention programs recognize and teach different ways to intervene, research into bystander intervention often only examines direct intervention. For example, Franklin and colleagues (2017) examined participant correlates of direct intervention of IPV, sexual violence and sexual harassment. Palmer and colleagues (2016) examined the impact of relational distance and type of intervention. They found that who a bystander knows impacts intervention differently for IPV and sexual violence. Participants who knew the victim or perpetrator in a sexual assault were more likely to choose a direct intervention. For the IPV scenario, participants who knew the victim or perpetrator reported that they would choose both direct and indirect intervention. When participants did not know the victim and perpetrator they were more likely to delegate intervention to another person. Little research has examined how bystanders are likely to intervene after viewing cyber victimization. In one study involving cyber bullying research, Dillon and Bushman (2015) found that college students preferred to intervene indirectly to a cyber bullying situation involving an internet chat. However, Hayes (2019) found that college students were more likely to respond directly and indirectly after viewing cyber stalking scenarios that ranged in severity. For example, at the lower end of severity participants were more likely to talk to and offer support to their male friend than to talk to or offer support to the ex-girlfriend (who was unknown to the participant). In the most serious scenario involving cyber stalking participants indicated that they were more likely to talk to or offer support to the victim than to the perpetrator who was known to them. Within the current study the relationship

between the perpetrator and victim is flipped. The current study sets up scenarios involving dating violence, sexual harassment and stalking where the victim is known to the bystander but the perpetrator is not. However, based upon the findings of Hayes, it is hypothesized that participants will be most likely to intervene by talking to the victim directly. In addition, Research Question 1 addresses differences in intervention versus non-intervention, though there are no direct hypotheses associated with this. Across the three scenarios, differences will be noted in the likelihood of non-intervention and the reasons for non-intervention.

The second question associated with Research Goal 1 is much larger in scope and aimed to provide a greater understanding of what conditions make bystander intervention in cyber violence more likely. While in-person victimization and bystander intervention have been studied frequently, fewer studies have assessed bystander intervention in cyber victimization. The second question is, "What factors are related to cyber bystander intervention intentions?" This question addresses what characteristics of the situation and study participant affect bystander intervention. There are a number of hypotheses associated with this research question. They will be discussed in more detail below.

Previous research has shown that characteristics and factors related to the situation may be more important for bystander intervention than characteristics related to the bystander (Aiello, 2018; Bennett et al., 2014). This study builds on previous research by asking participants to indicate reactions towards the victim and perpetrator, including how much emotional support and physical protection Jessica needed, as well as how much participants would classify Michael's behavior as abusive. Hypothesis 2 is as follows:

> **Hypothesis 2.a: Participants who view Jessica as needing support and protection will be more likely to intervene.**
> **Hypothesis 2.b: Participants who view Michael as less threatening will be less likely to intervene.**

Predictions regarding this hypothesis are two-fold. Those who believe that Jessica is in need of assistance will be more likely to intervene, likewise, those who believe that Michael's behavior is threatening will be more likely to intervene. Meanwhile, those who believe that Jessica is not in need of support will be less likely to intervene and those who believe that Michael's behavior is not threatening will be less likely to intervene. One such reason for this has to do with how participants interpret the situation. In deciding to intervene participants make assessments about the necessity to intervene. Situations in which the participant views Michael as threatening and Jessica as needing help may provide a clear indication that the study participant viewed the situation as requiring intervention. Indeed, research has shown that situations that are less clear and more ambiguous result in participants being less likely to intervene (Darley & Latane, 1968).

Lastly, the remainder of the hypotheses associated with Research Goal 1 pertain to attributes of the participants. Broadly speaking, there are two hypotheses related to participants. The first examines attitudes that participants hold, such as acceptance of violence towards women, while the second analyzes characteristics related to the participant, such as gender and victimization status.

Hypothesis 3 addresses attitudes that participants hold. It is hypothesized that participants who hold negative attitudes will be less likely to intervene while those who believe that they and their friends can intervene will be more likely to intervene. The hypotheses are as follows:

> **Hypothesis 3a: Participants who have negative attitudes about women will be less likely to intervene.**
> **Hypothesis 3b: Participants who believe they and others have the ability to help will be more likely to intervene.**

Hypothesis 3a argues that participants who endorse negative attitudes about women will be less likely to intervene. This will be assessed in several ways. First, it will be assessed by whether or not participants endorse attitudes related to sexism. The Ambivalent Sexism Scale developed by

Glick and Fiske (1996, 2001) assesses how much a person endorses hostile sexism, which views women in an adversarial role and as trying to control men and benevolent sexism, which views women as weak and needing to be protected and supported. These two types of sexism work together to perpetuate the societal norm that women are lesser and should be protected. In addition, it is argued that those who hold negative attitudes about violence towards women, such as the acceptance of rape myths will be less likely to intervene. The acceptance of negative attitudes about violence towards women will be assessed through a scale measuring endorsement of dating violence, sexual violence, stalking, and cyber victimization. Previous research has often examined the acceptance of violence towards women in the form of rape myth acceptance. Generally speaking, rape myths are attitudes that diminish the blame of perpetrators and place fault on the victim or minimize the experiences of the victim (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Research has found that those who accept rape myths are less likely to intervene in sexual violence (McMahon, Lowe Hoffman, McMahon, Zucker, & Koenick, 2013). However, the usage of scales that access rape myth acceptance have been criticized in recent years as sexual violence has become more socially unacceptable (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The second part of this hypothesis covers beliefs about a participant's ability to intervene and the likelihood of intervention among peers. Research has shown that having a higher belief in your own ability to intervene, known as bystander efficacy, is related to a higher likelihood of intervention (Banyard et al., 2007b). This is unsurprising as Burn (2009) argues that in order to intervene a person must have the skills to intervene. Participants who believe that they would be able to intervene are likely to have the skills necessary to intervene. In addition, research suggests that the influence of peers is especially important for bystander intervention. For example, Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found that for college men the perceived support of sexual violence by peers was

more important for intervention than personal beliefs about sexual violence. While both personal and peer perceptions of sexual violence were related to lower levels of willingness to intervene, peers perceptions exhibited a much stronger effect than personal beliefs (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010). The current study accesses this by utilizing the Perceptions of Peers Helping scale, which assesses how likely participants believe their friends are to intervene in a range of victimization.

Lastly, the current study addresses how characteristics related to study participants impact willingness to intervene. Though there are a number of characteristics that could be addressed, two are included in this analysis as key independent variables. They are social media usage and victimization status. The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: Participants who are more familiar with social media will be more likely to intervene.
Hypothesis 4b: Participants who have been victims will be less likely to intervene.

First, the current study evaluated how internet usage affects bystander intervention. In examining victimization previous researchers have found some support for increased internet usage being related to increased levels of victimization. For example, Reyns and colleagues (2011) found that participants who used more social networks were more likely to experience stalking victimization and participants who posted more updates were more likely to have unwanted sexual advances made towards them on social media.

The impact of victimization on bystander intervention will be analyzed. It is hypothesized that victimization status will decrease the likelihood of intervention. In examining college students, Franklin and colleagues (2017) found that exposure to a victim was related in a higher likelihood of intervening in IPV, but not sexual assault or harassment. Likewise, Ullman (2007) states that though women who have been previously victimized may be better at detecting risk,

they are less likely to respond assertively when witnessing sexual violence. Following this line of thinking it is hypothesized that victim will intervene at a lower rate than non-victims.

In addition to these variables, a host of other variables were used as control mechanism. These variables include demographics such as race/ethnicity. Also included as control variables, are things that have been shown in prior literature to affect bystander intervention, such as involvement in sports clubs and fraternities/sororities on campus. These variables are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

Lastly, the final hypotheses associated with Research Goal 1 covers differences within bystander intervention in the three types of cyber victimization examined.

Hypothesis 5: There will be differences in intervention across the three scenarios. While research has found that there are differences in intervention based upon the severity of the scenario (Fischer et al., 2011), the current study does not hypothesize which scenario would be viewed as most severe. Instead, the current study examined differences across the three scenarios.

Research Goal 2

The second goal of this dissertation was to gain a greater understanding of victimization of college students. In order to do this, a survey, which incorporated aspects from the feminist and cyber applications of RAT that have been previously discussed, was developed. In addition, both in-person and cyber victimization was covered within the survey. The research questions and hypotheses associated with Research Goal 2 are explained in the following section.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research question for Goal 2 applied the feminist and cyber perspective of RAT to victimization that occurs in-person and in cyber space. The research question is "Does the feminist and cyber framework enhance the ability of RAT to explain rates of victimization for college students?" The hypotheses and measures needed to address this question revolve around the three mechanisms proposed by RAT, motivated offenders, suitable targets and capable guardians. As such, there are three overarching hypotheses.

The first hypothesis for this research question addressed the presence of motivated offenders. Traditional RAT argues that motivated offenders are given. In other words, there will always be people who may commit crime given the opportunity to do so. Feminist RAT argues that there is a culture that creates an environment where motivated offenders exist. Instead of taking the presence of motivated offenders as a given, the current study assessed whether or not endorsing attitudes that foster a culture that accepts violence against women is related to victimization. Previous feminist RAT research has typically not studied motivated offenders but argues that they exist because of male peer support networks that encourage men to commit violence or a culture that supports sexual violence. While statistics could be used to determine if motivated offenders exist on college campuses (as traditional RAT would assume), the present study evaluated two measures that assess how much students adhere to values that are indicative of a culture that supports violence against women. The acceptance of this culture was assessed by utilizing the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and a measure of acceptance of stalking, dating violence and sexual violence developed for the current study. Feminist scholars assert that violence against women occurs because of a power differential between men and women. Benevolent and hostile sexism are measures that predict gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Hostile sexism occurs when women are viewed as trying to control men, and benevolent sexism happens when women are viewed as needing to be protected and supported. These two types of sexism are complementary to each other. In addition, attitudes regarding the acceptance of dating violence, sexual violence and stalking will be assessed. The current study argues that these measures are indicative of a culture that supports violence against women. Previous research has found that victims are more likely to endorse adversarial attitudes about relationships and myths (Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987). These measures seek to act as a proxy for the presence of motivated offenders. Hypothesis 6 is used to test both cyber and in-person victimization and posits that those with a higher acceptance of violence against women will be more likely to be victimized. The hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 6: Participants who have a higher belief in motivated offenders will be more likely to be victimized.

The second hypothesis revolves around the suitability of targets. While RAT can seem to place blame on the victim for the routine activities that they participate in, this is not the intention of the theory. Rather as discussed by Schwartz and colleagues (2001), motivated offenders seek out suitable targets. Stated differently, motivated offenders search for situations where they have an advantage or the ability to take the upper hand. These findings are echoed by Graham and colleagues (2014), who found that it wasn't the level of intoxication of the male offender, but rather that of the woman that predicted sexual violence victimization. Following research that has shown that knowing a friend who is likely to use alcohol or drugs in order to facilitate sexual violence (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995) increases victimization, several questions were asked of participants. Participants were asked whether they have a friend who has committed various acts of violence against women. In addition, following previous research that has found that certain routine activities, such as alcohol consumption, participating in school

organizations and shopping, are related to increased levels of victimization, it is hypothesized that there are activities that are associated with being more likely to be victimized. Lastly, in regards to suitable targets it is hypothesized that participants who place a greater emphasis on Facebook and other social media outlets are more likely to experience cyber victimization. The second set of hypotheses associated with Research Goal 2 is as follows:

> **Hypothesis 7a: Participants who have routine activities that put them into contact with offenders will be more likely to be victimized.**
> **Hypothesis 7b: Participants who have friends who victimize women will be more likely to be victimized.**
> **Hypothesis 7c: Participants who are more involved on social media will be more likely to be victimized online.**

Lastly, the third hypothesis addresses capable guardianship. Previous research has analyzed capable guardianship in a number of ways, including by examining peer deviance (Holt & Bossler, 2008; Reyns et al., 2011, 2015), parental monitoring (Marcum, 2008; Mesch, 2009; Navarro & Jasinski, 2013; Wolfe et al., 2016) and personal guardianship (Choi, 2008; Ngo & Paternoster, 2011; Reyns et al., 2015). Therefore, the current study sought to analyze capable guardianship by examining aspects of social guardianship, such as the relationship with parents and friends, and actions that an individual takes to act as their own guardian. The role of parents as capable guardians has rarely been assessed among college students. Parents as capable guardians was analyzed in three ways, as a source of social support, and by the frequency of communication with and friendship status on social media. Frequency of communication with parents and whether or not participants are friends with their parents can be viewed as a source of parental monitoring. In addition, participants who view their friends as strong sources of social support will be less likely to be victimized as these friends will be more likely to act as capable guardians. Lastly, participants who engage in more acts of self-guardianship will be less

likely to be victimized. For example, participants who place restrictions on who can see their social media accounts will be less likely to be victimized. The resulting hypotheses are:

> **Hypothesis 8a: Participants whose parents provide greater capable guardianship will be less likely to be victimized.**
> **Hypothesis 8b: Participants whose friends provide greater capable guardianship will be less likely to be victimized.**
> **Hypothesis 8c: Participants with act strongly themselves as a capable guardianship will be less likely to be victimized.**

Research Goal 3

Research Goal 3 sought to integrate literature from bystander intervention research into feminist RAT. In other words, Research Goal 3 builds on the findings of Research Goal 2 by further examining capable guardianship. As previously mentioned, several studies have incorporated bystander intervention research and capable guardianship (Hayes, 2018; Moule & Powers, 2019; Reynald, 2010).

Research Question and Hypotheses

The last research goal aimed to answer the question, "Does bystander intervention skills impact victimization?" Borrowing from literature on bystander intervention, the current study incorporated research involving bystander intervention into the presence of capable guardianship in two ways. First, guardianship was assessed by the ability of peers to act as a capable guardian. This was assessed through the Perception of Peers Helping Scale. It is believed that participants who believe their friends are more likely to intervene will be less likely to be victimized. Previous research has found that perceptions of peers helping is related to willingness to intervene (Brown, Banyard, & Moynihan, 2014). Following this line of thinking, that friends are willing to act as capable guardians, it is hypothesized that those who have higher perceptions of

peers helping will be less likely to be victimized. In addition, the ability of the participant to act as their own capable guardian will be assessed through bystander efficacy. Previous research has found that bystander efficacy is related to willingness to intervene (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007a). It is hypothesized that participants who believe that they have the ability to intervene in violence against women will be less likely to be victimized. The hypotheses related to capable guardianship are as follows:

> **Hypothesis 9a: Participants who rate their friends' bystander efficacy higher will be less likely to experience victimization.**
> **Hypotheses 9b: Participants who rate themselves as higher in bystander efficacy will be less likely to experience victimization.**

Summary

There are three research goals that guided this study. First, the current study contributed to bystander intervention literature by examining when college students are willing to intervene in three different types of cyber violence against women. In addition, the current study expanded the theoretical knowledge base of RAT by incorporating the feminist approach to explain stalking, dating violence and sexual violence victimization. Lastly, the current study integrated research involving bystander intervention into RAT in order to gain a better understanding of when a person is a capable guardian. This chapter has described the three research questions that were analyzed in order to accomplish these goals.

CHAPTER 5:

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology and analytic processes for the current study. Central to this research is three vignettes that were constructed to depict cyber dating violence, stalking and sexual violence that college students may see on Facebook. The use of vignettes and the pilot study process are discussed first. Second, the study procedure, participants and data cleaning process are presented. Third, the operationalization of each of the variables will be described. This includes dependent and independent variables related to bystander intervention and victimization. Lastly, the analytic plan that will be used to test the three research questions will be presented.

Vignettes

Vignettes were constructed to depict real life examples that college students may see. Vignettes were constructed so as to be as realistic as possible for participants. As discussed by Schwartz (2000), vignettes are a good way to study violence against women. Though bystander intervention literature is often criticized for its reliance on assessing attitudes regarding willingness to intervene, rather than actual intervention, the use of realistic vignettes can help to approximate the use of an experiment to study behavior (Caro et al., 2012). Caro and colleagues (2012) further argue:

> "The premise in use of vignettes in surveys is that responses to hypothetical choices provide insights about behavior in real-choice situations. A further premise is that

> hypothetical choices may be informative in ways that are different from and more revealing than respondent opinions about abstract principles." (p. 185)

The vignettes were constructed with the assistance of an undergraduate student who helped validate the believability of the scenarios and determine age appropriate language. As stated by Hughes and Huby (2012), "vignettes are more likely to be effective when they engage participants' interest, are relevant to people's lives, and appear real." With this in mind, the three vignettes, depicting cyber dating violence, sexual harassment, and stalking, were modeled to resemble actual computer-based Facebook pages. The vignettes, in their final form, can be found in Appendix 1. Participants were asked to imagine that they are friends with the person whose Facebook page they are examining. Participants were randomly assigned to view one scenario. Following reading the vignettes, participants were asked a series of questions related to the vignette. A pilot study was conducted to determine which questions were appropriate to ask participants. Following the pilot study a number of changes were made. These findings and changes are discussed below.

Vignette Pilot Study Process

Prior to implementation with the full survey the vignettes were pilot tested with two undergraduate classes. The first pilot study included a sample size of 55 students from a single class. The students were shown each of the three vignettes and asked to answer questions related to Michael's behavior, whether or not Jessica needed help, blame assessments, and bystander intervention intentions and possible actions to take. The results from this study raised some potential issues. For example, there was little variability with regards to Michael's behavior or whether Jessica needed help.

Following a broad review of vignette studies, several changes were made to the questions related to the vignettes. First, the order of questions was amended. As part of this reordering a manipulation check was added. The first pilot study asked about Michael and Jessica's behaviors before asking about bystander intervention. In order to limit concerns related to priming participants, the order was changed for the second pilot study. For the second pilot study, bystander intervention questions were asked first, followed by blame, and concluding with perceptions related to Michael and Jessica.

Second, using qualitative data from the first study, two questions were developed to assess how Jessica may need help. Though previous studies have used the word "help" when discussing bystander intervention, the pilot study showed that there was little variability within this question. To address this issue, the second pilot study asked whether or not Jessica needed emotional support and physical protection. In addition, the question assessing Michael's behavior was amended to ask whether or not his behavior was threatening. After these changes were implemented a second round of testing took place.

Final Pilot Study Results

Results from the pilot study are discussed below in the following order. First, descriptive statistics analyzing characteristics of the vignette are discussed (e.g., manipulation check, characterizations of vignette characters). Second, descriptive statistics related to bystander efficacy are presented. Last, questions assessing the validity of the vignettes are discussed. This includes measures that assessed how realistic and serious the vignettes are, and whether or not participants viewed the vignette as the type of violence intended by the author. In all, 39 participants completed the second pilot test, viewing all three vignettes.

Descriptive statistics regarding bystander intervention of each of the three scenarios is presented first. Regarding domestic violence, the manipulation check question, asking about how Jessica and Michael knew each other was answered correctly by 78% of participants. Slightly more participants agreed they were likely or very likely to intervene (38%) than very unlikely or unlikely to intervene (32%). There were about 30% who were neither likely nor unlikely to intervene. The average for intervention was 3.03 (SD=1.28). Regarding specific types of intervention, talking to Jessica was the most common type of intervention. There were 35% of participants who indicated that they would talk to Jessica in person and 21% who indicated they would talk to Jessica using technology. About 20% indicated they would do nothing, either because it was none of their business (5%) or because nothing had occurred requiring intervention (16%). The other types of intervention selected included indirect interventions, such as calling a resident assistant or trusted adult (8%) or talking with friends (8%). No participants indicated they would talk to Michael. Participants were slightly more likely to agree that Jessica needed emotional support (*M*=3.81, SD=1.05) than physical protection (*M*=3.49, SD= 1.12). Participants were likely to agree Michael's behavior was threatening (*M*=4.03, SD=1.04).

Regarding sexual violence, 84% of participants correctly answered that the relationship was unclear between Michael and Jessica. There were more participants who indicated that they were likely or very likely to intervene (59%) than very unlikely or unlikely to intervene (35%). There were about 5% who were neither unlikely nor likely to intervene. The average score for intervention was 3.41 (SD=1.57). Regarding specific interventions, participants were most likely to indicate they would talk to Jessica, either in person (32%) or using technology (8%). A wide range of indirect interventions were selected as the intervention most likely to be undertaken including, talking to resident assistants or trusted adults (16%) and responding on one of the

posts (11%). One participant indicated that they would talk to Michael in person. Participants were more likely to agree that Jessica needed emotional support (*M*=4.76, SD=0.55) than physical protection (*M*=3.41, SD=1.34). The average score for Michael's threatening behavior was 3.81 (SD=1.22).

Regarding stalking, 92% correctly answered that Michael was Jessica's ex-boyfriend. Participants were more likely to agree that they were likely or very likely to intervene (48.65%) than very unlikely or unlikely to intervene (22%).There were 30% who were neither likely nor unlikely to intervene. The average score for intervention was 3.41 (SD=1.28). Regarding specific types of intervention, most participants believed that they would talk to Jessica. About 40% indicated they would talk to Jessica in person, while 20% indicated they would talk to Jessica using technology. Each of the indirect interventions had a small number of respondents indicate they would intervene in that manner. About 15% indicated they would not intervene. A similar number of participants were likely to agree that Jessica needed emotional support (*M*=3.41, SD=1.00) and physical protection (*M*=4.19, SD=0.84). Slightly more believed that Michael's behavior was threatening (*M*=4.27, SD=0.87).

Moving on to questions that assessed the validity of the vignettes. The results indicate that the domestic violence vignette was easy to read (92% agreed) and realistic (97% agreed). In addition, about 40% indicated that they had seen a similar situation on Facebook before. Participants viewed the situation as hurtful (*M*=3.25, SD=1.08) and serious (*M*=3.81, SD=1.02). Very few participants viewed the situation as funny (*M*=1.19, SD=0.57). About 60% of participants believed the situation displayed dating violence and 30% believed it displayed stalking. About 10% believed the scenario did not display dating violence, stalking, sexual harassment or sexual violence. These results indicate that overall the scenario was realistic and

displayed dating violence. Generally, participants believed that other college students would intervene in situations like the one depicted (*M*=3.68, SD=1.06).

Regarding the sexual violence/harassment scenario, the vignette was easy to read (86% agreed) and realistic (97% agreed). About 35% of participants had witnessed a similar situation on Facebook before. Most participants believed that the vignette displayed a hurtful (*M*=4.68, SD=0.58) and serious (*M*=4.62, SD=0.79) situation. Everyone believed that the situation represented a situation that was not at all funny (*M*=1, SD=0). About 73% of participants believed the scenario depicted sexual harassment or sexual violence. About 10% believed the scenario presented dating violence and about 5% believed the scenario presented was stalking. As with the dating violence scenario, about 10% believed the scenario did not depict any of the forms of violence mentioned above. Participants believed that other college students would intervene in the scenario depicted (*M*=4.27, SD=0.84).

Regarding the stalking scenario, most participants believed that the scenario was easy to read (95% agreed). All participants believed that the scenario was realistic. Nearly half (43%) of participants had seen similar scenarios on Facebook. In general, participants believed that the situation presented was hurtful (*M*=3.70, SD=1.00) and serious (*M*=3.89, SD=1.07). Very few believed that the situation was funny (*M*=1.06, SD=0.23). All participants agreed that the scenario showed stalking or dating violence. About 86% believed that the scenario showed stalking, while 13% believed the scenario showed dating violence. Generally, participants agreed with other college students would intervene (*M*=3.97, SD=0.90).

Taken together, the results of the pilot study showed that the vignettes had good validity. Across all three scenarios, the vignettes were viewed as easy to read and were presented as realistic Facebook pages. Between one-third and about half of participants indicated that they

had seen similar situation on Facebook. Over three-fourths of the participants correctly answered the manipulation check. The two questions assessing Jessica's need for emotional support and physical protection presented greater variability than when asking if Jessica needed help. Likewise, there was good variability among viewing Michael as threatening.

Study Procedure

Participants were recruited through undergraduate classes for participation in a research project. Professors sent out an IRB approved email from the author of the dissertation requesting participation in the study. Within the email, participants were instructed to click on a link leading to a Qualtrics survey. After affirming to the informed consent participants were randomly selected to one of the three above mentioned vignettes. Participants viewed their randomly selected vignette and answered the same questions about the vignette. Following the vignette, participants were asked a number of questions about the remaining topics of the dissertation. These measures will be discussed in more detail below. Upon completion of the survey, participants were thanked for their participation and instructed to click on a link to a separate survey to provide the information necessary for extra credit that was offered by their professor. Doing so allowed for surveys to be anonymous while maintaining the ability to receive incentives. Professors determined the amount of extra credit based on the structure of their class. An alternative assignment was offered to students; however, no students chose the alternative assignment.

Data Cleaning

Data cleaning proceeded in several stages. In all there were 725 surveys that had been started. First, cases with less than 75% progress were deleted. There were 83 cases with less than 75% completion bringing the N to 642. Second, one case was deleted for inconsistent response patterns to questions (N=641). Third, after examining the response of gender five cases were found to have selected transgender or other options. Due to the small size these cases were dropped (N=636). In addition, cases that did not correctly answer the manipulation check after viewing the vignettes were deleted. Participants were asked what the relationship was between Michael and Jessica. For the domestic violence scenario, the correct answer was he was her boyfriend. The correct answer for the sexual violence scenario was that the relationship was unclear. For the stalking scenario, the correct answer was that he was her ex-boyfriend. In all 62 participants did not answer the manipulation checks correctly. In the domestic violence scenario 85% correctly answered the manipulation check (15% incorrect, N=31). There were 25 participants (12%) that did not correctly answer the manipulation check for the stalking scenario. Lastly, there were four participants (2%) that did not correctly answer the manipulation check for the sexual violence scenario. This leads to a final sample size of 575 participants.

Participants

Demographics from the final sample of 575 are presented in Table 2. This table displays the demographics for the whole sample and by each vignette type. As shown, differences between the three vignettes are minimal. About three fourths of the sample were women. Most identified as heterosexual. About two-thirds of the sample was White, with one-quarter identifying as Hispanic. In addition, the sample consisted of largely upper classmen. About half

of the sample had been in a previous dating relationship. Approximately 10% indicated they had previously participated in a bystander intervention program or were members of a Greek organization. Finally, about 5% were members of a sports team.

Table 2. Participants (N=575)

	Total		Dating Violence		Sexual Violence		Stalking	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Male	143	24.87	47	26.86	48	26.08	48	25
Female	432	75.13	128	73.14	160	76.92	144	75
Heterosexual (0.17)	485	84.35	146	83.43	171	82.61	168	87.5
Hispanic (0.52)	156	27.13	45	26.01	54	26.09	57	29.69
White (0.52)	394	68.88	128	73.99	147	71.36	119	61.98
Black (0.52)	94	16.43	26	15.03	31	15.05	37	19.27
Other Race (0.52)	84	14.69	21	12	30	14.42	36	18.75
Freshman	80	13.91	25	14.29	27	12.98	28	14.58
Sophomore	91	15.83	31	17.71	34	16.35	26	13.54
Junior	206	35.83	64	36.57	167	32.21	75	39.06
Senior	192	33.39	54	30.86	78	37.5	60	31.25
Other Grade	5	0.87	1	0.57	1	0.48	3	1.56
Greek Member (0.17)	72	12.52	24	13.71	22	10.63	26	13.54
Sports Team Member (0.17)	32	5.57	7	4	15	7.25	10	5.21
Dating Relationship (0.35)	295	51.3	84	48	110	53.4	101	52.6
Bystander Int. Program	57	10.09	19	10.86	23	11.06	16	8.33

% Missing in parentheses

Survey Instruments

The survey used for this project was constructed by including measures previously developed by researchers and scales and vignettes specifically developed for this project by the author. Each of the variables will be discussed in more detail below and the entire survey can be found in Appendix 1. In addition, a table listing all of the variables, coding, alphas where appropriate, and the research goal the variable is for is listed in Appendix 2. The dependent and independent variables used throughout the project are presented below for each of the research goals discussed in Chapter 4.

Dependent Variables for Research Goal 1

Type of intervention. The first dependent variable was an assessment of how participants would intervene. Participants were given 12 options for intervention and non-intervention and asked to select the way that they were most likely to intervene. The options for intervening including a variety of potential actions respondents could take, such as talking to Jessica or Michael in person or online, reporting the post to Facebook, and talking with other friends. The three options for non-intervention were that there was no reason to intervene, that it wasn't safe and that it was none of the participants business. Following research by Berkowitz (2009) and McMahon and colleagues (2013), intervention types were classified as direct, where intervention was directed at the victim or perpetrator, or indirect, where intervention was directed in avenues other than the victim or perpetrator. Direct intervention included talking to Jessica in person or using technology, talking to Michael in person or using technology, and responding on one of the posts. Indirect intervention including talking to resident assistants or trusted adults, talking to other friends about helping Jessica or confronting Michael, and reporting the post to Facebook. As shown in Table 3, across all three scenarios participants were most likely to indicate that they would intervene directly. More specifically, participants were more likely to indicate that they would talk to Jessica, with few participants indicating that they would talk to Michael or respond on one of the posts. For the dating and sexual violence scenarios about 15% indicated they were most likely to intervene indirectly, while 30% indicated they would intervene indirectly in the sexual violence scenario. Participants who viewed the dating violence and stalking scenarios were most likely to indicate that they would talk to their friends about helping Jessica. Participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario were more likely to report that they would call a resident assistant or counselor. Across the three scenarios,

about 10-15% indicated that they would not intervene. Of those that would not intervene, the most common reason was because it was none of the participants business.

Table 3. Type of Intervention by Scenario

	Dating Violence		Sexual Violence		Stalking	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Direct						
Total	**120**	**69.77**	**122**	**58.65**	**142**	**73.96**
Talk to Jessica in person	79	45.93	66	31.73	77	40.10
Talk to Jessica using technology	29	16.86	34	16.35	53	27.60
Talk to Michael in person	7	4.07	5	2.40	6	3.13
Talk to Michael using technology	1	0.58	3	1.44	1	0.52
Respond on one of the posts	4	2.33	14	6.73	5	2.60
Indirect						
Total	**26**	**15.12**	**61**	**29.33**	**29**	**15.10**
Call a resident assistant, counselor, etc.	7	4.07	32	15.38	5	2.60
Report to Facebook	1	0.58	20	9.62	7	3.65
Talk to friends about helping Jessica	18	10.47	9	4.33	16	8.33
Talk to friends about confronting Michael	0		0		1	0.52
Non-Intervention						
Total	**26**	**15.12**	**25**	**12.02**	**21**	**10.94**
It's not safe for me to do anything	3	1.74	2	0.96	1	0.52
Do nothing, it is none of my business	17	9.88	19	9.13	16	8.33
Do nothing, nothing has occurred	6	3.49	4	1.92	4	2.08

Likelihood of intervention. The second dependent variable analyzed how likely participants were to intervene in the vignette presented to them. Following viewing the scenario, participants were asked to indicate how likely they were to intervene in the scenario on a 5-point Likert scale (1=very unlikely, 5=very likely). Due to the nature of this variable, analysis and coding went through multiple iterations. First, analysis was conducted utilizing ordinal regression. However, some of the parallel lines assumptions were violated. Next, logit regression analysis and multinomial regression with three groups (i.e., yes, no, maybe) was conducted. It was determined that the multinomial regression provided a more nuanced analysis of the data. The results presented in this dissertation are of the multinomial regression. Table 4 displays the mean and standard deviation for the likelihood of intervention for each of the three scenarios. For the dating violence vignette, about 47% of the sample indicated they were likely or very likely to

intervene. Similarly, about 45% of the sexual violence sample indicated that they were likely or very likely to intervene. Half of the stalking sample indicated that they were likely or very likely to intervene.

Table 4. Intervention Intentions by Scenario

	Mean	SD
Dating Violence	3.09	1.15
Sexual Violence	3.29	1.16
Stalking	3.30	0.99

Independent Variables

Characterization of victim. As previously mentioned, participants were asked two questions to measure the victim's 1) need for emotional support, and 2) physical protection. Participants were instructed to answer these questions with the assumption that Jessica was their friend. These question were assessed utilizing a 5-point Likert scale (1=definitely not, 5=definitely yes). Each of these questions were analyzed independently. Participants were more likely to indicate that Jessica (the victim) was in need of emotional support than physical protect. Participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario rated Jessica as more likely to need emotional support. Within this scenario, nearly all participants believed that Jessica probably or definitely needed emotional support, with only 5 participants (2.4%) indicating she might or might not need emotional support. These findings did not persist for Jessica needing physical protection. Participants who viewed the stalking scenario were most likely to indicate that Jessica needed physical protection. Two-thirds of participants who viewed the stalking scenario believed that Jessica probably or definitely needed physical protection. Less than 10% indicated that she probably did not need physical protection and no one believed that she definitely did not need physical protection. The means and standard deviations for each of these variables is displayed by scenario in Table 5.

Table 5. Characterization of Victim by Scenario

	Mean	SD
Emotional Support		
Dating Violence	4.18	0.81
Sexual Violence	4.76	0.48
Stalking	4.04	0.86
Physical Protection		
Dating Violence	3.41	0.95
Sexual Violence	3.48	1.00
Stalking	3.82	0.88

Characterization of perpetrator. In addition to asking about the victim's need for support and protection, participants were asked whether the perpetrator's behavior was threatening. This question was assessed with the same 5-point Likert scale (1=definitely not, 5=definitely yes) in the questions relating to Jessica. Participants who viewed the dating violence scenario were the most likely to indicate that Michael's behavior was threatening. Within this scenario, less than 10% viewed Michael's behavior as non-threatening, while three-fourths viewed his behavior or probably or definitely threatening. Within the stalking scenario, about 72% viewed Michael's behavior as threatening. Participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario were the least likely to view Michael's behavior as threatening. However, more than half of the sample viewed Michael's behavior as probably or definitely threatening. The means and standard deviations, as well as the skew and kurtosis, for each of these variables is displayed by scenario in Table 6.

Table 6. Characterization of Perpetrator by Scenario

	Mean	SD
Dating Violence	4.05	0.99
Sexual Violence	3.57	1.01
Stalking	3.98	0.93

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). In order to understand how attitudes are related to bystander intervention two measures of acceptance of violence against women were assessed. The first way their attitudes were assessed was through the previously validated ASI (Glick &

Fiske, 1996). The ASI consists of two subscales assessing benevolent and hostile sexism. Benevolent sexism views women as weaker and needing help whereas hostile sexism generally views women in a more negative light. The ASI is comprised of 22 questions (11 for each subscale). Each subscale was analyzed independently. It has been shown to have good convergent, discriminant and predictive validity (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Consistent with original development of the scale, respondents were asked to indicate on a 6-point Likert scale how strongly they agree with each of the statements in which participants were forced to indicate agreement or disagreement (0= disagree strongly, 6= agree strongly). As shown in Table 7, participants who viewed the sexual violence and stalking scenarios rated themselves as slightly higher in benevolent sexism than the dating violence scenario. This same pattern persisted for hostile sexism, though to a lesser degree. Across the three scenarios, internal consistency for benevolent sexism was good, with Cronbach's alphas being 0.89 for the dating violence and stalking scenario and 0.90 for the sexual violence scenario. Cronbach's alpha for the dating violence scenario was 0.95 and 0.94 for the sexual violence and stalking scenarios.

Table 7. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory by Scenario

	Dating Violence		Sexual Violence		Stalking	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Benevolent Sexism	2.58	1.01	2.70	1.09	2.73	1.06
Hostile Sexism	2.44	1.16	2.58	1.23	2.54	1.18

Attitudes towards Violence against Women Scale (ATVAW). The ATVAW Scale was created by combining items from previously validated surveys and constructing original items. Where appropriate, language was updated to be more applicable to college students. For example, all instances of "woman" were changed to "girl" and "man" was changed to "guy." The items selected include acceptance of stalking, dating violence and sexual violence. In addition, items related to cyber violence were constructed by the author. In all, there are 20 questions.

From the Stalking Myth Acceptance Scale (SMA) six items out of the original 22 items were included (Dunlap et al., 2015). These items focus on questions that ask about general stalking behaviors, such as victim blaming, flattery and minimizing stalking. A total of five items out of the original 18 items were included from the Domestic Violence Myth Acceptance Scale (DVMAS) (Peters, 2008). These questions mainly ask about blame to characters and behaviors and exoneration and minimization. There were five items included out of the original 45 question from the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Lastly, four items were developed for the study that specifically ask about the influence of technology and social media on violence. By combining the measures developed for the survey with previously constructed measures, this scale captures a wide range of violence by assessing attitudes related to stalking, dating violence, sexual violence and cyber violence. There is some overlap in the questions, for example, there are questions about losing control and committing sexual assault and IPV. Though the measures had different scales (SMA from 1 = absolutely untrue to 7 = absolutely true, IRMA from 1 = not at all agree and 7=very much agree, DVMAS did not include scale), to have consistency between the measures respondents were asked to answer on a 5-point Likert scale how strongly they agree with each statement (1= strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Answers were averaged together to create a scale score. As shown in Table 8, participants did not indicate a strong acceptance in attitudes supporting violence against women. Internal consistency was good, with the dating violence and stalking scenario having a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94 and the stalking scenario having an alpha of 0.92.

Table 8. Attitudes towards Violence against Women Scale by Scenario

	Mean	SD
Dating Violence	1.77	0.61
Sexual Violence	1.77	0.63
Stalking	1.70	0.56

Bystander Efficacy Scale. Participants attitudes on violence prevention and how likely they are to prevent violence will be analyzed though Slaby and colleagues (1994) nine item Bystander Efficacy Scale. This scale measures beliefs about the usefulness of violence prevention. An example of a question is, "people can be taught to help prevent violence." These question was assessed utilizing a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Scores were created by taking the mean of the responses across all nine items. Across all three scenarios, the mean for bystander efficacy was 4.11(Dating Violence SD= 0.58; Sexual Violence SD=0.55; Stalking SD=0.57), indicating that most participants rated themselves high in their ability to intervene to prevent violence. Internal consistency was good across the three scenarios; Cronbach's alpha was 0.93 for the dating violence and stalking scenarios and 0.91 for the sexual violence scenario.

Perceptions of Peers Helping Scale. The perceived ability of friends to act to prevent violence was measured using the Perceptions of Peers Helping Scale. This scale was originally developed by Banyard and colleagues (2014) as a measure that focused more on peer norms supporting coercion in relationships instead of peer support on being a helpful bystander. Participants responded to the 25 question scale that asked about friend's ability to intervene in a range of dating and sexual violence prevention behaviors. Respondents answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Answers were averaged together to create this scale. As shown in Table 9, participants rated their friends lower on ability to prevent violence than themselves. Across the three scenarios internal consistency was good, with Cronbach's alpha being 0.96 for the dating violence and stalking scenario and 0.94 for the sexual violence scenario.

Table 9. Perceptions of Peers Helping by Scenario

	Mean	SD
Dating Violence	3.83	0.73
Sexual Violence	3.89	0.68
Stalking	3.90	0.70

Victimization. Previous victimization was analyzed to assess the relationship with bystander intervention. Dating violence, stalking, and sexual violence victimization were assessed. The victimization measure was constructed utilizing previously developed items from existing measures and developing measures specifically for the survey. Victimization of participants will be discussed in more detail within the analyses that addressed the second and third research questions. The development of the victimization measures is discussed below.

To determine dating violence victimization participants answered 17 questions that came from previously validated studies and questions developed for the current project. A broad range of dating violence was encompassed within these questions, including physical violence, psychological violence, sexual violence, and cyber dating violence. Participants indicated on a 7-point Likert scale how often the types of IPV have occurred since starting college (1=once, 6=20 or more times, 7=never). This response option was modeled off of the Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS) responses, though they ask only in the past year (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). The current study included a wider time frame for victimization than the past year as it is unlikely that the effects of victimization end simply after a year. There were six questions that covered minor and severe physical violence. Items came either directly or from combining two or more items from the CTS (Straus et al., 1996), and scales by Krebs and colleagues (2011), and MacQueen (2016). Five questions taken from previous research asked about psychological violence victimization (Krebs et al., 2011; MacQueen, 2016; Zweig et al., 2014). The five cyber dating violence questions came from research by Zweig and colleagues

(2014) and Picard (2007). Internal consistency was acceptable across all three scenarios (Dating Violence α=0.78; Sexual Violence α=0.81; Stalking α=0.82).

Similarly, sexual violence victimization was assessed. There were 12 items that covered a wide range of sexual violence. Six questions asked about physical sexual violence including touching and fondling, forced sexual contact and incapacitated contact. Questions came from previously developed sexual violence scales (Koss et al., 2007; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2009). In addition, six questions examined prevalence of cyber sexual violence. Four of these questions came from previously validated surveys (Zweig et al., 2014). The remaining two questions were developed for this project. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency of experiencing sexual violence based upon the same 7-point Likert scale used in the IPV and stalking questionnaires.

Lastly, participants were asked about their past stalking victimization. There were 15 questions on this scale. The scale was developed by incorporating questions from previously constructed stalking surveys and by developing questions specifically related to stalking, especially cyber stalking. There were six questions that ask about traditional stalking (e.g., having someone leave unwanted items for you to find), three that asked about stalking by proxy (e.g., having someone use GPS to monitor your location) and six questions that asked about cyber stalking (e.g., sent messages on social media that threatened harm). Four items assessing traditional stalking and one item assessing cyber stalking were developed from the National Violence against Women Survey (NVAWS) (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Two questions were taken from stalking victimization questions by Amar (2006). Four questions were developed based on questions by Zweig and colleagues (2014) to assess cyber dating abuse victimization of high school students. These questions were amended to discuss stalking victimization and not

dating violence victimization. The remaining items were developed by the author of the current study. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency of experiencing stalking based upon the same 7-point Likert scale used in the IPV questionnaire. Across the three scenarios internal consistency was acceptable (Dating Violence α=0.77; Sexual Violence α=0.75; Stalking α=0.81).

Based upon answers to the questions described above, victimization was coded as a dichotomous variable (0=no victimization, 1=victimization) if participants answered yes to any of the questions within each of the three types of victimization. All three forms of victimization were included in regression models. As shown in Table 10, across the three scenarios participants were most likely to report dating violence victimization. Between, half and two thirds of the sample experienced at least one form of dating violence victimization. Furthermore, about half of the sample experienced sexual violence or stalking victimization. When considering all three forms of victimization, about one-third of the sample experienced all three types of victimization. There were 21% who experienced no or one form of victimization and 24% who experienced two forms of victimization. Internal consistency was good across the three scenarios (Dating Violence α=0.82; Sexual Violence α=0.84; Stalking α=0.81).

Table 10. Percentage of Victimization by Scenario

	Dating Violence % Yes	Sexual Violence % Yes	Stalking % Yes
Any Dating Violence Victimization	72.57%	68.75%	75.52%
Any Sexual Violence by Scenario	46.86%	51.44%	50.52%
Any Stalking by Scenario	47.43%	49.52%	47.92%

Social Media Usage. Social media usage was measured through two questions. The first question assessed how many social media sites from a list of nine sites (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Kik) participants accessed four of more days per week. Answers ranged from 0 to 7 sites visited four or more times per week. As shown in Table 11, participants used about 3-4 social media sites at least four days per week. In addition, one question measured the

number of updates participants made on social media each week. This number ranged from 0 to 100. Due to the wide dispersion among respondents this answer was dichotomized for analysis to indicate which participants had an above average number of responses. Within the three scenarios the average number of updates was between 7 and 10 updates to social media per week.

Table 11. Social Media Usage by Scenario

	SM Sites 4+ Days/Week		Above Avg. SM Updates		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	% Yes
Dating Violence	3.53	1.36	8.26	14.96	35.43
Sexual Violence	3.47	1.41	7.04	11.54	38.94
Stalking	3.61	1.22	9.52	17.16	42.71

Dependent Variables for Research Goal 2

Victimization. Research Goal 2 examines the feminist and cyber applications of RAT on victimization. The dependent variables were measures of dating violence, stalking and sexual violence victimization. The development of the victimization measures was previously discussed. Victimization was coded in several different ways for analysis. For each type of victimization, participants were coded as having experienced that form of victimization if they answered yes to at least one of the statements. This same process was completed for in-person and cyber victimization for dating violence, stalking, and sexual violence.

As previously mentioned, there was considerable overlap between the different types of victimization. As shown in Table 12, a similar pattern between any victimization and in-person victimization occurred, with a fairly even split across the different categories assessing overlap. However, within cyber victimization a much larger percent, nearly half of the sample, did not experience any cyber victimization. About 15% experienced all three forms of cyber victimization (i.e., cyber dating violence, cyber sexual violence, and cyber stalking).

Table 12. Victimization Overlap

	Any Victimization		In-Person		Cyber	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
No victimization	120	20.91	144	25.09	261	45.47
1 type	123	21.43	161	28.05	116	20.21
2 types	137	23.87	131	22.82	116	20.21
All 3 types	194	33.80	138	24.04	81	14.11

As shown in Table 13, a large number of participants experienced at least one form of dating violence (72.3%). About 70% of the sample experienced at least one form of in-person dating violence. The most common form of in-person dating violence was having a partner behave in a jealous or controlling way. More severe forms of dating violence were experienced by participants at a lower rate, though about 10% indicated they had experienced being beaten, chocked or strangled and about 7% had a weapon their used or threatened to be used on them. About one-third of the sample experienced cyber dating violence. There was considerable overlap between those who experienced cyber victimization and in-person victimization. Very few participants experienced cyber victimization exclusively. While 31% of the sample experienced at least one form of cyber dating violence there were 29% who experienced cyber and in-person dating violence. The most common form of cyber victimization experienced was having rumors spread using technology.

Table 13. Dating Violence Victimization

	Freq.	%
Any Victimization	415	72.30
In-Person Victimization		
Behaved in a jealous or controlling way such as, restricting what you can do, where you go, what you wear	259	45.12
Pushed, grabbed or shoved you	248	43.21
Called you names, put you down in front of others or made you feel inadequate on purpose	208	36.24
Tried to provoke argument, shouted/sworn at you, thrown objects/broken things when angry	197	34.32
Tried to limit contact with family or friends, or insisted on knowing where you were at all times	180	31.36
Slapped, hit, pulled your hair, or bit you	151	26.31
Has anyone had, or attempted to have sexual contact with you by using physical force or threatening to physically harm you?	122	21.25
Punched you or threw something that could hurt you	117	20.38
Someone had sexual contact with you when you were unable to provide consent or stop what was happening because you were passed out, drugged, drunk, incapacitated, or asleep	101	17.60
Beaten, chocked or strangled you	59	10.28
Started to hit you but stopped or threatened to harm you or someone you know	53	9.23
Threatened you with a knife, gun or other weapon	30	5.23
Used a knife, gun or other weapon to hurt you	10	1.74

Table 13 Continued

	Freq.	%
Cyber Victimization		
Spread rumors about you or posted embarrassing pictures, videos or stories about you using a cell phone, e-mail, IM, web chat, social networking site, etc.	144	25.09
Pressured or threatened you to send naked or sexual photos	49	8.54
Threatened to harm you or someone you know physically using a cell phone, text message, social networking page, etc.	46	8.01
Created a social media page about you, or used your social media account(s) without your permission or as a way to harass or put you down	26	4.53

As shown in Table 14, about half of the sample experienced at least one form of sexual violence. There were 40% who experienced in-person victimization. The most common form of in-person sexual violence experienced by participants was being fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against without consent, with about one-third experiencing this. About 10% of the sample experienced attempted or completed sexual contact with the use or threat of physical force. In addition, about 35% experienced cyber victimization. Overlap between, in-person and cyber victimization was experienced by about 25%. About one-quarter were sent unsolicited sexual or naked pictures. Relatively few had sexual pictures or videos posted on the internet without their permission (3%).

Table 14. Sexual Violence Victimization

	Freq.	%
Sexual Violence		
Any Victimization	286	49.83
In-Person		
Fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of your body (lips, breast/chest, crotch or butt) or removed some of your clothes without your consent (but did not attempt sexual penetration)	198	34.49
Had sexual contact with you when you were unable to provide consent or stop what was happening because you were passed out, drugged, drunk, incapacitated, or asleep? This question asks about incidents that you are certain happened	98	17.07
Sexually penetrated you with a finger or object (someone putting their finger or an object like a bottle or a candle in your vagina or anus)	85	14.81
Had oral sex with you or made you have oral sex with them without your consent	80	13.94
Had sexual contact with you by using physical force or threatening to physically harm you	63	10.98
Attempted but not succeeded in having sexual contact with you by using or threatening to use physical force against you	62	10.80
Cyber Victimization		
Sent unsolicited sexual photos or naked photos	140	24.39
Pressured or threatened you to send naked or sexual pictures of yourself	117	20.38
Sent sexually harassing messages that commented on your appearance, described hypothetical sexual acts between you, made sexually demeaning remarks, etc.	72	12.54
Sent text messages, email, or posts or messages on social media to have sex or engage in sexual acts that you did not want to	69	12.02
Threatened to post sexual pictures or videos of you on social media	42	7.32
Posted sexual pictures or videos on the internet without your permission	17	2.96

As with sexual violence, about half of the sample experienced at least one form of stalking victimization. These results are shown in Table 15. About one-third experienced in-person stalking victimization. The most common form of in-person stalking was having someone try to communicate against the participants will. In addition, about one-third experienced at least one form of cyber/technology facilitated stalking. One-quarter of the sample experienced in-person and cyber stalking victimization. About 15% of the sample had so many messages sent to them that they felt unsafe.

Table 15. Stalking Victimization

	Freq.	%
Stalking		
Any Victimization	278	48.43
In-Person		
Tried to communicate with you against your will	134	23.34
Made unwanted sexual suggestions, sent obscene material to you, or sexually approached you against your will	114	19.86
Followed you, spied on you or stood outside your home, classes or other places you were	84	14.63
Vandalized your property or destroyed something that was yours	49	8.54
Left unwanted items for you to find	29	5.05
Threatened to harm or kill you or a loved one	23	4.01
Cyber Victimization		
Sent you so many messages (like texts, e-mails, chats) that it made you feel unsafe	81	14.11
Increased contact with friends or family members as a way to stay involved in your life or to check up on you	76	13.24
Used GPS or other tracking devices to monitor your location or internet usage	73	12.72
Used social media accounts in order to gain access to you or your friends and family	72	12.54
Sent sexually harassing messages that commented on your appearance, described hypothetical sexual acts between you, made sexually demeaning remarks, etc.	65	11.32
Made unsolicited phone calls or tried to communicate in other ways that utilized technology against your will	64	11.15
Used information from your social networking site(s) to find your location	54	9.41
Posted unwanted messages, pictures or videos of or about you to social media or internet websites	26	4.53
Sent messages, such as social media posts or text/email, that threatened to harm you, your friends, family, pets, possessions, etc.	22	3.83

Several victimization variables were also created as a form of sensitivity analyses. A variable assessing high rates of victimization (experiencing at least one action 6 or more times) was created as a sensitivity check for any victimization. In addition, a variable that assessed severe forms of in-person victimization was developed. Regarding dating violence, this variable

included being beaten, chocked or strangled; threatened with a knife, fun, or other weapon; had a knife, fun, or weapon used on you, and being forced to engage in sexual activity by the threat of or use of physical force. Severe stalking victimization was coded as experiencing stalking victimization if respondents said that they were at least a little bit frightened by the behavior. Severe forms of sexual violence included being sexually penetrated with an object or finger, sexual contact through the use or threat of physical force, and attempted sexual contact through the use or threat of physical force. These sensitivity analyses provided a way to determine if key theoretical factors differed based upon the frequency or severity of victimization. Frequency of each of the forms of victimization are displayed in Appendix 3.

Independent Variables for Research Goal 2

Suitable Targets.

Proximity to people who victimize women. First, to address a key finding by Schwartz and Pitts (1995), that women are more likely to be victimized if they have friends that have victimized women in the past, a series of questions asked about having friends and acquaintances who have victimized women. While Schwartz and Pitts (1995) only asked about having friends or acquaintances who supplied women alcohol as a way to have sexual intercourse with them, the current study asked about a broader range of actions committed by friends and acquaintances as a way to victimize women. Questions asked about supplying alcohol in order to have sexual intercourse (as Schwartz and Pitts originally did), committing physical violence and using the internet to harass women. Participants were asked to indicate the number of friends and acquaintances that they have who have engaged in each of the questions. There was a large number of missing cases. This is likely due to the manner that the survey was presented to

participants. Within Qualtrics, participants were asked using a slider to indicate how many friends/acquaintances they had. While the slider started on zero, in order for zero to be entered into the survey participants actually had to click on the slider. A dichotomous variable was created to indicate which participants indicated that they knew at least one friend or acquaintance who engaged in each of the behaviors listed. Negative responses (coded as zero) included participants who selected zero or who did not click zero but selected an answer for at least one of the other nine questions. The number of missing cases for each of the questions can be found in Appendix 4. As shown in Table 16, participants were most likely to know friends and acquaintances who excessively pursued a women. In addition, for each of the five actions listed, participants stated that they knew more acquaintances than friends who engaged in the actions.

Table 16. Friends and Acquaintances who Victimize Women

	Friends		Acquaintances	
	Freq.	% Yes	Freq.	% Yes
Women drunk to have sex with them	74	15	172	35
Committed physical violence within a relationship	116	23	208	42
Excessively pursued a woman	218	44	290	58
Used social media to hurt a girl	187	38	297	60
Accessed another's computer without permission	155	31	160	32

Routine activities/lifestyles. To analyze the impact of routine activities a number of questions were asked about the lifestyle of the participants. Based on previous literature, participants were asked how many hours per week they spent doing 15 activities, including visiting restaurants and bars, checking email, and going out with friends (Leung & Lee, 2005; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Reyns et al., 2011; van Wilsem, 2011). The same issues discussed in the above section are present within the routine activities, however to a lesser extent, only one case had all 15 items missing. Following the reasoning of Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) which analyzed dichotomous routine activities variables, variables were dichotomized, with yes indicating a greater than average time spent on each of the 15 items. Each of the routine activities

was inputted into regression models. There were no issues with multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) were all below 1.53. While O'Brien (2007) argues that variables should not be automatically dropped, the VIFs were below traditional cutoff values. The means, standard deviation, and percentage of participants who spent an above average time on each of the 15 activities are displayed in Table 17. Participants indicated that they spent the most time doing school activities and working. However, participants also indicated that they spent a large amount of their time meeting with friends and checking social media. On average, participants reported that they spent about 2 hours visiting bars or going to parties.

Lastly, following research that suggests that women who drink in public places are more likely to experience victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002), participants were asked where they were most likely to drink (e.g., friends' houses, bars, own residence). Participants were given the option of selecting that they do not drink. About one quarter indicated that they did not drink. Three variables were created from the drinking location question in order to measure the impact of drinking in high risk locations, including drinking at bars, fraternity parties, and parties at friends' or strangers' houses. Nearly 20% of the sample (N=104, 18%) indicated that drinking at parties was where they were most likely to drink, 13% (N=77) predominately drank at bars and less than 5% drank mostly at parties at fraternity or sorority houses.

Table 17. Routine Activities

	Mean	Std. Dev.	% Above Avg.
School activities	27.37	21.16	37
Working	22.05	20.60	47
Checking social media	18.56	22.42	31
Meeting with friends	15.00	17.14	31
Searching for info for classes online	11.82	17.45	27
Checking emails	9.82	17.94	24
Chatting online	8.39	17.68	77
Reading news online	6.50	11.99	25
Visit restaurants	6.42	10.04	26
School organization	5.58	12.74	24
Shopping at stores	5.58	11.00	24
Shopping online	4.57	11.96	22
Playing sports	4.38	11.80	24
Parties	2.39	5.94	27
Visit bars	2.09	5.04	24

Facebook Intensity Scale. Following the reasoning that participants who spend more time on social media are more likely to be victimized, a modified version of the Facebook Intensity Scale was employed to assess target suitability (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007). While originally constructed with eight questions, only five questions were included. Three of the questions were answered based on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strong disagree, 5 = strongly agree) and two questions have their own scale. Contrary to the original scale, questions were generalized to Facebook and other social media. As done by Ellison and colleagues (2007), individual items were standardized before taking an average because of the differing scale ranges. For this sample, the scale showed good internal consistency (α=0.72). The unstandardized means and standard deviations are shown in Table 18. While a large number of respondents (23%) indicated that they had more than 1,000 friends, very few, less than 10%, indicated that they had 10 or less friends. Over half of participants indicated that they spent at least one hour on social media every day. In addition, participants were asked to answer four items from the Off to Online: Use Facebook to connect with Offline Contacts scale developed by Ellison and colleagues (2007). Responses to these questions used the same 5-point Likert scale as the Facebook Intensity Scale. There was good internal consistency (α=0.75). Participants were most likely to indicate that they used social media as a way to connect with classmates.

Table 18. Social Media Scales

Variable	Mean	SD
Intensity		
Total Friends (0.35)	6.57	3.89
Time on SM (34.67)	3.53	1.28
SM Part of Everyday (0.35)	3.91	1.19
SM Out of Touch (0.35)	3.05	1.32
Off to Online		
Met Socially (0.35)	2.94	1.35
From Classes (0.35)	3.82	1.13
Living Near (0.35)	2.91	1.34
Old Friends (0.35)	2.78	1.31

Motivated Offenders.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). The ASI was previously described. On average participants generally did not hold attitudes of Benevolent (*M*=2.67, SD=1.06) or Hostile (*M* =2.52, SD=1.20) Sexism. There was good internal consistency for each of these scales (Benevolent Sexism α=0.90; Hostile Sexism α=0.94).

Attitudes towards Violence against Women Scale (ATVAW). The ATVAW Scale was previously discussed in more detail. In general, few participants accepted attitudes that supported violence against women (*M* =1.75, SD=0.60). This scale also showed good internal consistency (α=0.93).

Capable Guardians.

Parental guardianship. Previous research has shown that parents provide a level of guardianship for their children (Marcum, 2008; Navarro & Jasinski, 2012). However, limited studies have examined parental guardianship for college students. Drawing on research involving high school students, several questions were developed for this study. One question assessed how often students spoke with their parents. While guardianship would be diminished for students who do not live with their parents, parents may still be able to act as a capable guardian if they are more involved in their children's lives. In order to assess how often college students talk with their parents a 6-point scale (1=once per month or less, 6=more than once a day) was used. For analysis, this variable was dichotomized to indicate that participants talked with their parents daily. Just over half of the sample (N=310) reported that they talked with their parents daily. In addition, participants were asked if they were friends with their parents on social media.

After viewing posts, parents may discuss the content with their children. About 80% indicated that they were friends with their parents on social media (N=452).

The current study also sought to measure social aspects of guardianship. Four items from The Medical Outcome Study (MOS) were included in this survey (Sherbourne & Stewart, 1991). The four questions included in the current study addressed the ability of parents to act as a social support for study participants. While the original scale asked about "someone" the current study asked the four questions about family and friends (discussed below) separately. Responses were answered on the original 5-point Likert scale (1=None of the time, 5=All of the time). In general, participants indicated that they had strong levels of family support (*M*=4.00, SD= 1.10). Internal reliability for this scale was good (α=0.96).

Peer guardianship. Four items from The Rand and Medical Outcome Study (MOS) were used for this survey (Sherbourne & Stewart, 1991). These questions mirror the above mentioned scale replacing family support with support from friends. However, participants reported lower levels of support from friends than family. The average score for friend support was 3.9 (SD=1.04). Internal reliability for this subscale was good (α=0.96).

Two questions related to the quantity of friends were also asked. The first question asked how many close friends participants had, ranging from 0 to 50. On average, participants had 6.35 (SD= 5.8) total friends. In addition, participants were asked the number of friends they had on social media. Participants selected from 12 options the number of friends they had (1 = 10 or less; 12 = 1001 or more). About half of the sample indicated they had less than 400 friends on social media.

Personal guardianship. Following research that has found that certain online actions reduce capable guardianship two questions related to privacy on social media were asked. First, a question from the Use of Facebook to Meet New People vs. Connect with Existing Offline Contacts Scale (Ellison et al., 2007) was included in the current study. This question assessed whether or not participants met people online for the first time or use social media mostly as a way to connect with existing friends. In general, most participants reported that they used social media as a way to meet new people, with 14% indicated that they disagreed with the statement or did not agree or disagree. This question was answered as a single item 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree).

Participants were also asked several questions about their privacy and security of their social media accounts. Answers to these questions were inputted as single items in multivariate analyses. Participants were questioned about whether or not their social media sites were set to private. Previous research has shown that setting social media sites to private acts as a way to increase capable guardianship (Holt & Bossler, 2008). Participants were also asked if there are restrictions on who can view their content on social media sites. Response options include yes, no, and not sure. Most participants indicated that they had at least some restrictions on who can view content on their social media sites (83%). While about 15% reported they had no restrictions and 3% were unsure if they had restrictions on who could view their social media content. In addition, one question, developed for the current study, asked participants if they used social media to check into locations. There was a fairly even distribution with 57% indicating they did not check into place on social media and 43% specifying that they did use social media to check into places.

Dependent Variable for Research Goal 3

Research Goal 3 aimed to integrate bystander intervention research into the feminist RAT framework. This goal expands upon Research Goal 2 in that in incorporates research and scales related to bystander intervention into what it mean to be a capable guardian as discussed in Research Goal 2. Research Goals 2 and 3 were analyzed simultaneously. The victimization measures discussed in Research Goal 2 were employed to assess Research Goal 3. The victimization variable has discussed in more detail previously within the chapter.

Independent Variables for Research Goal 3

Capable guardianship.

Peer guardianship. Peer guardianship was measured with the Perception of Peer Helping Scale developed by Banyard and colleagues (2014). Participants generally agreed that their friends were likely to intervene (M= 3.9, SD= 0.7). In addition, the scale demonstrated good internal reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.95.

Personal guardianship. In order to assess an individual's own level of guardianship, participants attitudes on violence prevention and how likely they are to prevent violence was analyzed though Slaby and colleague's (1994) nine item Bystander Efficacy Scale. Participants rated themselves as likely to intervene (M=4.13, SD=0.56). Furthermore, there was good internal consistency for the scale (α=0.92). Lastly, participants were asked if they had ever participated in a bystander intervention program. Relatively few, only about 10% of the sample indicated that they had participated in a bystander intervention program.

Analytic Plan

Analysis proceeded in two stages. First, analysis to address Research Goal 1 was conducted. Hypothesis 1, which measured how participants would intervene in the vignette that they viewed, was analyzed descriptively. Hypotheses 2 through 4 were measured through a series of multinomial logistic regression models. While ordinary least squares (OLS) regression has been used to test Likert scale models, there may be violations to key assumptions of OLS as there may not be an equal distance between the units being measured. Though the original goal was to analyze intervention intentions through an ordinal logistic regression (ORM), analysis indicated that some of the variables violated the parallel lines assumption. ORM models assume that the effects of each independent variable are the same across each of the levels of the dependent variable. In order to test whether this assumption is met post-hoc Brant tests were conducted. The Brant tests showed that there was not parallelity across the levels of the dependent variable. Therefore, multinomial regression models (MRM) were employed. MRM runs separate logistic regressions for each pair of response categories (Agresti & Kateri, 2011). While ORM models use odds ratios, the MRM model uses risk ratios. MRM models are criticized for the lack of parsimony that they have, especially as the number of groups increase. However, only three groups were used. The three groups used were yes, no, and maybe.

Hypothesis 5 addressed whether or not there were differences between the three groups. Analysis of this hypothesis was conducted in two ways. First, differences were examined in what factors were related to intervention intentions. In addition, formal comparisons of regression coefficients were conducted where appropriate. Following the work of Clogg and colleagues (1995) and Paternoster and colleagues (1998), equality in the regression coefficients discussed below was examined. These authors argue for the usage of the equation that follows:

$$Z = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{\sqrt{SEb_1{}^2 + SEb_2{}^2}}$$

The above mentioned authors argue for the usage of this equation as other equations produce estimate that are negatively biased in regards to the differences in the standard error.

Second, Research Goals 2 and 3 were analyzed through a series of logistic regressions. Research Goal 2 assessed the impact of feminist and cyber applications of routine activities theory on victimization; while Research Goal 3 applied components from bystander intervention framework to expand the tenant of capable guardianship. Victimization status was measured in several different ways. First, participants were marked as a victim if they affirmatively answered any of the questions for each of the three types of victimization (i.e., dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking). In addition, in-person and cyber victimizations were analyzed. Sensitivity analyses were conducted to determine if similar factors were related to experiencing any victimization verses a high frequency of victimization and in-person and severe forms of in-person victimization. Each type of victimization was analyzed independently. Thus, for each of the three components of RAT (i.e., motivated offenders, suitable targets, and lack of a capable guardian) there were three sets of regressions analyzed.

Preliminary models, which included all of the potential variables related to each of the three components of RAT and demographic/control variables were conducted. While there was a large number of variables that were collected that were thought to be theoretically relevant, a process similar to research by Mustaine and Tewksbury (1999, 2002) was undertaken. Within this process, all theoretically relevant variables were inputted into an initial regression. For the current project, the variables that were used to analyze each of the three components of RAT (i.e., target suitability, motivated offenders, and capable guardians) were analyzed for each of the three dependent variables in a set of models. Variables that were significant at the 0.15 level

were retained into a second model. Finally variables that were significant in the second model at the 0.05 level were used for a final regression model (that is presented in the results). This analysis allowed for the most parsimonious models to be analyzed in final regression models.

Summary

This chapter has described the methodology in detail. The current study involved a web based survey to assess college student's bystander intervention intentions, routine activities, and levels of victimization. Vignettes depicting dating violence, sexual harassment, and stalking were developed and pilot tested prior to implementation to look like Facebook pages to assess bystander intervention intentions. In addition, students were asked about their routine activities and victimization in order to compare cyber and in-person victimization. The appropriate statistical analyses were discussed in this chapter and include multinomial and logistic regressions.

CHAPTER 6:

RESULTS

The current chapter presents the results of the research questions. There were three main aims that are addressed within this chapter. First, bystander intervention in cyber dating violence, sexual harassment/violence and stalking is analyzed. Second, components of traditional and feminist RAT are examined for their impact on any, in-person and cyber dating violence, sexual violence and stalking victimization. Finally, the impact of bystander intervention skills are incorporated into capable guardianship and RAT. The chapter will proceed as follows. First, Goal 1 and the associated hypotheses are discussed. Second, Goals 2 and 3, which examines RAT and bystander intervention skills and their impact on victimization are shown.

Correlates of Bystander Intervention

The first primary goal of this dissertation was to assess how and when college students would intervene in online dating violence, sexual violence/harassment, and stalking. The results are presented below, starting with a descriptive analysis of how participants would intervene in each of the types of violence and ending with multivariate analysis of situation and participant characteristics and their impact on willingness to intervene.

Research Question 1: How do bystanders intervene in cyber victimization?

While bystander intervention research often focuses on the likelihood of intervention, the current study sought to understand *how* participants would intervene in cyber victimization. Participants were asked to indicate the way that they were most likely to intervene and the descriptive results from this item are presented in Table 19. Across all three scenarios, participants indicated that they were most likely to help Jessica (the victim), both in person and online. About two-thirds of the participants that viewed the dating violence and stalking scenarios indicated that they would talk to Jessica, either in person or using technology, while about half of the participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario indicated that they would talk to Jessica. Relatively few participants indicated that they would talk with Michael; however, as with talking to Jessica, there was a preference to confront Michael in person. Participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario were much more likely to say they would talk with a resident assistant or counselor. About 15% of participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario indicated that they would intervene by talking with a resident assistant while less than 5% of participants who viewed the dating violence and stalking scenarios indicated they would talk with a resident assistant. While the vast majority of respondents indicated that they would intervene in some form (85 – 90%), several reasons for non-intervention were given. Participants who said they would not intervene were most likely to say it was because it was none of their business to intervene. Very few participants felt it was unsafe for them to intervene or that nothing had occurred that warranted intervention. About 10% of participants in each of the scenarios would not intervene because it was none of their business to intervene.

In addition, in order to examine Hypothesis 1, intervention behaviors were collapsed into direct and indirect interventions. Following research by Berkowitz (2009) and McMahon and colleagues (2013), intervention types were classified as direct, where intervention was directed at the victim or perpetrator, or indirect, where intervention was directed in avenues other than the victim or perpetrator. Hypothesis 1 specified that participants would be most likely to intervene by helping directly. Univariate analysis shows support for this hypothesis. Across all three scenarios, participants indicated that they were most likely to intervene in direct ways. Of participants who indicated that they would intervene, within both the stalking scenario (N=142, 83%) and the dating violence scenario (N=120, 82%) over eighty percent indicated they would intervene directly. Two-thirds (N=122) indicated that they would intervene directly in the sexual violence scenario. Of the respondents who reported that they would intervene indirectly, a similar pattern as above emerges with participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario more likely to intervene in a formal way whereas participants who viewed the dating violence and stalking scenario were more prone to turn to informal help-seeking sources. In particular, participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario were more likely to say that they would call a resident assistant or counselor (17%) or report the post to Facebook (11%). Participants who viewed the dating violence scenario and stalking scenario were most likely to say that they would talk to their other friends about helping Jessica. These results are displayed in Table _.

Research Question 2: What factors are related to cyber bystander intervention?

Turning attention to Hypothesis 2, which examined how dispositional and situational perceptions of the scenario shape intervention behaviors, support was found for characterizations of Jessica being related to likelihood of intervention. The results of the multinomial logistic

regressions are displayed in Table 20. Jessica needing emotional support was a consistent salient factor across all forms of victimization for participants reporting that they would intervene. As expected, these effects differed in magnitude depending on whether the reference category was "no" or "maybe." A one unit increase in viewing Jessica as needing emotional support resulted in an increase in the odds of saying yes (versus maybe) by 183% for the dating violence scenario, 151% for the sexual violence scenario, and 82% for the stalking scenario. Likewise, a one unit increase in viewing Jessica as needing emotional support resulted in an increase in the odds of saying yes (versus no) by 244% for the dating violence scenario and 299% for the sexual violence scenario. Jessica needing physical protection was related to indicating yes and no versus maybe intervening for the dating violence scenario. A one unit increase in viewing Jessica as needing physical protection resulted in an increase in the odds of saying yes (versus maybe) by 109% and 119% for the odds of saying no (versus maybe). While perceptions of the need for physical and emotional support related to Jessica were related to intervention, viewing Michael's behavior as threatening were not related to intervention in any of the scenarios.

Next Hypothesis 3 was examined, which extends the above analysis to consider participants' attitudes regarding violence and their impact on intervention. These results are displayed in Table 21. First, Hypothesis 3a, which examined attitudes that accepted violence and their relationship to bystander intervention was assessed. By and large these attitudes were not related to likelihood of intervention. Within the attitudes only regressions, only was the Violence against Women Acceptance measure significantly related to any of the scenarios. For the dating violence scenario an increase in the acceptance of violence against women resulted in participants being less likely to say that yes they would intervene compared to maybe and yes versus no. A one unit increase in the acceptance of attitudes that support violence against women

resulted in about a 70% reduction in the willingness to intervene versus maybe and versus no. No other attitudes were significant across any of the scenarios.

In examining attitudes related to bystander intervention, as hypothesized by Hypothesis 3b, there is some support for both bystander efficacy and perceptions of peers helping being related to intervention in the sexual violence and stalking scenarios. However, there was no support for either of these attitudes being related to bystander intervention in the dating violence scenario. These results are shown in Table 22. The perceptions that peers would help was related to a higher likelihood of saying yes versus no and a lower likelihood of saying no versus maybe for the sexual violence scenario. A one unit increase in viewing peers as being able to help resulted in a 140% increase in the odds of saying yes versus no and a reduction of 59% for saying no versus maybe for the sexual violence scenario. Regarding bystander efficacy, higher scores were related to greater odds of intervening compared to no intervention and maybe intervention in the sexual violence scenario and versus maybe intervening in the stalking scenario. A one unit increase in bystander efficacy increased the likelihood of saying yes to intervention versus no intervention by 123% and yes versus maybe intervention by 119% for the sexual violence scenario and by 139% for saying yes versus maybe for the stalking scenario.

Hypothesis 4 assessed characteristics related to participants (social media usage and victimization) and bystander intervention. Social media usage was assessed two ways by the number of sites used four times per week and by frequently updating social media sites. Very little support was found for the number of sites visited being related to bystander intervention. The number of sites used four or more days per week was only related to yes and no versus maybe intervention in the dating violence scenario. A one unit increase in the number of sites frequented was associated with an increase in the odds by 50% of indicating no intervention

versus maybe intervention. Likewise, a one unit increase in the number of sites used four or more days per week was related to an increase of 63% in the odds of intervening versus maybe intervening. Furthermore, there was little support for frequently updating social media sites being related to bystander intervention. Only within the sexual violence scenario was this related to bystander intervention. Participants who frequently updated social media sites were more likely to say they would intervene versus no intervention and less likely to say they would not intervene versus maybe intervene. Posting an above average number of updates on social media increased the odds of intervening versus not intervening by 171% and decreased the odds of saying no versus maybe intervening by 39%. These results are displayed in Table 23.

Regarding Hypothesis 4b, which assessed the relationship between experiencing sexual violence victimization and bystander intervention, there was little support for victimization impacting willingness to intervene. Prior victimization was not related to intervention in the dating violence scenario. Stalking victimization was related to yes versus maybe intervening for the sexual violence scenario and sexual violence victimization was related to yes versus maybe intervening in the stalking scenario. Being the victim of stalking increased the odds of intervening in the sexual violence scenario by 150% while being a sexual violence victim increased the odds of intervening in the stalking scenario by 226%. These results are displayed in Table 24.

A similar pattern for significant control variables emerged across the five sets of models. First, none of the control variables were significant in any of the models for sexual violence. Within the dating violence models, heterosexual participants consistently were more likely to say no to intervention. Though it varied within models, several other variables were significant. Men were less likely to say yes to intervention and participants who went to a bystander intervention

training were more likely to say yes to intervention when examining the effects of victimization experiences. Across several models participants who identified as Black (vignette characteristics, bystander attitudes, social media, victimization) and were in the Junior year (attitudes about violence against women, social media, victimization) were less likely to say yes than no to intervention. When examining stalking victimization, several patterns emerged. Generally speaking, male and heterosexual participants were less likely to say yes to intervention and members of Greek or sports teams were more likely to say yes or no versus maybe to intervention. The control variables can be found throughout each of the models.

Regarding Hypothesis 5, which hypothesized that there would be differences in intervention across the three scenarios several conclusions can be drawn. Across the scenarios, some differences did emerge in what was significant. For example, the violence against women acceptance measure was only significant for the domestic violence scenario. Perceptions of peers helping was related to yes versus no intervention and no versus maybe intervention for the sexual violence scenario, while it was related to yes versus maybe intervention in the stalking scenario. Furthermore, bystander efficacy was only related to the sexual violence scenario. Overall, there was little consistency across the three scenarios for when items were significant. Clogg testing indicated that there were no formal differences across the three scenarios in examining perceptions of severity. In general, there is support for there being differences across the three interventions in that some factors were only significantly related to the likelihood of intervention in certain scenarios. However, when variables emerged as being salient for multiple forms of violence, they were comparable in magnitude.

Summary

In examining descriptive data, Hypothesis 1 was tentatively confirmed. While participants indicated that they were likely to intervene in a variety of ways, exploratory descriptive analyses found that participants were most likely to indicate that they would intervene by talking with Jessica directly. Though the scenarios presented dealt with online victimization, participants were more likely to indicate that they would intervene by talking with Jessica in person. This is in line with previous research that has found that a relationship with the victim encourages direct intervention. For example, Palmer and colleagues (2018) found that in examining how relationships with victims and perpetrators impacted ways that bystanders would intervene, participants who were told they knew the victim of sexual assault and IPV were more likely to intervene directly. In addition, participants who knew the victim of IPV were also likely to indicate that they would intervene indirectly.

In regards to the hypotheses associated with the second research question that assessed how factors were related to cyber bystander intervention, there were mixed findings related to the hypotheses. Consistent with previous literature which has shown that situational characteristics (e.g., characterizations of the victim or perpetrator) are related to bystander intervention, the current study found the most support for perceptions of the severity of the situation. Across all three scenarios, Jessica needing emotional support was related to an increase in the likelihood of intervention. For the dating violence and sexual violence scenarios these differences were significant for the yes versus maybe and the yes versus no analyses. For the stalking scenario, Jessica needing emotional support was only related to the yes versus maybe scenario. To a lesser extend Jessica needing physical protection was related to bystander intervention. This only held within the dating violence scenario. Participants who viewed Jessica

as needing physical protection were both more likely and less likely to intervene versus maybe intervening. While it seems that participants viewed the situation as serious, potential barriers to intervention may have stopped participants from indicating they would intervene. Participants may have been unwilling to intervene, given that there was the potential for violence directed towards them. This finding will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

While there was general support for the characterization of Jessica being related to bystander intervention, the characterization of Michael's behavior as threatening was largely not related to bystander intervention (Hypothesis 2b). One potential reason for this is the way the scenarios were set up. As previously mentioned, bystanders are more likely to intervene when they know the victim (Nicksa, 2014). Other potential reasons and implication for these findings will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

There was little support for the acceptance of attitudes that encourage violence against women being related to willingness to intervene as hypothesized by Hypothesis 3a. For example, across all three scenarios hostile and benevolent sexism was not related to bystander intervention. The acceptance of attitudes supporting violence against women was only related to intervention in the dating violence scenario. Participants who endorsed higher levels of acceptance of violence against women were less likely to say they would intervene. This finding is surprising as research involving in-person victimization routinely finds that those who endorse negative attitudes are less likely to intervene. As will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter, several potential reasons exist for this. First, as discussed by McMahon and Farmer (2014), there may be a social desirability bias in rating acceptance of attitudes that support violence against women. In answering questions related to violence, participants may feel social pressure to not hold negative attitudes as more prevention programs and attention given to VAW

expands. On the other hand, it may be that while attitudes are related to in-person victimization, viewing victimization in cyberspace may require a different thought process where attitudes supporting violence may not be as salient.

While there was little support for Hypothesis 3a, there was greater support for Hypothesis 3b which assessed bystander efficacy and the perceptions that peers can help in dating and sexual violence. While these attitudes were not related to intervention in the dating violence scenario, they were related to intervention in the sexual violence and stalking scenarios. Bystander efficacy was related to an increased likelihood of intervention versus maybe intervening in the stalking scenario. When examining the sexual violence scenario, bystander efficacy was associated with an increased likelihood of saying yes versus no to intervention and less likelihood of saying no versus maybe to intervention. The perceptions of peers helping was only related to the sexual violence scenario.

Hypothesis 4 analyzed two characteristics related to study participants. Overall, there was little support for both of these hypotheses. Regarding Hypothesis 4a, which examined social media usage, the number of social media sites was only related to yes versus maybe intervention in the dating violence scenario. More support was found four frequently updating social media sites being related to intervention, especially intervention in the sexual violence scenario. Participants who frequently updated their social media sites were more likely to indicate that they would intervene versus not intervene and less likely to select no intervention versus maybe intervening. Hypothesis 4b, which addressed the relationship between victimization and bystander intervention was largely unsupported. By and large, there were no differences among participants who had been victimized and those who had not experienced victimization and bystander intervention. Across all three scenarios, there were no differences in likelihood of

intervention based upon experiencing the same type of victimization. For example, experiencing dating violence did not increase the likelihood of intervening in the dating violence scenario. The same is true for the sexual violence and stalking scenario. However, there were some differences with sexual violence and stalking victimization among these scenarios. Participants who reported experiencing stalking victimization were more likely to say they would intervene versus maybe intervene in the sexual violence scenario. Similarly, participants who experienced sexual violence were more likely to say that they would intervene in the stalking scenario versus maybe intervening.

Lastly, Hypothesis 5 addresses differences in intervention across the three scenarios. In examining what factors were important for intervention across the scenarios, differences across the three scenarios emerge. For example, while bystander efficacy and perceptions that peers can help were related to intervening in the sexual violence scenario, they were not related to intervening in the dating violence scenario. Similarly, acceptance of attitudes supporting violence against women was related to lower levels of intervention in the dating violence scenario but not the sexual violence or stalking scenario. Examining characteristics related to vignette characters allowed for the formal testing of equality of coefficients. However, these tests revealed that there were no differences in the magnitude of the coefficients across the three scenarios.

Research Questions 3 and 4: 3) Does the feminist and cyber framework enhance the ability of RAT to explain rates of victimization for college students? 4) Does bystander intervention skills impact victimization?

Analysis for each of the three dependent variables proceeded in several steps. First, all variables related to each component of RAT were entered into a logistic regression equation. Next, only the variables that were significant at the 0.15 level were retained (Mustaine &

Tewksbury, 2002). A final model was constructed from the second equation with only variables significant at the 0.05 level. This process was completed three times, for each of the three components related to RAT, suitable targets, motivated offenders, and capable guardians. Results from the preliminary and intermediate model can be found in Appendix 5. Within each of these three set of models there are three dependent variables, 1) any victimization, 2) in-person victimization, and 3) cyber victimization. Two sensitivity analyses were also conducted to assess if there was a differential impact among the key theoretical constructs based on high rates of victimization and severe forms of in-person victimization. Substantive differences are discussed within the results and the models can be found in Appendix 6.

The following is a guide to the models. Within each component of RAT there are nine separate models, three for each type of the three types of victimization analyzed. Hypothesis 6 is addressed through Models 1-9 (Tables 25-27) which examined the impact of constructs related to target suitability. Models 10-18 (Tables 28-30) examine motivated offenders (Hypothesis 7). Lastly, Models 19-27 (Tables 31-33) examine capable guardianship (Hypothesis 8) and bystander intervention skills (Hypothesis 9).

Suitable Targets

Any Victimization. As presented in Table 25, there were several routine activities/lifestyle variables that were significantly related to increases or decreases in experiencing any type of victimization. Spending more time with friends was related to an increased likelihood of dating violence (Model 1) and stalking (Model 3) victimization. Participants who spent an above average amount of time with friends had odds of experiencing dating violence and stalking increased by about 100%. Spending more time at bars was

associated with an increased likelihood for having experienced sexual violence (Model 2) victimization while spending more time playing sports was associated with a lower likelihood of sexual violence victimization. Participants who reported spending an above average amount of time at bars had 95% higher odds of previously experiencing sexual violence. Participants who spent an above average amount of time playing sports had about 50% lower odds of previously experiencing sexual violence. For stalking victimization, spending more time with friends increased the odds of previously experiencing stalking victimization by nearly 100%, while spending more time searching for information online for school lowered the odds of stalking victimization by 48%.

Regarding proximity to offenders, acquaintances who used social media to hurt girls was related to increased levels of victimization across all three types of violence. Participants who knew acquaintances who used social media as a way to hurt girls had increased odds of dating violence victimization by 137%, while odds of sexual violence victimization increased by 127%, and stalking victimization by 173%. In addition, having acquaintances who used a computer with other a person's permission increased the odds of previously experiencing dating violence by 159%, while knowing a friend who used a person's computer without their permission increased the odds of sexual violence by 90%. Lastly, the odds of having experienced stalking victimization were increased by 93% when a person knew a friend who had excessively pursued a woman. Across all three forms of victimization men were less likely to report victimization. No other control variables were significant.

Sensitivity analysis showed differing results across all three types of victimization when comparing high rates of victimization and any victimization. Participants who drank most often at fraternity parties were more likely experience high rates of dating violence victimization,

while participants who spent an above average amount of time at parties and were more involved in sports were less likely to experience high rates of dating violence victimization. In addition, participants who knew friends or acquaintances who had excessively pursued a woman, or who knew friends who used social media as a way to hurt women were more likely to experience high rates of dating violence victimization. Regarding high rates of sexual violence, participants who spent an above average amount of time at parties were less likely to experience victimization, while participants who spent an above average amount of time with friends were more likely to experience victimization. There were no substantive differences regarding high rates of stalking victimization.

In-Person Victimization. As shown in Table 26, all three final in-person models were statistically significant. Spending an above average amount of time with friends increased the likelihood of having experienced in-person dating violence (Model 4) and stalking (Model 6). Participants who spent more time with friends had the odds of reporting dating violence increased by 84% and 100% for stalking victimization. In addition, participants who spent more time on social media and searching for information online had a decreased likelihood of experiencing in-person stalking victimization. The odds decreased by 53% for participants who spent more time on social media and 46% for participant who spent an above average time searching for information on the internet for classes. Finally, spending more time at bars was associated with an increase of 129% in the odds of having experienced in-person sexual violence (Model 5) victimization, though spending an above average amount of time playing sports was associated with 46% lower odds of experiencing in-person sexual violence victimization. No other routine activities variables were significant in the final models.

Knowing acquaintances who used social media as a way to hurt women was related to an increased likelihood of having experienced in-person dating and sexual violence victimization. Knowing acquaintances who did this had the odds of having experienced dating violence increased by 162% and 117% for sexual violence victimization. Knowing an acquaintance who used another person's computer without their permission increased the odds of previously experiencing dating violence victimization by 125% and increased the odds of stalking victimization by 94%. Having a friend who used another person's computer without their permission increased the odds of previously experiencing sexual violence victimization by 71%. In addition, having an acquaintance who committed violence in a dating relationship increased the odds of sexual violence by 69%. Lastly, knowing a friend who excessively pursued a women was associated with an increase in the likelihood of having experienced stalking victimization. Participants who knew a friend who did this had the odds of stalking victimization increased by 78%. Across all three scenarios men were less likely to experience victimization and heterosexual participants were less likely to experience sexual violence. Seniors were more likely to report experiencing dating violence.

Sensitivity analyses showed that few differences emerged for severe forms of in-person victimization. The only variables significantly related to severe forms of dating violence were knowing a friend or acquaintance who used social media as a way to hurt girls. For severe forms of sexual violence, findings generally remained the same with the inclusion of knowing a friend who excessively pursued a woman being related to an increased likelihood of experiencing severe forms of sexual violence. Likewise, a similar pattern emerged for experiencing severe forms of stalking with spending more time playing sports or shopping online being related to a

lower likelihood of stalking victimization and having a friend who used a computer as a way to hurt a women being related to experiencing more severe forms of stalking victimization.

Cyber Victimization. All of the final models were significant at conventional levels. There were no routine activities that were related to an increased likelihood of previously experiencing cyber dating violence (Model 7) victimization. There were two that were related to cyber sexual violence (Model 8) and one related to cyber/technology facilitated stalking (Model 9). Participants who reported spending an above average time in bars were more likely to experience cyber sexual violence while those who spent more time checking email were less likely to experience sexual violence. The odds of previously experiencing sexual violence were increased by 77%. In addition, participants who spent an above average time checking email had 58% lower odds of previously experiencing cyber sexual violence. Participants who spent more time shopping online had their odds of stalking victimization decreased by 47%. Knowing friends and acquaintances who used social media as a way to hurt girls was associated with a higher likelihood of experiencing all three types of violence analyzed. Participants who knew friends who used social media as a way to hurt girls had increased odds by 111% of experiencing cyber dating violence, while participants who knew acquaintances who used social media as a way to hurt girls had 87% higher odds of experiencing cyber sexual violence and 157% higher odds of experiencing cyber stalking. The odds of previously experiencing dating violence increased by 137% if participants knew an acquaintance who used violence in a relationship. In addition, the odds of experiencing stalking were increased by 73% if participants knew an acquaintance who used violence in a relationship. Participants who knew a friend who used another person's computer without their permission had nearly 100% higher odds of

experiencing sexual violence, while stalking victimization odds were increased by 89% when knowing a friend who did this. Male participants were less likely to experience dating violence and sexual violence, with heterosexual participants also less likely to experience sexual violence. No other control variables were significant. These results are displayed in Table 27.

Motivated Offenders

Any Victimization. As shown in Table 28, only the ATVAW measure was significant in the final sexual violence victimization model (Model 11). However, unexpectedly, a one unit increase in the acceptance of violence towards women was associated with 36% lower odds of sexual violence victimization. Sensitivity analysis showed that all three attitudes were significantly related to high rates of dating violence and benevolent sexism was also related to experiencing any stalking victimization. However, as with attitudes discussed above much of these findings were in a theoretically unexpected way. Both increased levels of the attitudes supporting violence against women measure and benevolent sexism were related to a lower likelihood of victimization. Only increased levels of hostile sexism was related to increased levels of dating violence victimization.

In-Person Victimization. Within the final model only ATVAW was related to in-person stalking victimization (Model 15). These results are displayed in Table 29. A one unit increase in the acceptance of attitudes supporting violence against women was associated with a decrease in the odds of previously experiencing in-person stalking by 32%. No other attitudes were significantly related to any other types of victimization. Both men and heterosexual participants were less likely to experience in-person victimization. No other control variables were

statistically significant. Sensitivity analysis showed that a higher acceptance in the ATVAW measure was associated with a lower likelihood of experiencing severe forms of sexual violence victimization.

Cyber Victimization. None of the motivated offender variables achieved statistical significance in final models assessing cyber victimization. As shown in Table30_, men were less likely to experience dating violence (Model 16), sexual violence (Model 17), and stalking victimization (Model 18). In addition, heterosexual participants were less likely to experience dating violence and stalking victimization. Lastly, participants who were black or other races were less likely to experience sexual violence victimization.

Capable Guardians

Any Victimization. Talking to parents daily was associated with a lower likelihood of sexual violence victimization (Model 20). Talking with parents decreased the odds of previously experiencing sexual violence victimization by 32%. Parental guardianship was not related to dating violence (Model 19) or stalking victimization (Model 20). As shown in Table 31, regarding peer guardianship, the number of friends online was associated with increases in victimization for both dating violence and stalking victimization. A one unit increase in total friends online increased the odds of dating violence victimization by 7% and stalking victimization by 6%. Personal guardianship was primarily not related to victimization. Only participants who used social media as a way to meet new people were more likely to indicate sexual violence victimization. There was a 23% increase in the odds of sexual violence victimization for participants who used social media as a way to meet new people. No other

personal guardianship variables were significant. Lastly, the effects of bystander intervention skills were related to higher levels of victimization. A one unit increase in bystander efficacy increased the odds of sexual violence victimization by 53%. Participating in a bystander intervention program increased the odds of experiences with sexual violence victimization by 177%. However, temporal order could not be established within this study. It is unknown which came first, the sexual violence victimization or bystander intervention experiences. As will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter, there are several reasons why participants may seek out bystander intervention trainings or improve on their bystander intervention skills following sexual violence.

Across all three scenarios, men were about half as likely to experience victimization as women. In addition, heterosexual participants were about 40% less likely to experience victimization. Some racial differences were found in the dating violence and stalking scenarios with minorities being less likely to experience victimization. Participants who identified as black were 42% less likely to experience dating violence. Participants who were black were 9% less likely to experience stalking victimization, while participants who identified as Hispanic were 9% less likely to experience stalking victimization.

Sensitivity analysis showed that while having higher levels of family support was related to a lower likelihood of victimization having more friends on social media was related to an increased likelihood of experiencing high rates of dating violence victimization. Similarly, higher levels of family support was related to an increased likelihood of experiencing high levels of sexual violence. In addition, perceptions that peers would intervene in dating and sexual violence was associated with a lower likelihood of experiencing high rates of sexual violence victimization. No guardianship variables were related to high levels of stalking victimization.

In-Person Victimization. Talking to parents daily was also significant in the in-person sexual violence model (Model 23). As shown in Table 32, participants who talked with parents daily had 34% lower odds of having experienced in-person sexual violence victimization. Only the personal guardianship variables were significantly related to experiencing in-person dating violence (Model 22). A one unit increase in the number of friends online increased odds of dating violence victimization by 7% and living in a less guarded house increased the odds of having experienced dating violence by 39%. Of the bystander variables, a one unit increase in perceptions of peers helping was associated with an increase of 1% in the odds of stalking victimization (Model 24). Participants who participated in bystander intervention training programs also had increased likelihood of experiencing sexual violence and stalking victimization. For stalking victimization, odds of victimization were increased by 50% and for sexual violence they were increased by 136%. Across all three types of victimization men experienced lower levels of victimization. In addition, heterosexual participants were less likely to experience sexual violence and stalking. Sensitivity analysis showed that only living in a less guarded residence was related to experiencing severe forms of in-person dating and sexual violence.

Cyber Victimization. Parental guardianship variables were not significant in any of the final models. However, with regards to personal guardianship participants who used social media as a way to meet new people were more likely to experience sexual violence (Model 26). Using social media to meet new people was associated with 24% higher odds of having experienced cyber sexual violence. Regarding the impact of bystander skills, efficacy and participation were related to increased experiences of sexual violence with participation also being associated with

increased levels of dating violence (Model 25). A one unit increase in bystander efficacy increased the odds of having experienced cyber sexual violence victimization by 49%. Participants who had received bystander intervention training had nearly 200% higher odds of also having experienced cyber sexual violence victimization and 101% greater odds of having experienced cyber dating violence. No guardianship variables were significantly related to stalking victimization (Model 27). These results are displayed in Table 33.

Summary

This study sought to assess components of RAT while incorporating research involving feminist and cyber applications of the theory. Three main types of victimization were analyzed, dating violence, sexual violence, and stalking victimization. Overall, the results showed some support for the theory. Table 34 displays each of the variables analyzed across all models and their impact on victimization. The results are discussed in terms of the hypotheses presented in Chapter 4 below.

Hypothesis 6 examined target suitability. Within target suitability routine activities and proximity to offenders was analyzed. Many of the routine activities, such as time spent at restaurants or parties were not significantly related to the three types of victimization. However, some routine activities were consistently related to an increased likelihood of victimization. Participants who reported spending an above average amount of time with friends were more likely to report any and in-person dating violence victimization and any and in-person stalking victimization. Unsurprisingly, spending an above average time at bars was related to increased odds of reporting all forms of sexual violence victimization. Given that college students are likely to be victimized by someone known to them, it is unsurprising that college students who

spent an above average time with friends also reported being more likely to experience dating violence and stalking victimization. These results provide support for Hypothesis 6a, which stated that participants who had more contact with motivated offenders would be more likely to experience victimization. Likewise, that spending an above average time at the bar is significant for only the sexual violence victimization models provides support for Hypothesis 6a. Contrary to expectations, spending an above average time playing sports was related to lower levels of any and in-person sexual violence victimization. Finding an above average time playing sports being related to a lower likelihood of sexual violence victimization was unexpected. Previous research has found that being a member of a college sports team increases the risk of victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002).

Of the proximity to offenders variables, none of the drinking location variables were related to victimization. Following research by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) a number of questions asked about proximity to offenders in the form of questions that assessed the number of friends and acquaintances who engaged in actions that victimized women. Schwartz and Pitts (1995) asked about friends and acquaintances who intoxicated women in order to have sex with them. Unexpectedly, this question was only significantly related to increased levels of severe and in-person stalking. None of the sexual violence victimizations were related to having friends or acquaintances who intoxicated women to have sex with them. Modeled after these questions, 4 additional sets of questions were developed for the current project. Participants who knew acquaintances who had used violence within a relationship were more likely to experience cyber dating violence and stalking and in-person sexual violence. In addition, participants who knew a friend who had excessively pursued a person were more likely to experience any and in-person stalking victimization but not others forms of victimization. These findings are most in line with

the findings of Schwartz and Pitts (1995) as knowing a friend who had done this was directly related to the type of victimization experienced.

One of the goals of this dissertation was to compare the impact of RAT on both cyber and in-person victimization. In examining the five routine activities that involved a computer, mixed finding emerged. Each of the significant computer based routine activities was associated with a lower likelihood of victimization, regardless of whether the victimization was in-person or cyber. Participants who spent an above average time on social media were less likely to experience cyber sexual violence while participants who spent more time chatting with friends online were less likely to experience cyber stalking. On the other hand participants who spent an above average time shopping online or searching for information for class online were less likely to experience in-person stalking. Computer based activities did not impact the likelihood of dating violence victimization. The strongest support for social media being related to an increase in victimization can be found from examining the questions related to proximity of offenders. Of these, knowing acquaintances who used social media as a way to hurt women was consistently related to victimization. Participants who knew acquaintances who did this were more likely to experience any dating violence, severe dating violence and in-person dating violence. They were also more likely to experience all forms of sexual violence except severe sexual violence and all forms of stalking victimization except in-person. Surprisingly, social media intensity was not related to any of the forms of cyber victimization measured.

By and large there was little support for the three measures of motivated offenders used to analyze Hypothesis 7. Benevolent and hostile sexism were not found to be related to any of the forms of victimization studied. The measure that assessed attitudes supporting violence against women, however, was significant across two types of victimization. They were any

sexual violence and in-person stalking. However, Hypothesis 7 posited that endorsing attitudes would be related to a higher likelihood of victimization. This was not found as participants who endorsed attitudes that supported violence against women were less likely to be victimized.

Lastly, in examining capable guardianship and Hypothesis 8 support emerged for parents and their ability to act as guardians and personal guardianship. In addition, as hypothesized in research goal 3 support for bystander intervention skills being related to victimization emerged. However, as will be discussed in more detail bystander intervention skills were related to an increased likelihood of victimization. Turning our attention to parental guardianship (Hypothesis 8a), talking to parents daily seemed to have a stronger protective factor for experiencing sexual violence. Participants who reported talking to their parents daily were less likely to experience any sexual violence and in-person sexual violence. Parents did not act as a capable guardian to prevent stalking as none of these variables were significantly related to victimization. Therefore, little support for parents to act as parental guardians was found.

Few friend related guardianship variables emerged. Having an increased number of friends on social media was related to an increased likelihood of experiencing any and in-person dating violence and any stalking victimization. These findings suggest that having more friends on social media does not increase guardianship. In addition, these findings suggest that having more friends on social media increases the likelihood of appearing as a suitable target. These variables may be better suited in the target suitability analyses. This was unexpected as Hypothesis 8b postulates that having friends will be related to increased levels of guardianship.

Few personal guardianship variables were significantly related to victimization. Little support was found for Hypothesis 8c, two exceptions were found. Participants who lived in less guarded houses, that is off-campus apartments or houses without parents were more likely to

experience in-person dating violence. In addition, participants who used social media as a way to meet new people were more likely to experience any and cyber sexual violence victimization.

Lastly, Hypothesis 9 argued that participants who had greater bystander skills would be less likely to be victimized. While the current study found strong support for the relationship between bystander intervention skills and victimization, these findings were in the opposite expected direction. Bystander efficacy was significantly related to a higher likelihood of any and cyber sexual violence victimization. In addition, attending a bystander intervention training program on campus was related to a higher likelihood of experiencing any, in-person and cyber sexual violence, in-person stalking, and in-person and cyber dating violence. These findings will be discussed more in the following chapter.

Table 19. Frequency of Intervention and Non-Intervention by Scenario

	Dating Violence		Sexual Violence		Stalking	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Direct						
Total	**120**	**69.77**	**122**	**58.65**	**142**	**73.96**
Talk to Jessica in person	79	45.93	66	31.73	77	40.10
Talk to Jessica using technology	29	16.86	34	16.35	53	27.60
Talk to Michael in person	7	4.07	5	2.40	6	3.13
Talk to Michael using technology	1	0.58	3	1.44	1	0.52
Respond on one of the posts	4	2.33	14	6.73	5	2.60
Indirect						
Total	**26**	**15.12**	**61**	**29.33**	**29**	**15.10**
Call a resident assistant, counselor, etc.	7	4.07	32	15.38	5	2.60
Report to Facebook	1	0.58	20	9.62	7	3.65
Talk to friends about helping Jessica	18	10.47	9	4.33	16	8.33
Talk to friends about confronting Michael	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.52
Non-Intervention						
Total	**26**	**15.12**	**25**	**12.02**	**21**	**10.94**
It's not safe for me to do anything	3	1.74	2	0.96	1	0.52
Do nothing, it is none of my business	17	9.88	19	9.13	16	8.33
Do nothing, nothing has occurred	6	3.49	4	1.92	4	2.08

Table 20. Multinomial Regression of Vignette Characteristics on Bystander Intervention

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Dating Violence												
V emotional support [a]	1.04	0.40	2.83	**	1.24	0.36	3.44	***	-0.20	0.35	0.82	
V physical protection [a]	0.74	0.34	2.09	*	-0.05	0.30	0.96		0.78	0.35	2.19	*
P threatening [b]	0.19	0.33	1.20		0.56	0.30	1.75		-0.38	0.31	0.69	
Male	-0.70	0.59	0.50		-0.83	0.50	0.43		0.13	0.55	1.14	
Heterosexual	0.71	0.66	2.04		-1.82	0.85	0.16	*	2.53	0.91	12.58	**
Hispanic	0.82	0.62	2.27		0.14	0.49	1.15		0.68	0.60	1.97	
Black	-0.25	0.76	0.78		-1.24	0.63	0.29	*	1.00	0.73	2.71	
Other	0.10	0.86	1.11		-0.28	0.69	0.76		0.38	0.85	1.46	
Sophomore	-1.03	0.93	0.36		-0.95	0.75	0.39		-0.08	0.95	0.92	
Junior	-1.01	0.86	0.36		-1.29	0.68	0.28		0.27	0.87	1.32	
Senior	-0.86	0.84	0.43		-0.01	0.69	0.99		-0.85	0.88	1.32	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.31	0.68	0.74		0.46	0.64	1.59		-0.77	0.66	0.46	
Previous Dating Exp. [c]	-0.57	0.50	0.56		-0.40	0.43	0.67		-0.17	0.50	0.85	
Bystander Int. Part. [d]	1.99	1.13	7.32		1.36	0.85	3.89		0.63	1.28	1.88	
Constant	-6.34	2.16		**	-4.41	1.93		*	-1.93	2.04		
Pseudo R^2	0.2388											
F	F(28, 172) = 84.97***											
Sexual Violence												
V emotional support [a]	0.92	0.43	2.51	*	1.38	0.45	3.99	**	-0.46	0.41	0.63	
V physical protection [a]	0.21	0.20	1.23		0.08	0.23	1.09		0.13	0.24	1.14	
P threatening [b]	0.33	0.22	1.39		0.17	0.24	1.18		0.17	0.26	1.18	
Male	0.64	0.46	1.90		0.80	0.52	2.22		-0.16	0.55	0.86	
Heterosexual	0.17	0.44	1.19		-0.65	0.58	0.52		0.82	0.60	2.28	
Hispanic	-0.44	0.41	0.64		0.21	0.50	1.23		-0.65	0.51	0.52	
Black	-0.40	0.49	0.67		-0.15	0.55	0.86		-0.25	0.57	0.78	
Other	0.20	0.53	1.22		0.67	0.68	1.95		-0.47	0.70	0.62	
Sophomore	0.26	0.66	1.10		0.20	0.69	1.08		0.06	0.75	1.02	
Junior	-0.22	0.57	0.80		0.03	0.60	1.03		-0.25	0.65	0.78	
Senior	-0.39	0.56	0.68		-0.08	0.59	0.92		-0.31	0.63	0.74	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.23	0.47	0.80		0.12	0.53	1.12		-0.34	0.56	0.71	
Previous Dating Exp. [c]	0.18	0.36	1.20		0.55	0.41	1.74		-0.37	0.42	0.69	
Bystander Int. Part. [d]	0.10	0.60	1.11		-0.58	0.61	0.56		0.68	0.67	1.98	
Constant	-6.03	2.27		**	-6.81	2.40		**	0.78	2.18		
Pseudo R^2	0.0667											
F	F(28, 205) = 29.04											

Table 20 Continued

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
					Stalking							
V emotional support [a]	0.61	0.28	1.82	*	0.23	0.29	1.25		0.38	0.31	1.47	
V physical protection [a]	0.02	0.29	1.03		0.24	0.29	1.28		-0.22	0.31	0.80	
P threatening [b]	0.18	0.27	1.19		0.38	0.28	1.46		-0.21	0.29	0.81	
Male	-0.84	0.48	0.43		-1.01	0.50	0.37	*	0.17	0.51	1.19	
Heterosexual	-0.08	0.59	0.92		-1.84	1.11	0.16		1.76	1.17	5.83	
Hispanic	0.08	0.45	1.08		0.26	0.49	1.03		-0.19	0.53	0.83	
Black	0.78	0.55	2.18		-0.45	0.52	0.64		1.23	0.59	3.42	*
Other	0.89	0.56	2.43		-0.32	0.55	0.73		1.20	0.64	3.33	
Sophomore	-0.17	0.75	0.84		-0.93	0.79	0.40		0.75	0.90	2.12	
Junior	-0.99	0.57	0.37		-0.96	0.66	0.38		-0.04	0.71	0.96	
Senior	-0.83	0.61	0.44		-1.14	0.67	0.32		0.31	0.75	1.36	
Greek/Sports Member	1.27	0.64	3.57	*	-0.20	0.49	0.82		1.48	0.67	4.37	*
Previous Dating Exp. [c]	0.41	0.42	1.50		0.54	0.44	1.71		-0.13	0.48	0.88	
Bystander Int. Part. [d]	0.99	0.73	2.68		15.42	631.74	0.00		-14.44	631.74	0.00	
Constant	-2.50	1.53			-0.06	1.80			-2.43	1.92		
Pseudo R^2	0.1493											
F	F(28, 192) = 59.72***											

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

[a] means Victim needs Emotional Support

[b] means Perpetrator needs Emotional Support

[c] means Previous Dating Experience

[d] means Bystander Intervention Program Participant

Table 21. Multinomial Regression of Attitudes towards Violence on Bystander Intervention

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Dating Violence												
Benevolent Sexism	0.19	0.31	1.21		0.26	0.28	1.29		-0.07	0.34	0.94	
Hostile Sexism	0.21	0.32	1.23		-0.08	0.26	0.93		0.28	0.33	1.33	
Attitudes towards VAW [a]	-1.15	0.54	0.32	*	-1.18	0.45	0.31	**	0.03	0.50	1.03	
Male	-0.84	0.57	0.43		-0.58	0.48	0.56		-0.26	0.55	0.77	
Heterosexual	-0.12	0.60	0.89		-2.47	0.83	0.08	**	2.36	0.88	10.56	**
Hispanic	0.42	0.57	1.53		-0.22	0.46	0.81		0.64	0.59	1.90	
Black	-0.58	0.72	0.56		-1.08	0.62	0.34		0.50	0.69	1.65	
Other	0.14	0.82	1.15		-0.29	0.65	0.75		0.43	0.82	1.54	
Sophomore	-1.19	0.87	0.30		-1.09	0.73	0.34		-0.10	0.90	0.91	
Junior	-1.15	0.80	0.32		-1.39	0.63	0.25	*	0.24	0.82	1.26	
Senior	-0.65	0.79	0.52		-0.29	0.63	0.75		-0.36	0.84	0.70	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.22	0.62	0.80		0.27	0.55	1.31		-0.49	0.62	0.61	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.67	0.47	0.51		-0.35	0.40	0.70		-0.32	0.48	0.73	
Bystander Int. Part. [b]	1.90	1.09	6.68		1.28	0.75	3.60		0.62	1.22	1.86	
Constant	3.26	1.23	25.97	**	5.28	1.23	196.56	***	-2.02	1.44	0.13	
Pseudo R^2	0.1563											
F	F(28, 172) = 55.64**											
Sexual Violence												
Benevolent Sexism	0.34	0.23	1.41		0.18	0.25	1.20		0.16	0.28	1.17	
Hostile Sexism	-0.16	0.22	0.85		0.02	0.24	1.02		-0.18	0.26	0.83	
Attitudes towards VAW [a]	-0.28	0.37	0.76		-0.75	0.42	0.47		0.47	0.44	1.61	
Male	0.11	0.43	1.11		0.36	0.49	1.43		-0.25	0.52	0.78	
Heterosexual	-0.09	0.43	0.91		-0.93	0.58	0.40		0.84	0.60	2.31	
Hispanic	-0.55	0.40	0.57		0.11	0.49	1.11		-0.66	0.50	0.52	
Black	-0.46	0.52	0.63		0.05	0.59	1.05		-0.50	0.60	0.61	
Other	0.26	0.51	1.29		0.71	0.66	2.02		-0.45	0.69	0.64	
Sophomore	0.19	0.64	1.21		0.20	0.67	1.22		-0.01	0.75	0.99	
Junior	-0.20	0.55	0.82		0.08	0.59	1.09		-0.28	0.65	0.76	
Senior	-0.34	0.54	0.71		-0.04	0.58	0.96		-0.30	0.64	0.74	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.12	0.46	0.89		0.38	0.53	1.46		-0.50	0.56	0.61	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.02	0.35	0.98		0.36	0.40	1.43		-0.38	0.42	0.69	
Bystander Int. Part. [b]	0.20	0.59	1.22		-0.37	0.61	0.69		0.57	0.66	1.77	
Constant	0.74	0.75	2.09		1.84	0.90	6.27	*	-1.10	0.95	0.33	
Pseudo R^2	0.0334											
F	F(28, 205) = 14.55											

Table 21 Continued

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
					Stalking							
Benevolent Sexism	0.11	0.25	1.12		0.21	0.27	1.24		-0.10	0.29	0.91	
Hostile Sexism	-0.17	0.25	0.85		0.04	0.27	1.04		-0.20	0.29	0.82	
Attitudes towards VAW [a]	0.03	0.44	1.03		-0.11	0.50	0.90		0.14	0.53	1.15	
Male	-1.23	0.48	0.29	**	-1.36	0.53	0.26	**	0.14	0.52	1.15	
Heterosexual	-0.40	0.60	0.67		-2.52	1.11	0.08	*	2.12	1.18	8.34	
Hispanic	-0.13	0.42	0.88		0.34	0.47	1.41		-0.47	0.51	0.62	
Black	0.57	0.54	1.77		-0.53	0.53	0.59		1.10	0.61	3.00	
Other	0.83	0.55	2.28		-0.37	0.55	0.69		1.19	0.63	3.30	
Sophomore	-0.24	0.74	0.79		-0.68	0.79	0.50		0.45	0.89	1.56	
Junior	-0.70	0.57	0.50		-0.57	0.67	0.57		-0.13	0.72	0.88	
Senior	-0.49	0.62	0.61		-0.67	0.68	0.51		0.18	0.75	1.20	
Greek/Sports Member	1.10	0.63	3.01		-0.47	0.49	0.63		1.57	0.67	4.81	*
Previous Dating Experience	0.38	0.41	1.47		0.42	0.43	1.53		-0.04	0.48	0.96	
Bystander Int. Part. [b]	0.69	0.70	1.99		15.21	632.55			-14.52	632.55	0.00	
Constant	1.11	0.90	3.04		3.24	1.37	25.58	*	-2.13	1.43	0.12	
Pseudo R^2	0.1222											
F	F(28, 189) = 48.38**											

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

[a] VAW means Violence against Women

[b] means Bystander Intervention Program Participant

Table 22. Multinomial Regression of Bystander Skills on Bystander Intervention

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Dating Violence												
Perceptions of Peers Help	0.18	0.32	1.19		0.32	0.28	1.38		-0.15	0.33	0.86	
Bystander Efficacy	0.12	0.43	1.12		0.55	0.35	1.73		-0.43	0.42	0.65	
Male	-0.97	0.53	0.38		-0.80	0.46	0.45		-0.16	0.53	0.85	
Heterosexual	0.21	0.57	1.23		-2.31	0.82	0.10	**	2.52	0.88	12.41	**
Hispanic	0.42	0.57	1.52		-0.22	0.46	0.80		0.64	0.58	1.90	
Black	-0.63	0.68	0.53		-1.16	0.57	0.31	*	0.53	0.67	1.70	
Other	0.06	0.77	1.06		-0.56	0.61	0.57		0.62	0.79	1.85	
Sophomore	-1.24	0.84	0.29		-0.83	0.69	0.44		-0.41	0.89	0.66	
Junior	-1.01	0.78	0.36		-1.17	0.60	0.31		0.15	0.82	1.17	
Senior	-0.52	0.77	0.59		0.05	0.62	1.05		-0.57	0.83	0.57	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.44	0.59	0.64		0.02	0.54	1.02		-0.46	0.61	0.63	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.61	0.46	0.54		-0.31	0.39	0.73		-0.30	0.48	0.74	
Bystander Intervention Part. [a]	1.94	1.10	6.99		1.20	0.77	3.31		0.75	1.23	2.11	
Constant	0.81	2.18	2.24		-0.03	1.94	0.97		0.84	2.33	2.31	
Pseudo R^2	0.1339											
F	F(26, 171) = 47.46***											
Sexual Violence												
Perceptions of Peers Help	-0.01	0.28	0.99		0.88	0.32	2.40	**	-0.89	0.34	0.41	**
Bystander Efficacy	0.78	0.34	2.19	*	0.80	0.39	2.23	*	-0.02	0.40	0.98	
Male	0.03	0.43	1.03		0.49	0.49	1.62		-0.45	0.52	0.64	
Heterosexual	-0.15	0.43	0.86		-0.92	0.59	0.40		0.77	0.61	2.16	
Hispanic	-0.38	0.40	0.68		0.22	0.49	1.24		-0.60	0.50	0.55	
Black	-0.42	0.49	0.66		-0.14	0.57	0.87		-0.28	0.57	0.76	
Other	0.12	0.51	1.13		0.59	0.67	1.81		-0.47	0.69	0.62	
Sophomore	0.18	0.64	1.20		0.26	0.69	1.29		-0.08	0.75	0.93	
Junior	-0.22	0.56	0.80		0.15	0.62	1.16		-0.37	0.66	0.69	
Senior	-0.23	0.54	0.79		-0.02	0.59	0.98		-0.22	0.63	0.81	
Greek/Sports Member	0.11	0.47	1.12		0.61	0.55	1.85		-0.50	0.57	0.61	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.04	0.35	0.96		0.35	0.40	1.42		-0.39	0.42	0.68	
Bystander Intervention Part. [a]	0.01	0.59	1.01		-0.75	0.64	0.47		0.76	0.67	2.13	
Constant	-2.45	1.58	0.09		-5.66	1.87	0.00	**	3.21	1.91	24.69	
Pseudo R^2	0.0691											
F	F(26, 205) = 30.08											

Table 22 Continued

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
					Stalking							
Perceptions of Peers Help	0.55	0.29	1.74		0.21	0.30	1.23		0.35	0.34	1.41	
Bystander Efficacy	0.87	0.36	2.39	*	0.92	0.43	2.52	*	-0.05	0.43	0.95	
Male	-1.31	0.48	0.27	**	-1.20	0.51	0.30	*	-0.10	0.50	0.90	
Heterosexual	-0.47	0.60	0.62		-2.30	1.10	0.10	*	1.82	1.16	6.20	
Hispanic	-0.12	0.43	0.89		0.41	0.48	1.51		-0.53	0.52	0.59	
Black	0.50	0.55	1.65		-0.66	0.51	0.52		1.16	0.58	3.19	*
Other	0.80	0.57	2.23		-0.55	0.56	0.58		1.35	0.64	3.86	*
Sophomore	0.14	0.77	1.15		-0.51	0.81	0.60		0.65	0.91	1.92	
Junior	-0.44	0.58	0.65		-0.36	0.66	0.69		-0.07	0.71	0.93	
Senior	-0.13	0.63	0.88		-0.55	0.68	0.58		0.42	0.75	1.52	
Greek/Sports Member	1.21	0.65	3.36		-0.08	0.50	0.92		1.29	0.68	3.64	
Previous Dating Experience	0.36	0.43	1.43		0.50	0.44	1.64		-0.14	0.49	0.87	
Bystander Intervention Part. [a]	1.06	0.76	2.89		15.23	651.04			-14.17	651.04	0.00	
Constant	-4.83	2.05	0.01	*	-1.31	2.34	0.27		-3.51	2.49	0.03	
Pseudo R^2	0.1462											
F	F(28, 188) = 57.26***											

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 23. Multinomial Regression of Social Media Usage on Bystander Intervention

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Dating Violence												
# Sites used 4+Days/Week	0.37	0.18	1.44	*	-0.04	0.15	0.96		0.41	0.19	1.50	*
Frequently Updating SM [a]	-0.10	0.48	0.90		0.05	0.42	1.05		-0.15	0.52	0.86	
Male	-0.91	0.55	0.40		-0.87	0.45	0.42		-0.04	0.54	0.96	
Heterosexual	0.29	0.58	1.34		-2.37	0.81	0.09	**	2.66	0.88	14.34	**
Hispanic	0.45	0.57	1.57		-0.15	0.44	0.86		0.60	0.58	1.83	
Black	-0.50	0.69	0.61		-1.13	0.57	0.32	*	0.63	0.68	1.88	
Other	0.18	0.79	1.20		-0.52	0.61	0.59		0.70	0.80	2.02	
Sophomore	-1.64	0.87	0.19		-0.97	0.69	0.38		-0.67	0.91	0.51	
Junior	-1.18	0.81	0.31		-1.24	0.60	0.29	*	0.06	0.84	1.06	
Senior	-0.72	0.79	0.49		-0.03	0.61	0.97		-0.69	0.84	0.50	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.50	0.60	0.61		0.01	0.53	1.01		-0.51	0.62	0.60	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.71	0.47	0.49		-0.34	0.39	0.71		-0.37	0.48	0.69	
Bystander Intervention Part. [b]	2.06	1.10	7.84		1.48	0.76	4.39		0.58	1.25	1.79	
Constant	0.91	1.16	2.49		3.71	1.15	40.83	***	-2.80	1.40	0.06	*
Pseudo R^2	0.1412											
F	F(26, 172) = 50.26**											
Sexual Violence												
# Sites used 4+Days/Week	0.04	0.12	1.04		0.18	0.14	1.19		-0.14	0.15	0.87	
Frequently Updating SM [a]	0.05	0.33	1.05		1.00	0.43	2.71	*	-0.95	0.45	0.39	*
Male	0.11	0.42	1.11		0.31	0.47	1.36		-0.20	0.50	0.82	
Heterosexual	-0.04	0.43	0.96		-0.78	0.57	0.46		0.74	0.60	2.09	
Hispanic	-0.43	0.39	0.65		0.25	0.49	1.29		-0.68	0.51	0.50	
Black	-0.30	0.48	0.74		-0.21	0.56	0.81		-0.09	0.57	0.92	
Other	0.17	0.50	1.18		0.52	0.67	1.69		-0.36	0.69	0.70	
Sophomore	0.12	0.63	1.13		0.03	0.67	1.03		0.09	0.75	1.10	
Junior	-0.15	0.55	0.86		0.02	0.60	1.02		-0.17	0.65	0.84	
Senior	-0.27	0.54	0.77		-0.09	0.59	0.92		-0.18	0.63	0.84	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.10	0.46	0.90		0.30	0.53	1.35		-0.40	0.56	0.67	
Previous Dating Experience	-0.02	0.34	0.98		0.32	0.39	1.38		-0.34	0.42	0.71	
Bystander Intervention Part. [b]	0.15	0.59	1.16		-0.23	0.61	0.79		0.38	0.67	1.47	
Constant	0.48	0.79	1.62		0.10	0.91	1.10		0.39	0.97	1.47	
Pseudo R^2	0.0385											
F	F(26, 205) = 16.75											

Table 23 Continued

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
					Stalking							
# Sites used 4+Days/Week	0.00	0.16	1.00		-0.03	0.18	0.97		0.04	0.19	1.04	
Frequently Updating SM [a]	0.38	0.38	1.47		0.11	0.40	1.12		0.27	0.44	1.31	
Male	-1.23	0.46	0.29	**	-1.26	0.49	0.28	**	0.03	0.49	1.04	
Heterosexual	-0.46	0.56	0.63		-2.31	1.10	0.10	*	1.85	1.16	6.34	
Hispanic	-0.17	0.43	0.84		0.22	0.47	1.24		-0.39	0.51	0.68	
Black	0.58	0.55	1.79		-0.56	0.52	0.57		1.14	0.61	3.14	
Other	0.82	0.54	2.27		-0.33	0.53	0.72		1.15	0.63	3.16	
Sophomore	-0.24	0.72	0.79		-0.81	0.79	0.44		0.57	0.89	1.77	
Junior	-0.68	0.55	0.51		-0.60	0.64	0.55		-0.08	0.70	0.92	
Senior	-0.47	0.60	0.63		-0.80	0.66	0.45		0.34	0.74	1.40	
Greek/Sports Member	1.26	0.61	3.51	*	-0.21	0.47	0.81		1.47	0.65	4.34	*
Previous Dating Experience	0.32	0.41	1.38		0.35	0.43	1.42		-0.03	0.48	0.97	
Bystander Intervention Part. [b]	0.72	0.69	2.06		15.86	999.13			-15.14	999.13	0.00	
Constant	0.97	1.01	2.63		3.73	1.48	41.49	*	-2.76	1.59	0.06	
Pseudo R^2	0.1184											
F	F(26, 192) = 47.37**											

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 24. Multinomial Regression of Victimization on Bystander Intervention

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Dating Violence												
DV Victimization [a]	-0.35	0.64	0.71		0.15	0.49	1.16		-0.50	0.63	0.61	
SV Victimization [b]	-0.29	0.57	0.75		-0.06	0.50	0.94		-0.23	0.59	0.79	
Stalking Victimization	-0.34	0.52	0.71		-0.51	0.47	0.60		0.16	0.55	1.18	
Male	-1.20	0.56	0.30	*	-0.96	0.47	0.38	*	-0.25	0.55	0.78	
Heterosexual	-0.01	0.58	0.99		-2.42	0.82	0.09	**	2.41	0.88	11.13	**
Hispanic	0.46	0.56	1.58		-0.15	0.45	0.86		0.60	0.57	1.82	
Black	-0.81	0.69	0.45		-1.16	0.58	0.31	*	0.36	0.67	1.43	
Other	0.01	0.78	1.01		-0.49	0.61	0.61		0.51	0.79	1.66	
Sophomore	-1.36	0.87	0.26		-1.02	0.68	0.36		-0.34	0.89	0.71	
Junior	-1.16	0.80	0.31		-1.33	0.60	0.26	*	0.17	0.83	1.19	
Senior	-0.53	0.79	0.59		-0.06	0.62	0.94		-0.47	0.83	0.63	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.50	0.61	0.60		0.03	0.54	1.03		-0.53	0.62	0.59	
Prev. Dating Exp.	-0.56	0.47	0.57		-0.31	0.39	0.73		-0.25	0.48	0.78	
Bystander Int. Part.	2.35	1.13	10.52	*	1.60	0.79	4.94	*	0.76	1.25	2.13	
Constant	2.84	1.10	17.18	**	3.82	1.08	45.65	***	-0.98	1.33	0.38	
Pseudo R^2	0.1325											
F	F(28, 172) = 47.16*											
Sexual Violence												
DV Victimization [a]	-0.65	0.47	0.52		-0.10	0.53	0.90		-0.55	0.53	0.58	
SV Victimization [b]	0.58	0.41	1.79		0.32	0.46	1.38		0.26	0.49	1.29	
Stalking Victimization	0.92	0.44	2.50	*	0.48	0.48	1.62		0.43	0.50	1.54	
Male	0.35	0.43	1.42		0.41	0.47	1.51		-0.06	0.51	0.94	
Heterosexual	0.07	0.43	1.08		-0.74	0.57	0.48		0.81	0.59	2.24	
Hispanic	-0.40	0.40	0.67		0.23	0.48	1.26		-0.62	0.49	0.54	
Black	-0.19	0.49	0.83		0.07	0.56	1.07		-0.26	0.57	0.77	
Other	0.17	0.51	1.19		0.59	0.65	1.80		-0.41	0.68	0.66	
Sophomore	0.21	0.65	1.24		0.14	0.67	1.15		0.08	0.75	1.08	
Junior	0.02	0.57	1.02		0.20	0.60	1.23		-0.19	0.65	0.83	
Senior	-0.08	0.55	0.92		-0.01	0.58	0.99		-0.08	0.64	0.92	
Greek/Sports Member	-0.25	0.47	0.78		0.23	0.53	1.25		-0.48	0.56	0.62	
Prev. Dating Exp.	-0.06	0.35	0.94		0.24	0.39	1.27		-0.30	0.41	0.74	
Bystander Int. Part.	-0.03	0.60	0.97		-0.58	0.61	0.56		0.56	0.66	1.74	
Constant	0.08	0.70	1.08		0.54	0.82	1.72		-0.46	0.86	0.63	
Pseudo R^2	0.0416											
F	F(28, 205) = 18.12											

Table 24 Continued

	Yes v Maybe				Yes v No				No v Maybe			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
					Stalking							
DV Victimization [a]	-0.21	0.49	0.81		-0.15	0.55	0.86		-0.07	0.58	0.93	
SV Victimization [b]	1.18	0.45	3.26	**	0.73	0.47	2.07		0.45	0.53	1.58	
Stalking Victimization	0.11	0.42	1.12		-0.48	0.45	0.62		0.59	0.50	1.81	
Male	-0.74	0.49	0.48		-1.03	0.52	0.36	*	0.28	0.53	1.33	
Heterosexual	-0.23	0.58	0.80		-2.20	1.10	0.11	*	1.97	1.16	7.16	
Hispanic	-0.14	0.43	0.87		0.27	0.47	1.30		-0.40	0.51	0.67	
Black	0.60	0.54	1.82		-0.55	0.50	0.58		1.14	0.59	3.14	
Other	1.02	0.56	2.78		-0.19	0.55	0.82		1.22	0.64	3.38	
Sophomore	-0.11	0.75	0.89		-0.70	0.79	0.50		0.59	0.90	1.80	
Junior	-0.72	0.57	0.49		-0.64	0.65	0.52		-0.08	0.72	0.93	
Senior	-0.44	0.61	0.64		-0.73	0.67	0.48		0.29	0.75	1.33	
Greek/Sports Member	1.33	0.63	3.79	*	-0.18	0.49	0.83		1.51	0.67	4.55	*
Prev. Dating Exp.	0.34	0.42	1.41		0.37	0.43	1.44		-0.03	0.48	0.97	
Bystander Int. Part.	0.71	0.73	2.03		15.48	905.83			-14.77	905.83	0.00	
Constant	0.28	0.83	1.33		3.39	1.31	29.69	**	-3.11	1.39	0.04	*
Pseudo R^2	0.1421											
F	F(28, 192) = 56.86***											

[a] DV means Dating Violence Victimization

[b] SV means Sexual Violence Victimization

Table 25. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on Any Victimization

	Model 1 Dating Violence				Model 2 Sexual Violence				Model 3 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.67	0.27	1.95	*				
Friends	0.70	0.29	2.01	*					0.68	0.23	1.98	**
Sports					-0.72	0.27	0.49	**				
Email	-0.47	0.29	0.63									
Searching Info Online									-0.66	0.24	0.52	**
Pursue Friend									0.66	0.21	1.93	**
Social Media Acquaintance	0.86	0.25	2.37	***	0.82	0.21	2.27	***	1.00	0.21	2.73	***
Computer Friend					0.64	0.23	1.90	**				
Computer Acquaintance	0.95	0.32	2.59	**								
Male	-0.60	0.26	0.55	*	-1.45	0.26	0.23	***	-0.91	0.25	0.40	***
Heterosexual	-0.58	0.36	0.56		-0.46	0.29	0.63		-0.35	0.28	0.71	
Hispanic	0.00	0.27	1.00		-0.20	0.24	0.82		0.12	0.24	1.13	
Black	-0.41	0.33	0.66		-0.47	0.29	0.62		0.03	0.29	1.03	
Other Race	-0.26	0.34	0.77		-0.36	0.31	0.70		0.28	0.31	1.33	
Veteran	-0.50	0.54	0.61		0.92	0.54	2.51		-0.77	0.57	0.46	
Sophomore	0.15	0.42	1.16		-0.34	0.38	0.71		0.33	0.37	1.39	
Junior	0.10	0.34	1.11		-0.12	0.32	0.88		-0.12	0.31	0.88	
Senior	0.70	0.36	2.00		-0.16	0.32	0.86		0.23	0.31	1.26	
Greek Member	0.05	0.36	1.05		-0.39	0.32	0.68		-0.26	0.30	0.77	
Sports Team Member	0.52	0.60	1.68		0.47	0.50	1.60		-0.14	0.46	0.87	
Constant	0.90	0.46	2.45	0.050	0.56	0.38	1.74		-0.41	0.39	0.67	
Pseudo R^2	0.1339				0.1559				0.1317			
	N=491				N=491				N=491			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(4)=45.81$***				LR $Chi^2(4)=41.47$***				LR $Chi^2(4)=54.58$***			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 26. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on In-Person Victimization

	Model 4 Dating Violence				Model 5 Sexual Violence				Model 6 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.83	0.26	2.29	***				
Friends	0.61	0.26	1.84	*					0.69	0.25	2.00	**
Sports					-0.62	0.28	0.54	*				
Social Media									-0.75	0.26	0.47	**
Searching Info Online									-0.62	0.26	0.54	*
Drunk Friend									-0.65	0.34	0.52	
Drunk Acquaintance									0.81	0.26	2.24	**
Violence Acquaintance					0.53	0.22	1.69	*				
Pursue Friend									0.58	0.23	1.78	**
Social Media Acquaintance	0.96	0.24	2.62	***	0.78	0.22	2.17	***				
Computer Friend					0.54	0.22	1.71	*				
Computer Acquaintance	0.81	0.29	2.25	**					0.66	0.23	1.94	**
Male	-0.54	0.25	0.58	*	-1.24	0.28	0.29	***	-1.83	0.31	0.16	***
Heterosexual	-0.38	0.33	0.68		-0.57	0.28	0.57	*	-0.40	0.28	0.67	
Hispanic	-0.07	0.26	0.94		-0.13	0.24	0.88		-0.09	0.25	0.91	
Black	-0.30	0.31	0.74		-0.37	0.30	0.69		0.37	0.31	1.44	
Other Race	-0.22	0.32	0.80		0.00	0.31	1.00		0.62	0.32	1.85	
Veteran	-0.50	0.52	0.60		0.63	0.53	1.87		-0.74	0.72	0.48	
Sophomore	-0.10	0.39	0.90		-0.24	0.37	0.78		0.53	0.38	1.71	
Junior	0.25	0.33	1.29		-0.18	0.31	0.83		-0.05	0.32	0.95	
Senior	0.88	0.34	2.41	*	-0.08	0.32	0.92		-0.15	0.33	0.86	
Greek Member	-0.02	0.35	0.98		-0.19	0.32	0.82		0.09	0.31	1.09	
Sports Team Member	0.49	0.56	1.63		0.83	0.51	2.29		0.25	0.49	1.29	
Constant	0.32	0.42	1.37		-0.28	0.38	0.75		-0.40	0.40	0.67	
Pseudo R^2	0.1296				0.1508				0.1746			
	N=491				N=491				N=491			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(3)=48.54$***				LR $Chi^2(5)=53.36$***				LR $Chi^2(7)=54.10$***			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 27. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on Cyber Victimization

	Model 7 Dating Violence				Model 8 Sexual Violence				Model 9 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.57	0.26	1.77	*				
School Orgs.	-0.54	0.31	0.58									
Email					-0.88	0.26	0.42	***				
Shopping Online									-0.63	0.26	0.53	*
Violence Acquaintance	0.86	0.21	2.37	***					0.55	0.21	1.73	**
Social Media Acquaintance	0.74	0.21	2.11	***	0.62	0.22	1.87	**	0.94	0.23	2.57	***
Computer Friend					0.67	0.23	1.96	**	0.64	0.22	1.89	**
Male	-0.59	0.26	0.56	*	-1.72	0.31	0.18	***	-0.44	0.26	0.65	
Heterosexual	-0.45	0.27	0.64		-0.60	0.28	0.55	*	-0.10	0.27	0.91	
Hispanic	0.01	0.24	1.01		-0.41	0.25	0.67		-0.05	0.24	0.95	
Black	-0.05	0.30	0.95		-0.48	0.31	0.62		-0.16	0.30	0.86	
Other Race	-0.22	0.31	0.80		-0.56	0.33	0.57		0.48	0.30	1.62	
Veteran	-0.86	0.60	0.42		0.64	0.57	1.89		-1.21	0.68	0.30	
Sophomore	0.25	0.38	1.28		-0.64	0.39	0.53		0.07	0.37	1.07	
Junior	0.29	0.32	1.33		-0.32	0.32	0.73		0.00	0.32	1.00	
Senior	0.54	0.33	1.72		-0.39	0.32	0.68		0.41	0.32	1.51	
Greek Member	0.32	0.36	1.38		-0.22	0.33	0.80		0.05	0.30	1.05	
Sports Team Member	-0.66	0.56	0.52		-1.09	0.56	0.34		-0.20	0.47	0.82	
Constant	-0.93	0.38	0.39	*	0.47	0.39	1.59		-1.31	0.40	0.27	***
Pseudo R^2	0.0986				0.1626				0.1166			
	N=491				N=491				N=491			
	LR $Chi^2(3)=38.58$***				LR $Chi^2(4)=38.05$***				LR $Chi^2(4)=57.75$***			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 28. Logistic Regression of Motivated Offender Variables on Any Victimization

	Model 10 Dating Violence [a]			Model 11 Sexual Violence			Model 12 Stalking [a]		
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
Attitudes towards VAW [b]				-0.45	0.16	0.64 **			
Male	-0.63	0.22	0.53 **	-1.47	0.24	0.23 ***	-0.80	0.21	0.45 ***
Heterosexual	-0.58	0.30	0.56	-0.65	0.26	0.52 *	-0.52	0.24	0.59 *
Hispanic	-0.15	0.22	0.86	-0.27	0.21	0.76	-0.10	0.20	0.91
Black	-0.55	0.26	0.58 *	-0.40	0.25	0.67	-0.33	0.24	0.73
Other Race	-0.23	0.28	0.80	-0.36	0.28	0.70	0.10	0.26	1.10
Veteran	-0.53	0.47	0.59	0.97	0.50	2.65	-0.69	0.54	0.50
Sophomore	-0.07	0.34	0.94	-0.20	0.33	0.82	0.03	0.31	.97
Junior	0.21	0.29	1.23	0.00	0.28	1.00	-0.35	0.27	0.70
Senior	0.44	0.30	1.56	0.00	0.28	1.00	-0.08	0.27	0.92
Greek Member	0.31	0.31	1.37	-0.09	0.28	0.91	0.06	0.26	1.06
Sports Team Member	0.47	0.46	1.61	0.58	0.43	1.78	0.35	0.39	1.41
Constant	1.55	0.37	4.71 ***	1.84	0.43	6.31 ***	0.80	0.32	2.22 *
Pseudo R^2	0.0388			0.1006			0.0407		
	N=567			N=567			N=567		
				LR $Chi^2(1)=7.65$**					

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] Final models were not significant, only control variables presented

[b] VAW means Violence against Women

Table 29. Logistic Regression of Motivated Offender Variables on In-Person Victimization

	Model 13 Dating Violence [a]				Model 14 Sexual Violence [a]				Model 15 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Attitudes towards VAW [b]									-0.39	0.17	0.68	*
Male	-0.63	0.21	0.53	**	-1.41	0.25	0.24	***	-1.34	0.27	0.26	***
Heterosexual	-0.43	0.28	0.65		-0.70	0.24	0.50	**	-0.64	0.24	0.53	**
Hispanic	-0.18	0.22	0.84		-0.16	0.21	0.85		-0.23	0.22	0.79	
Black	-0.37	0.26	0.69	*	-0.45	0.25	0.64		-0.16	0.26	0.85	
Other Race	-0.20	0.28	0.82		-0.19	0.28	0.82		0.41	0.28	1.50	
Veteran	-0.44	0.46	0.64		0.57	0.50	1.76		-0.40	0.67	0.67	
Sophomore	-0.18	0.32	0.84		-0.10	0.33	0.91		0.07	0.33	1.08	
Junior	0.33	0.28	1.38		0.03	0.28	1.03		-0.32	0.29	0.72	
Senior	0.57	0.29	1.76		0.10	0.28	1.11		-0.25	0.29	0.78	
Greek Member	0.30	0.30	1.36		0.03	0.27	1.03		0.26	0.28	1.30	
Sports Team Member	0.45	0.44	1.57		0.47	0.41	1.60		0.75	0.42	2.12	
Constant	1.17	0.35	3.23	***	0.56	0.32	1.75		1.07	0.42	2.92	*
Pseudo R^2	0.0380				.0701				0.0843			
	N=567				N=567				N=567			
									LR $Chi^2(1)=5.38$*			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] Final models were not significant, only control variables presented

[b] VAW means Violence against Women

Table 30. Logistic Regression of Motivated Offender Variables on Cyber Victimization

	Model 16 Dating Violence [a]			Model 17 Sexual Violence [a]			Model 18 Stalking [a]		
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
Male	-0.56	0.24	0.57 *	-1.58	0.28	0.21 ***	-0.46	0.22	0.63 *
Heterosexual	-0.54	0.24	0.58 *	-0.70	0.25	0.50 **	-0.33	0.24	0.72
Hispanic	0.16	0.22	1.17	-0.41	0.23	0.67	-0.01	0.21	0.99
Black	-0.22	0.26	0.80	-0.77	0.27	0.46 **	-0.29	0.26	0.75
Other Race	-0.35	0.28	0.70	-0.59	0.30	0.56 *	0.22	0.26	1.24
Veteran	-0.51	0.58	0.60	0.57	0.53	1.77	-1.06	0.64	0.35
Sophomore	-0.06	0.35	0.95	-0.67	0.35	0.51	-0.06	0.32	0.94
Junior	0.13	0.30	1.14	-0.28	0.29	0.76	-0.08	0.28	0.93
Senior	0.42	0.29	1.52	-0.26	0.29	0.77	0.30	0.28	1.35
Greek Member	0.19	0.27	1.21	0.09	0.28	1.10	0.16	0.26	1.17
Sports Team Member	-0.47	0.45	0.62	-0.44	0.47	0.64	0.12	0.39	1.13
Constant	-0.33	0.33	0.72	0.85	0.33	2.34 **	-0.21	0.31	0.81
Pseudo R^2	0.0309			0.0966			0.0251		
	N=569			N=569			N=569		

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] Final models were not significant, only control variables presented

Table 31. Logistic Regression of Capable Guardianship Variables on Any Victimization

	Model 19 Dating Violence				Model 20 Sexual Violence				Model 21 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily					-0.40	0.19	0.67	*				
Total Friends on SM [a]	0.07	0.03	1.07	*					0.06	0.02	1.06	*
Meet New People SM [a]					0.21	0.09	1.23	*				
Bystander Efficacy					0.42	0.17	1.53	*				
Bystander Int. Participant [b]	0.71	0.39	2.02		1.02	0.35	2.77	**				
Male	-0.57	0.22	0.57	**	-1.71	0.25	0.18	***	-0.77	0.22	0.46	***
Heterosexual	-0.56	0.31	0.57		-0.58	0.27	0.56	*	-0.53	0.25	0.59	*
Hispanic	-0.12	0.23	0.89		-0.19	0.22	0.83		-0.09	0.21	0.91	
Black	-0.56	0.26	0.57	*	-0.53	0.26	0.59	*	-0.37	0.25	0.69	
Other Race	-0.23	0.29	0.80		-0.38	0.28	0.69		0.12	0.26	1.12	
Veteran	-0.52	0.47	0.60		0.91	0.50	2.48		-0.68	0.54	0.51	
Sophomore	-0.04	0.34	0.96		-0.13	0.34	0.87		-0.05	0.32	0.95	
Junior	0.22	0.30	1.24		0.06	0.29	1.06		-0.39	0.27	0.68	
Senior	0.44	0.30	1.56		0.11	0.29	1.12		-0.09	0.28	0.92	
Greek Member	0.07	0.32	1.07		-0.13	0.29	0.88		-0.02	0.27	0.98	
Sports Team Member	0.33	0.47	1.39		0.28	0.42	1.33		0.26	0.40	1.30	
Constant	1.05	0.40	2.86	**	-1.47	0.86	0.23		0.46	0.35	1.58	
Pseudo R^2	0.0526				0.1227				0.0501			
	N=561				N=561				N=561			
	LR $Chi^2(2)=9.96$**				LR $Chi^2(4)=24.98$***				LR $Chi^2(1)=6.03$*			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] SM means Social Media

[b] Bystander Intervention Program Participant

Table 32. Logistic Regression of Capable Guardianship Variables on In-Person Victimization

	Model 22 Dating Violence				Model 23 Sexual Violence				Model 24 Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily					-0.42	0.19	0.66	*				
Total Friends on SM [a]	0.08	0.03	1.07	**								
Meet New People SM [a]					0.19	0.10	1.20					
Residence less Guarded	0.47	0.21	1.39	*								
Perceptions of Peers Helping									0.14	2.04	1.01	*
Bystander Int. Participant [b]	0.73	0.38	2.02		0.86	0.31	2.36	**	0.66	0.31	1.50	*
Male	-0.57	0.22	0.56	**	-1.46	0.26	0.23	***	-1.45	0.27	0.44	***
Heterosexual	-0.41	0.29	0.58		-0.60	0.25	0.55	*	-0.54	0.25	0.63	*
Hispanic	-0.15	0.22	0.88		-0.12	0.22	0.89		-0.23	0.23	0.88	
Black	-0.43	0.26	0.56		-0.49	0.26	0.61		-0.29	0.26	0.70	
Other Race	-0.17	0.28	0.82		-0.14	0.28	0.87		0.44	0.28	1.18	
Veteran	-0.57	0.47	0.54		0.64	0.50	1.89		-0.40	0.66	0.51	
Sophomore	-0.31	0.34	0.86		-0.07	0.34	0.93		0.06	0.33	0.94	
Junior	0.15	0.30	1.08		0.05	0.29	1.05		-0.30	0.29	0.68	
Senior	0.32	0.32	1.30		0.12	0.29	1.13		-0.28	0.29	0.89	
Greek Member	-0.01	0.31	1.04		-0.01	0.28	0.99		0.20	0.28	1.07	
Sports Team Member	0.33	0.45	1.43		0.32	0.42	1.38		0.74	0.41	1.50	
Constant	0.54	0.39	2.75		-0.18	0.54	0.83		-0.81	0.65	1.99	
Pseudo R^2	0.0636				0.0908				0.0924			
	N=561				N=561				N=561			
	LR $Chi^2(3)=18.81$***				LR $Chi^2(3)=16.04$****				LR $Chi^2(2)=9.27$*			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] SM means Social Media

[b] Bystander Intervention Program Participant

Table 33. Logistic Regression of Capable Guardianship Variables on Cyber Victimization

	Model 25 Dating Violence				Model 26 Sexual Violence				Model 27 Stalking [a]			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Meet New People SM [b]					0.21	0.10	1.24	*				
Bystander Efficacy					0.40	0.18	1.49	*				
Bystander Int. Participant [c]	0.70	0.30	2.01	*	1.07	0.33	2.91	***				
Male	-0.58	0.24	0.56	*	-1.63	0.29	0.20	***	-0.47	0.22	0.63	*
Heterosexual	-0.44	0.25	0.64		-0.61	0.26	0.54	*	-0.28	0.24	0.75	
Hispanic	0.17	0.22	1.19		-0.40	0.23	0.67		-0.07	0.21	0.93	
Black	-0.26	0.27	0.77		-0.86	0.28	0.42	**	-0.34	0.26	0.71	
Other Race	-0.31	0.29	0.73		-0.50	0.31	0.61		0.26	0.26	1.29	
Veteran	-0.51	0.58	0.60		0.71	0.53	2.03		-1.06	0.64	0.35	
Sophomore	-0.08	0.35	0.92		-0.61	0.36	0.54		-0.10	0.33	0.90	
Junior	0.11	0.30	1.12		-0.24	0.30	0.79		-0.09	0.28	0.91	
Senior	0.38	0.30	1.46		-0.18	0.30	0.84		0.25	0.28	1.29	
Greek Member	0.16	0.28	1.18		-0.01	0.30	0.99		0.23	0.27	1.26	
Sports Team Member	-0.40	0.46	0.67		-0.21	0.47	0.81		0.20	0.40	1.22	
Constant	-0.46	0.34	0.63		-1.92	0.92	0.15	*	-0.20	0.32	0.82	
Pseudo R^2	0.0384				0.1252				0.0259			
	N=561				N=561				N=561			
F	LR $Chi^2(1)=5.44$*				LR $Chi^2(3)=21.07$***							

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

[a] Final models were not significant, only control variables presented

[b] SM means Social Media

[c] Bystander Intervention Program Participant

Table 34. Summary of Routine Activities Theory Variables

	Dating Violence			Sexual Violence			Stalking		
	Any	In-Person	Cyber	Any	In-Person	Cyber	Any	In-Person	Cyber
Target Suitability									
Restaurant									
Bar				+	+	+			
Parties									
School Organizations			ns						
Friends	+	+					+	+	
Shopping									
Sports				-	-				
School									
Work									
Email	ns					-			
Social Media								-	
Shopping Online									-
Chatting Online									
Searching Info Online							-	-	
Drink in Bars									
Drink at Fraternity Parties									
Drink at Parties									
Drunk Friend								ns	
Drunk Acquaintance								+	
Violence Friend									
Violence Acquaintance			+		+				+
Pursue Friend							+	+	
Pursue Acquaintance									
Social Media Friend			+						
Social Media Acquaintance	+	+		+	+	+	+		+
Computer Friend				+	+	+			+
Computer Acquaintance	+	+						+	
Social Media Intensity									
Motivated Offenders									
Attitudes towards VAW				-				-	
Benevolent Sexism									
Hostile Sexism									
Capable Guardianship									
Talk Parents Daily				-	-				
Friends w/Parents on SM									
Family Support									
Friend Support									
Total Friends on SM	+	+					+		
# Close Friends									
Meet New People SM				+	ns	+			
SM Restrictions									
SM Location Checkin									
Residence less Guarded		+							
Perceptions of Peers Helping								+	
Bystander Efficacy				+		+			
Bystander Int. Participant	+	ns	+	+	+	+		+	

ns = included in final model but not significant

CHAPTER 7:

DISCUSSION

The proceeding chapters have discussed the nature and extent of violence against college women, routine activities theory (RAT) and the related applications of feminist and cyber RAT and bystander intervention in violence. The current study, which employed a quantitative web-based survey, was presented. This chapter explores in more detail some of the key findings presented in Chapter 6. In addition, policy implications, limitations, and directions for future research are also discussed. The chapter will proceed as follows. First, key findings of each of the research goals are summarized. Within this, directions for future research will be examined. Next, policy implications will be discussed. Lastly, limitations of the current study will be explained.

Key Findings from Research Goal 1

Research Goal 1 sought to contribute to the bystander intervention research by examining when and how college students were willing to intervene in different types of cyber violence against women. In order to achieve this goal, descriptive analyses explored how study participants would intervene in cyber victimization and multivariate analyses examined what factors were related to intention to intervene. Though increasing, relatively few studies have examined college students' intervention tactics in cyber violence against women. While the current study built on bystander intervention research generally and cyber bystander research

more specifically there are several areas that future researchers should continue to explore. These areas will be discussed throughout this section.

While research on the types of intervention employed by bystanders is lacking, the current study finds support for previous studies that have found that direct intervention is preferred by bystanders. For example, McMahon and colleagues (2013) found that participants were more likely to intervene directly after sexual violence had occurred. In addition, Palmer and colleagues (2018) found that bystanders were more likely to intervene directly when they knew the victim or perpetrator. Within the current study, participants indicated that they were most likely to intervene by direct intervention, though the percentage who would intervene directly varied across the scenarios. About 60% of participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario stated that they would intervene directly and 70% and 74% who viewed the dating violence and stalking scenarios respectively would intervene directly. Within the forms of direct intervention, talking to the victim was the most likely way to intervene. Participants were more likely to indicate that they would talk to the victim in person instead of using technology. These findings are similar to findings by McMahon and colleagues (2013) that found that within direct intervention, bystanders were more likely to intervene using assertive actions directed at a certain target or behavior. While the current study used vignette to explore intervention intentions, future research should explore actual intervention in cyber victimization that people see. Today, people are likely to witness and experience cyber victimization (Duggan et al., 2014). However, few reported that they would intervene. Bystander intervention programs should teach about the importance and impact of cyber victimization and offer ways to intervene.

Within the direct forms of intervention, the current study found that there was a preference to intervene by talking with the victim and not the perpetrator. Given that researchers

have found that knowing the victim and perpetrator may impact victimization, future research should manipulate who is known to the bystander. Though studying in-person victimization, Nicksa (2014) found that college students were more likely to report witnessing a crime if the offender was a stranger and not a good friend. However, Katz and colleagues (2015) found that bystanders were more likely to intervene in sexual assault with the victim was a friend and not a stranger. Within the current study, participants were likely to intervene by helping the victim who was portrayed as a friend to study participants. Future research should explore differences in willingness to intervene and the ways that bystander would intervene if they knew the perpetrator and not the victim.

In addition, the current study found that few participants would intervene by using technology. At first glance, this seems surprising given that the victimization presented occurred entirely online. Across the three scenarios, about 20% of participants who viewed the dating violence scenario and about 35% of participants who viewed the sexual violence and stalking scenarios indicated that they would intervene by using technology. The most common way to intervene using technology was by talking to the victim. Participants who viewed the dating violence and stalking scenarios were less likely to respond on the posts or report the post to Facebook than participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario. These findings are similar to research by Hayes (2019) that found that about one-third of participants who viewed cyber stalking scenarios indicated they would intervene using technology. Though young adults are increasingly spending more time online (Smith & Anderson, 2018), there seems to be a preference for intervening in serious matters in-person. Future research should explore why there was a preference for in-person intervention when victimization occurred entirely online. Qualitative research may be better suited to study why these findings exist. Though a broad

range of options for intervention were given, qualitative research should be conducted to determine more broadly how bystanders would intervene. Differences in online and offline intervention should be explored in more detail.

Turning attention to multivariate bystander analysis, several findings deserve discussion. As expected, there was support for Hypothesis 2a, participants who viewed the victim as needing more support and protection were more likely to intervene. While there was strong support for emotional support being related to a greater likelihood of intervention, there was less support for physical protection being related to bystander intervention. Assessments of the victim's need for physical protection was only significant in the dating violence scenario. Participants who believed that the victim needed more physical protection were more likely to say yes and no to intervention, versus maybe. These findings may be reflective of characteristics related to the scenarios and of study participants. Regarding the scenario, as evidenced by the increased likelihood of intervention these findings are an indication that participants viewed the dating violence scenario as one that was severe and requiring intervention. However, previous research on barriers to intervention may shed light as to why bystanders were also less likely to intervene. One potential barrier that may have increased the likelihood of not intervening is that participants failed to take responsibility to intervene. Burn (2009) highlights three potential reasons why individuals may not take the responsibility to intervene, diffusion of responsibility, the relationship of bystander to the potential victim and perpetrator, and victim worthiness. While a diffusion of responsibility may account for the lack of intervention, the relationship with the bystander and potential victim and perpetrator would not be applicable in this study. Previous research has found that when a bystander knows the victim or perpetrator intervention is more

likely (Nicksa, 2014; Palmer et al., 2018). However, the lack of intervention may have been to attributions of worthiness.

Contrary to Hypothesis 2b, viewing the perpetrator's behavior as threatening was not related to intervention intentions in any of the three scenarios. Sensitivity analyses were conducted removing characterizations of the victim and only including the belief that the perpetrator's behavior was threatening. These analyses presented several significant findings. First, within the dating violence scenario, participants who indicated yes versus maybe or yes versus no were more likely to indicate that they would intervene. For the sexual violence scenario, participants who viewed the perpetrator's behavior as more threatening were more likely to indicate they would intervene versus maybe intervene, while participants who viewed the stalking scenario were more likely to indicate yes versus no intervention. These findings suggest that while characterizations of the perpetrator's behavior are important they are minimized after adding in characterizations of the victim. This may have been because of the methodology employed in the study. The current study told participants that they were friends with the victim. Previous research has shown that bystander are more likely to help those that are known to them (Palmer et al., 2018). Future research should investigate how these findings compare when the perpetrator is known to bystanders.

There was little support for Hypothesis 3a, which assessed the relationship of attitudes that supported violence against women and bystander intervention. Attitudes about violence against women were largely unrelated to bystander intervention. Only within the dating violence scenario was the acceptance of violence against women related to a decrease in the likelihood of intervening. In addition, across all three scenarios benevolent and hostile sexism were not related to bystander intervention. This is surprising as research has consistently found that those who

endorse negative attitudes about violence against women are less likely to intervene in dating and sexual violence. For example, McMahon (2010) found that participants who endorsed rape myths were less likely to intervene. However, recent research suggests that the link between the acceptance of attitudes supporting violence against women is not as clear cut as one thought. While Hayes (2019) found that the acceptance of adversarial heterosexual beliefs was related to a lower likelihood of intervening in less severe forms of cyber stalking, she also found that endorsement of adversarial heterosexual beliefs was related to a stronger likelihood of not intervening in the most severe cyber stalking scenario presented to study participants. Within Hayes' (2019) study, participants who endorsed adversarial heterosexual beliefs more strongly were also less likely to say that they would talk to or offer support to the victim in the scenario and participants who endorsed more traditional gender role stereotypes were less likely to call for assistance after viewing the most severe form of cyber stalking. These findings may be an indication that our measures to assess attitudes towards violence need to be updated. Realizing this, McMahon and Farmer (2011) addressed subtle rape myths and the need to change how rape myths are measured. This need may be even more pronounced today as there have been recent changes to our society in regards to the acceptance of violence against women, such as the gaining popularity of the #metoo movement. Future research should continue to explore how these societal attitudes have changed and determine measures for best assessing a person's beliefs.

As hypothesized in Hypothesis 3b, attitudes related to bystander intervention were related to increased levels of intervention in the sexual violence and stalking scenarios. However, these attitudes were not related to intervention in the dating violence scenario. Participants who believed their peers would intervene were more likely to intervene in the sexual violence

scenario. In addition, participants who rated themselves as higher in bystander efficacy were more likely to intervene in the sexual violence and stalking scenarios. These findings are consistent with previous research that has examined bystander intervention in in-person violence against women (Banyard et al., 2007a; Labhardt, Holdsworth, Brown, & Howat, 2017).

Contrary to Hypothesis 4a and 4b, social media usage and victimization were largely unrelated to bystander intervention. Social media usage was unrelated to intervention in the stalking scenario. Within the dating violence scenario, the number of social media sites used four or more days per week was related to intervention and non-intervention versus maybe intervening. For each additional site used four or more days per week, participants were about 50% more and less likely to intervene in the dating violence scenario. These findings seem at odds with each other. One the one hand participants who use social media more often are more likely to say that they will intervene, while on the other hand participants who use social media more often are also less likely to say that they would intervene. As previously mentioned, participants who indicated that they would intervene serves as an indication that participants viewed the scenario as one that required intervention. Meanwhile, the lack of intervention may be due to desensitization. Participants who spend more time on social media may be more likely to experience a failure to recognize the scenario as one that needs intervention. In addition, the dating violence scenario is the only scenario where there was a positive relationship between yes and no intervention versus maybe intervention. These findings may be an indication of the perceived risk of negative consequences for intervening in dating violence. In examining consequences after intervention in real-world dating violence, sexual violence and stalking Kraus and colleagues (2018) found that over 15% of those who had intervened experienced an adverse consequence.

In addition, victimization was largely unrelated to bystander intervention intentions. Across the three scenarios, experiencing the type of victimization that corresponded to the vignette that participants viewed was unrelated to bystander intervention. For example, dating violence victimization was unrelated to intervention in dating violence. However, sexual violence and stalking victimization were related to an increased likelihood of intervention in the opposite scenarios (i.e., sexual violence significantly related to intervention in stalking scenario). While it was hypothesized that victimization would decrease the likelihood of intervention, the results did not support this. Generally, victimization was not related to bystander intervention, and when it was related it increased the likelihood of intervention. However, very few studies have examined the impact of victimization on bystander intervention. The current study builds on research regarding intervention and attitudes towards acceptance. For example, Carmody and Washington (2001) did not find any differences in the acceptance of rape myths by victims and non-victims of sexual violence. The current study provides evidence that researchers should examine a broad range of victimization. The relationship between victimization and intervention may not be linear. Future research should continue to examine victimization in order to gain a greater understanding of the impact on intervention.

Hypothesis 5 posited that there would be differences in intervention intentions across the three different scenarios. This hypothesis was largely supported. While there was some similarity across the three scenarios, such as the victim needing emotional support being related to yes versus maybe intervention for all three vignettes, differences emerged. For example, the victim needing physical protection was only significant in the dating violence scenario.

Two control variables were significant across the different models and warrant further discussion. First, contrary to prior studies (Banyard et al., 2007a; McMahon, 2010), gender was

not consistently related to bystander intervention. In examining only control variables, gender was related to intervention in the stalking scenario, but not the dating or sexual violence scenarios. Within the stalking scenario, men were less likely to intervene. Recent research has found that the relationship between gender and bystander intervention may not be as clear cut as once thought. For example, Hayes (2019) found that though women generally were more likely to intervene in cyber stalking, there were no gender differences for several different types of intervention used. Within the most severe cyber stalking scenario analyzed, there were no gender differences in participants willingness to talk to or offer support to the victim or do nothing. Furthermore, Aiello (2018) did not find any gender differences in bystander intervention intentions when examining 16 different types of crime. Taken together, these studies and the current project may be an indication that gender differences which have been previously found in intervention of sexual violence may not persist to other forms of violence. Future research should continue to analyze the impact of gender on intervention among a broad range of crime types. One potential reason for this are differences in prevalence rates. For example, though sexual violence affects both men and women, it affects women at a higher rate than men when compared to intimate partner violence and stalking victimization (Breiding, 2014).

While gender was largely unrelated to bystander intervention, sexual orientation was related to bystander intervention. Across the three vignettes, participants who identified as heterosexual were less likely to intervene. Research regarding sexual orientation is lacking. Within some research, sexual orientation has been regarded as a control variable and the relationship between sexual orientation and intervention has not been discussed (e.g., Murphy Austin, Dardis, Wilson, Gidycz, & Berkowitz, 2016; Palmer, 2016).Other research has found that sexual orientation was not related to bystander intervention. For example, Brown and

Messman-Moore (2010) found sexual orientation was not related to male college student's willingness to intervene in sexual aggression. However, the current study found that sexual orientation was related to bystander intervention and that heterosexual students were less likely to intervene. These findings are surprising given that the current study analyzed intervention intentions involving a heterosexual couple and the research suggests that LGBT students may have lower levels of bystander efficacy (Palm Reed, Hines, Armstrong, & Cameron, 2015). In addition, Palm Reed and colleagues (2015) suggest that there may be unique barriers for intervention for LGBT students. However, it may be that non-heterosexual students are more sensitive to social issues surrounding violence generally and gender-based violence specifically. Supporting this idea, research has shown that sexual minority students experience increased rates of physical dating violence, sexual assault and unwanted pursuit (Edwards et al., 2015). Future research should explore this in more detail.

Key Findings from Research Goal 2

The current study sought to analyze feminist and cyber applications of RAT and victimization of college students. In order to do this, variables to measure the three components of RAT were examined for their effects on any victimization, in-person victimization, and cyber victimization. While there was support for variables related to target suitability and capable guardianship, there was little support found for the motivated offender measures. Key findings from each of the three components are discussed below.

First, target suitability was measured in several ways, including routine online and offline activities, primary drinking location, social media intensity, and knowing friends and acquaintances who committed violence against women. Many of the routine activities were

unrelated to victimization across all of the types of victimization analyzed. For example, an above average time spent at restaurants, parties, with school organizations, shopping, and at school or work were unrelated to victimization. In addition, none of the primary drinking locations were related to victimization. Of the offline routine activities that were significantly related to victimization, the majority were in the theoretically expected direction. Across all three forms of sexual violence, participants who spent more time at the bar were more likely to experience victimization. In addition, participants who spent an above average amount of time with friends were more likely to experience any and in-person dating violence and stalking victimization. Spending an above average amount of time playing sports was related to a lower likelihood of any and in-person sexual violence victimization. While previous research has found that participation in sports is associated with higher acceptance of rape myth and attitudes supporting violence (McMahon, 2010), other research has found that participating in sports may serve to protect high school and college athletes from victimization (Fasting, Brackenridge, Miller, & Sabo, 2008). Among young adults, Milner and Baker (2017) found that women who participated in sports were less likely to experience IPV victimization.

The only cyber routine activity not associated with at least one form of victimization was chatting online. However, only two out of the five significant relationships to victimization were forms of cyber victimization. In addition, in each of the significant relationships increased amount of time completing the activity was associated with a lower likelihood of victimization. For example, participants who spent more time checking email were less likely to experience cyber sexual violence. Likewise, participants who spent more time shopping online were less likely to experience cyber stalking, and participants who spent more time on social media were less likely to experience in-person stalking. Participants who spent more time searching for

information online experienced less stalking victimization, specifically in-person stalking. These findings, especially the findings related to cyber victimization, were in a theoretically unexpected manner. It was hypothesized that participants who spent more time engaging in online activities would experience higher rates of cyber victimization. From a traditional RAT standpoint, you would think that spending more time online increases the likelihood that you will come in contact with motivated offenders where there is a lack of a capable guardian making victimization more likely. However, the current study found that participants who spent more time online had less victimization. Future research should explore this relationship in more detail. Though unable to be tested within the current study, one explanation is that after experiencing victimization participants were more likely to seek out online activities in order to prevent future victimization. A study that could establish temporal order would better determine the direction of this relationship.

Within the target suitability variables, proximity to offenders was also assessed through knowing friends or acquaintances who committed violence against women. The current study found considerable support for knowing friends and acquaintances who victimized women being related to victimization of study participants. These questions were modeled off of Schwartz and Pitts (1995) who found that women who had friends who drugged or intoxicated women for the purpose of having intercourse were more likely to experience sexual assault. Within the current study, having friends who intoxicated women was not significantly related to any of the types of victimization. However, several other questions found significant relationships between having friends who harmed women and being victimized. For example, participants who reported that they knew at least one friend who had excessively pursued women were more likely to report any and in-person stalking victimization. In addition, participants who knew a friend who used

social media as a way to hurt women were more likely to experience cyber dating violence victimization. Participants who knew a friend who assessed another person's computer without their permission were more likely to experience all three forms of sexual violence victimization and cyber stalking victimization. These findings build on the research by Schwartz and Pitts (1995) by extending the ways that women may be victimized and their proximity to friends who victimize women.

In addition, knowing acquaintances who victimized women was also related to victimization in several ways. These included a higher likelihood of experiencing in-person stalking when the participant knew someone who got women drunk to have intercourse with them and knowing acquaintances who used another person's computer without their permission was related to any and in-person dating violence and in-person stalking victimization. In addition, participants who knew an acquaintance who used social media as a way to hurt women were more likely to experience nearly all forms of victimization, with the exception of cyber dating violence and in-person stalking. While Schwartz and Pitts (1995) do not discuss the impact of knowing acquaintances who victimize women and the relationship between victimization, there is reason to believe that knowing acquaintances who victimize women would be more likely to experience victimization. For example, research suggests that women are more likely to be victimized by someone known to them (Kilpatrick et al., 2007).

Second, feminist RAT asserts that while traditional RAT views motivated offenders as something that is given within society, motivated offenders should be viewed within the context of a culture that accepts violence directed towards women (Schwartz & Pitts, 1995). Few studies have sought to measure this interpretation of motivated offenders. For the current study, the extent that study participants believed in a culture that accepts violence against women was

measured in two ways, through the endorsement of attitudes that support violence against women and through benevolent and hostile sexism beliefs. While it was hypothesized that participants who more strongly endorsed these beliefs would be more likely to be victimized, little support was found. Benevolent and hostile sexism were not related to any types of dating violence victimization. Participants who held attitudes supporting violence against women were less likely to experience any form of sexual violence victimization and in-person stalking victimization. These findings indicate that as the endorsement of attitudes that supported violence against women increased, participants were less likely to be victimized. However, these findings were not unexpected as research on the relationship between rape myth acceptance and sexual violence victimization is mixed. For example, Carmody and Washington (2001) found that there were no differences between sexual assault victims and non-victims on the acceptance of rape myths. However, Egan and Wilson (2012) found that after controlling for reporting to police, victims of sexual assault had a lower acceptance of rape myths. Likewise, Vonderhaar and Carmody (2015) found that sexual assault victims had lower Rape Myth Acceptance Scale scores than non-victims.

Research involving feminist RAT has generally not measured motivated offenders. Even Schwartz and Pitts (1995) do not focus on motivated offenders. One potential reason for this lack of research, and a lack of support for the motivated offenders measures within the current study, the structure of the theory. Within RAT there are macro and micro structures. Traditional RAT posits that motivated offenders are a given in society and do not need to be analyzed. In other words, there are always people who are willing to commit crime if the conditions are right. The interpretation of motivated offenders under Feminist RAT also assumes that motivated offenders are a given. However, motivated offenders exist because there is a culture that accepts violence

against women. That we must understand the context around violence against women is inherently a macro argument. However, within the current study the way that motivated offenders was measures was at the individual level. Individual level ideas about acceptance of violence against women may not be consistent with the larger societal views about acceptance of violence against women. In order to truly assess motivated offenders and the impact of cultural support for violence against women a study that examined macro level effects may be needed.

Two potential ways that motivated offenders can be explored under feminist interpretations of RAT will be discussed in more detail. First, at a global level, assessments of a culture that accepts violence against women can be measured. One way this can be measured is through the degree that a country has a patriarchal foundation or gender in-equality. Countries that have a stronger patriarchy and gender in-equality would be expected to have higher rates of violence. While counties that have less patriarchy and gender in-equality would have less intimate partner violence. On a collegiate level, campus climate surveys can be used to assess the degree that there is a culture that accepts violence against women on the campus. Comparisons of rates of victimization can be made across different colleges and universities. Campuses that have a stronger culture that accepts violence against women would be expected to have higher rates of violence. Likewise campuses that do not have a strong culture that accepts violence against women would be expected to have lower rates of violence.

The third component of RAT is capable guardianship. The current study analyzed guardianship in several different ways. First, the current study extended research involving high school students to college students by examining the impact of parents to act as a capable guardian. Second, the current study analyzed the ability of friends to act as a capable guardian.

Third, personal guardianship was measured. Lastly, aspects of bystander intervention were incorporated into RAT. Findings from each of these areas are discussed below.

Previous research has examined the impact of parents acting as capable guardians, especially among children and adolescents. However, the ability of parents to act as a capable guardian of college students may be diminished as college students are less likely to be under the direct supervision of their parents. Regarding college students prevention efforts should entail increasing capable guardianship. Fisher and colleagues (1998) argue that one of the reasons college students experience victimization is due to the lack of capable guardianship associated with college the college experience. The current study found little support for parent's ability to act as a capable guardian. Across all types of victimization analyzed being friends with parents on social media and the family support measure, which include included beliefs that parents provide advice and suggestions for how to deal with problems, were not related to victimization. However, talking to parents daily was significantly related to victimization when examining any and in-person sexual violence. Participants who reported that they talked to their parents at least once a day were less likely to experience sexual violence. The results show some support for parents and their ability to act as capable guardians but overall there was little support. Future research should continue to analyze the ability of parents to act as capable guardians. Qualitative research may be better suited to address when and how parents can act as guardians.

Likewise, beliefs that friends offered support and guidance was not related to victimization. This is surprising as it would be logical to assume that friends that offer you support and guidance would also look out for you and help avoid risky situations. The one variable that was significantly related to victimization was in a theoretically unexpected way. Total friends on social media was related to any dating violence and stalking victimization and

in-person dating violence. It was hypothesized that having more friends on social media would increase the chances that friends would see situations and have the ability to intervene. Examining number of friends as a way of increasing capable guardianship may have been a misspecification theoretically. The results would indicate that total friends may be better understood as a variable related to target suitability. Just as the target suitability variables found that knowing friends or acquaintances who used social media to hurt people or computers without permission were related to increased levels of victimization, more friends was also related to any and in-person dating violence and any stalking victimization. Previous research that has found a relationship between deviant peers and an increase in victimization (Reyns et al., 2011). The chances of having deviant peers online are likely to increase as the number of friends increase. Regarding friends, future research should continue to examine the ability of friends to act as guardians. While much of the research has focused on and found that negative peer groups and supports are associated with an increase in victimization, future researchers should examine ways of increasing friend's ability to act as a capable guardian towards their friends. Bystander intervention programs may do this by changing the culture and promoting that everyone has the ability to intervene.

Lastly, the ability of study participants to act as personal guardians was assessed. This was assessed in several ways. Placing privacy restrictions on social media and using social media to check into locations was unrelated to any type of victimization. These findings are consistent with previous literature that has found that placing restrictions on who can view social media sites is unrelated to a range of cyberstalking victimizations (Reyns et al., 2011). However, using social media to meet new people was related to an increase in any and cyber sexual assault victimization. These findings are consistent with previous literature (Henson, Reyns, & Fisher,

2011). In addition, Reyns and colleagues (2011) found that adding strangers increased cyberstalking victimization. In addition, living in a less guarded house, that is an off-campus apartment or house not with parents, was associated with an increase in in-person dating violence. Both of these findings are consistent with feminist and cyber RAT.

Key Findings from Research Goal 3

While the current study found support for many of the bystander intervention variables being related to victimization, they were in the entirely opposite way expected. It was hypothesized that higher scores in bystander efficacy and perceptions of peers helping, and previously going to a bystander intervention training program would increase the ability of the participant and their friends to act as a capable guardian. However, the results showed that higher scores and participant in bystander intervention training were related to an increased likelihood of victimization. Though this finding seems perplexing at first glance, two potential reasons for the relationship exist.

First, as previously mentioned temporal order could not be established within the current study. As will be discussed below, this is a limitation of the current study. Without the ability of establishing temporal order, a determination cannot be made as to which came first. Therefore, one potential reason for this relationship is that after experiencing victimization the participant sought out ways to become involved in ending violence. In addition, participants who had been victimized before may have rated their friend's ability to intervene in preventing dating and sexual violence higher because they had first-hand knowledge and experience with their friends intervening on their behalf.

Second, participants who rated themselves as higher in bystander efficacy, participated in a bystander intervention training program, or viewed their friends as being better able to intervene may have been more in tune with violence generally and better able to distinguish experiences that they have had as types of victimization. Previous research has shown that not everyone who had been victimized recognizes themselves as a victim. For example, McNamara and Marsil (2012) three-fourths of college students who were victims of stalking did not identify themselves as a stalking victim. Self-identification as a victim is important as it facilitates disclosure to formal and informal resources.

Future research should continue to intertwine research involving bystander intervention and capable guardianship into assessments of victimization. Though bystander intervention research and RAT research has been around for many years only recently have these two bodies of research been incorporated. For example, Reynald (2010, 2018) and Hollis-Peele (2011) have begun to examine and expand on guardianship in action. This view of guardianship incorporated bystander intervention research by arguing that bystanders must do something in order to intervene.

Policy Implications

Results from the current research provided tentative support for bystander intervention programs working to change cultural norms surrounding intervention in violence. Though only descriptive in nature, the current study found that of participants who did responded that they would not intervene in the scenario they viewed the most common reason was that it was none of their business to intervene. These responses point to the long history of viewing intimate partner violence as something that happens behind closed doors and not for others to know about.

Bystander intervention programs today are working to challenge this notion. Analyses conducted showed that all participants who indicated that it was none of their business to intervene had not previously been through a bystander training program. Stated differently, among study participants who chose not to intervene, those who had participated in a bystander intervention training program chose not to intervene because it was unsafe for them to do so or because nothing had occurred that warranted intervention. Bystander intervention programs should continue to challenge the notion that violence against women is socially acceptable and does not require intervention.

Though the victimization presented was entirely cyber in nature, with no mention of witnessing victimization or actions that concerned participants that occurred in-person, few participants indicated that they would use technology as a way of intervening. This was found to be true for both direct and indirect forms of intervention. Of the interventions that used technology, participants were most likely to indicate that they would use it to talk to the victim. Those who viewed that stalking scenario were more likely than those who viewed the dating or sexual violence scenarios to say that they would use technology to talk to the victim. However, participants who viewed the sexual violence scenario were more likely to say that they would respond on Facebook to one of the posts or report the posts to Facebook. Given the widespread use of technology by college students, these findings are surprising. Facebook and other social media sites have been called on for the role that they play in online harassment. Recently, Facebook rolled out new tools for victims of bullying and harassment. Facebook will review posts that have been reported by users to determine if they violate community standards. Facebook and other social media sites should continue to monitor their platforms and work with

researchers and practitioners in order to make their platforms safe for everyone, especially those who are being victimized and harassed by others.

Regarding victimization, several policy implications are relevant. First, the results showed that a large number of students experience a variety of victimizations while in college that vary in severity. About three-fourths of the sample experienced at least one form of dating violence, while about half reported experiencing at least one form of sexual violence or stalking victimization. While research suggests that non-college students experience more victimization than college students (Rennison & Planty, 2003); the current study finds that college students experience high rates of victimization. These findings point to the need to continue to promote violence prevention on college campuses. In addition, given that a high rate of young people, both in college and out of college, experience intimate partner violence prevention programs should be implemented prior to college. These programs should include a broad range of victimization that impacts both boys and girls and teach appropriate intervention and conflict resolution skills.

Results from the current study indicated that participants who had been to a bystander intervention program were more likely to report that they were a victim. These findings may be an indication of a better ability of bystander intervention program participants to identify experiences that they have had as experiences of victimization. Bystander intervention programs can incorporate these findings into their programming to emphasize potential resources for victims of crime. The impact of programs discussing resources for recovery can be beneficial to participants who identify themselves as victims or to people who may know victims. Within the bystander intervention part of this study, the victim needing emotional support was significant for all three scenarios. Bystander intervention programs teaching about resources could increase

the confidence that participants have in offering tertiary support (i.e., support after victimization has occurred) to victims.

Limitations

The current study expanded the bystander intervention and victimization literature by examining three different types of victimization and bystander intervention. While the current study was designed to build on bystander intervention literature, by examining intervention intentions in three forms of cyber victimization, and victimization literature, by incorporating the feminist and cyber applications of RAT and bystander intervention research into capable guardianship, there are several limitations that exist in the current study. These limitations will be briefly discussed below.

There are several issues that revolve around sampling. First, study participants were recruited via a convenience sample and largely consisted of students from one major. This raises concerns about generalizability to the wider student body on campus. In addition, the current study was conducted on one campus. The results from the current study may not be generalizable to other universities, especially in regions beyond the south. In addition, the sample was largely comprised of women. However, while 75% of the sample was women about 54% of students enrolled during the Fall 2018 semester (when the majority of the surveys were completed) were women. Though the sample was predominately women, the relatively small sample size precluded the ability to analyze bystander intervention and victimization by gender. This is a significant limitation, especially in regards to applying feminist RAT to victimization.

While the current study enhances research regarding bystander's willingness to intervene in a variety of types of violence against women, it did not assess actual bystander intervention

practice. Within the bystander intervention research there is a call to move beyond intervention intentions and to study actual actions of bystanders. In addition to these limitations inherent in the study of vignette research, several limitations revolving the actual vignettes exist. First, all three scenarios involved violence perpetrated by male offenders and female victims. While this type of victimization was the focus of the current project, it is not the only form of victimization experienced. For example, women may be perpetrators and men may be victims. In addition, violence within same sex relationships exists. A second limitation related to the way that vignettes were presented is that the scenarios lack racial diversity. Future research should examine differences in intervention when the race of victims and perpetrators is different. In addition, there were no manipulations within the vignettes to assess the impact of more or less people present online. Future research should, for example, vary the amount of people who have witnessed victimization to assess whether or not an online bystander effect exists.

Regarding the impact of routine activities on victimization, there is one major limitation regarding victimization. Since the study was cross-sectional there is no way to establish temporal order. This becomes an issue when examining the impact of routine activities on victimization. While an ideal study would be longitudinal and allow for the ability to say that any specific variable related to RAT was the cause of victimization, the current study does not allow for this. Within the current study, one does not have the ability to determine if any of the variables to measure RAT *caused* victimization. Previous research has shown that there is a cyclical nature of alcohol use and victimization.

In addition, a second limitation of the victimization aspect of this study was the way variables were measured. While much of the research regarding RAT and victimization of college students has found that drinking increases the risk for victimization (Mustaine &

Tewksbury, 2002; Schwartz & Pitts, 1995), drinking frequency was not able to be analyzed in the current study. Just as this variable is likely to have an impact on victimization, there may be other variables that were not analyzed that could have an impact on victimization. For example, given the lack of significant findings involving motivated offenders, there are other unmeasured explanations for victimization beyond the measures used in the current study.

Conclusion

The current study sought to expand research involving cyber bystander intervention and analyze the individual components of RAT by incorporating both cyber and feminist applications of the theory. This was accomplished by an online survey administered to college students that included one vignette, depicting cyber dating violence, sexual violence, or stalking, and questions related to bystander intervention, RAT, and victimization. The proceeding chapters have discussed violence against women, its history and why it is important to study on college campuses, theoretical components related to bystander intervention and RAT, hypotheses and methodology of the current study and the results.

Overall, the current study expanded our knowledge of cyber bystander intervention by examining three different types of victimization and when and how bystanders would intervene. The results showed that there were differences in what factors were important across the three scenarios. However, across all three scenarios participants were most likely to intervene by talking with the victim directly. Within talking directly, participants were most likely to indicate that they would rather talk in-person than using technology. The results also showed that consistent with previous literature (Palmer et al., 2018), situational characteristics were most important in the decision to intervene. Participants who viewed the victim as needing emotional

support were more likely to say they would intervene, while characterizations of the perpetrator were unrelated to intervention. In addition, attributes related to study participants, including their attitudes and beliefs about violence against women, social media usage, and victimization were not consistently related to intervention. Of demographic variables, sexual orientation was related to victimization with heterosexual participants indicating they were less likely to intervene.

The current study also sought to examine the impact of feminist and cyber RAT on victimization. As measured, the results showed support for target suitability being related to an increase in victimization. For example, participants who had a closer proximity to offenders were more likely to experience victimization. In addition, several actions such as playing sports, emailing, using social media, and searching for information online were associated with a decrease in victimization. As measured, the current study did not find any support for individual attitudes about violence against women being related to victimization. While the current study used individual attitudes to measure the culture that is thought to encourage violence against women no support was found. As discussed, future research should examine this on a macro level. Lastly, the current study found some support for capable guardianship. Participants who talked to their parents daily experienced lower rates of any and in-person sexual violence. Having more friends on social media and using social media was associated with an increase in a variety of victimization. Lastly, the current study sought to intertwine research involving bystander intervention into capable guardianship. Unexpectedly, bystander intervention skills were related to an increase in victimization. However, as discussed these participants may have been better able to identify their experiences as victimization or may have looked to services and bystander intervention training after experiencing victimization.

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APPENDIX 1:

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Full Survey for Classes - final - Fall

Survey Flow

Block: consent (1 Question)

BlockRandomizer: 1 - Evenly Present Elements

Block: sexual harassment (10 Questions)
Block: dating violence (12 Questions)
Block: stalking (11 Questions)

Standard: RATs (3 Questions)
Standard: bystander efficacy (1 Question)
Standard: friends who commit VAW (5 Questions)
Standard: ASI (1 Question)
Standard: social media intensity (5 Questions)
Standard: social support (1 Question)
Standard: VAWA (1 Question)
Standard: sm ques (6 Questions)
Standard: perceptions of peers helping (1 Question)
Standard: dv victimization (35 Questions)
Standard: stalking vict (32 Questions)
Standard: sv victimization (13 Questions)
Standard: demographics (16 Questions)

Page Break

Start of Block: consent

Q1 **Informed Consent to Participate in Research** Information to Consider Before Taking Part in this Research Study Pro # Pro00030825 Researchers at the University of South Florida (USF) study many topics. To do this, we need the help of people who agree to take part in a research study. This form tells you about this research study. We are asking you to take part in a research study that is called: Bystander intervention, victimization, and routine activities theory. The person who is in charge of this research study is Jennifer Leili. This person is called the Principal Investigator. **Purpose of the Study** The purpose of this study is to learn about when people may act to prevent violence. We are also interested in the attitudes and experiences that college students have had in the past.

Why are you being asked to take part? We are asking you to take part in this research study because we are interested in the attitudes, opinions and experiences of college students. **Study Procedures** If you take part in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey through Qualtrics. Your information will not be linked to your responses. As part of the survey you will be asked to view images that may appear to be Facebook pages. However, these images are not real Facebook pages. You may complete the survey anywhere that there is internet connection, either on your phone, computer, or other electronic devices. Following completion of the survey you will be asked in a separate form of you would be willing to participate in a follow up study conducted at a later time in order to discuss the topics covered in this survey in more detail. The researcher will not be able to link your willingness to participate with the answers in this survey. **Alternatives / Voluntary Participation / Withdrawal** An alternative assignment will be offered by the principal investigator should you wish to receive extra credit but not take part in the research project. The alternative assignment will require that you watch a short video about bystander intervention and write a 1 page essay on what you learned from the video.

You should only take part in this study if you want to volunteer; you are free to participate in this research or withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive if you stop taking part in this study. Your decision to participate or not to participate will not affect your student status, course grade, recommendations, or access to future courses or training opportunities. **Benefits and Risks** We are unsure if you will receive any benefits by taking part in this research study. This research is considered to be minimal risk.

Compensation You will not receive any monetary compensation for completing this research project or completing the alternative assignment. Your professor has agreed to offer extra credit for participating in this research project, either by completing the survey or alternate assignment. **Privacy and Confidentiality** We must keep your study records as confidential as possible. It is possible, although unlikely, that unauthorized individuals could gain access to your responses because you are responding online. Certain people may need to see your study records. By law, anyone who looks at your records must keep them completely confidential. The only people who will be allowed to see these records are: · the Principal Investigator, · the Advising Professor, · the University of South Florida Institutional Review Board (IRB). It is possible, although unlikely, that unauthorized individuals could gain access to your responses. Confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet. However, your participation in this online survey involves risks similar to a person's everyday use of the Internet. If you complete and submit an anonymous survey and later request your data be withdrawn, this may or may not be possible as the researcher may be unable to extract anonymous data from the database. A federal law called Title IX protects your right to be free from sexual discrimination, including sexual harassment and sexual violence. USF's Title IX policy requires certain USF employees to report sexual harassment or sexual violence against any USF employee, student or group, but does not require researchers to report sexual harassment or sexual violence when they learn about it as part of conducting an IRB-approved study. If, as part of this study, you tell us about any sexual harassment or sexual violence that has happened to you, including rape or sexual assault, we are not required to report it to the University. If you have questions about Title IX or USF's Title IX policy, please call USF's Office of Diversity, Inclusion & Equal Opportunity at (813) 974-4373. **Contact Information** If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the USF IRB at (813) 974-5638 or contact by email at RSCH-IRB@usf.edu. If you have questions regarding the research, please contact the Principal Investigator at jleili@mail.usf.edu. We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, we will not let anyone know your name. We will not publish anything else that would let people know who you are. You can print a copy of this consent form for your records.

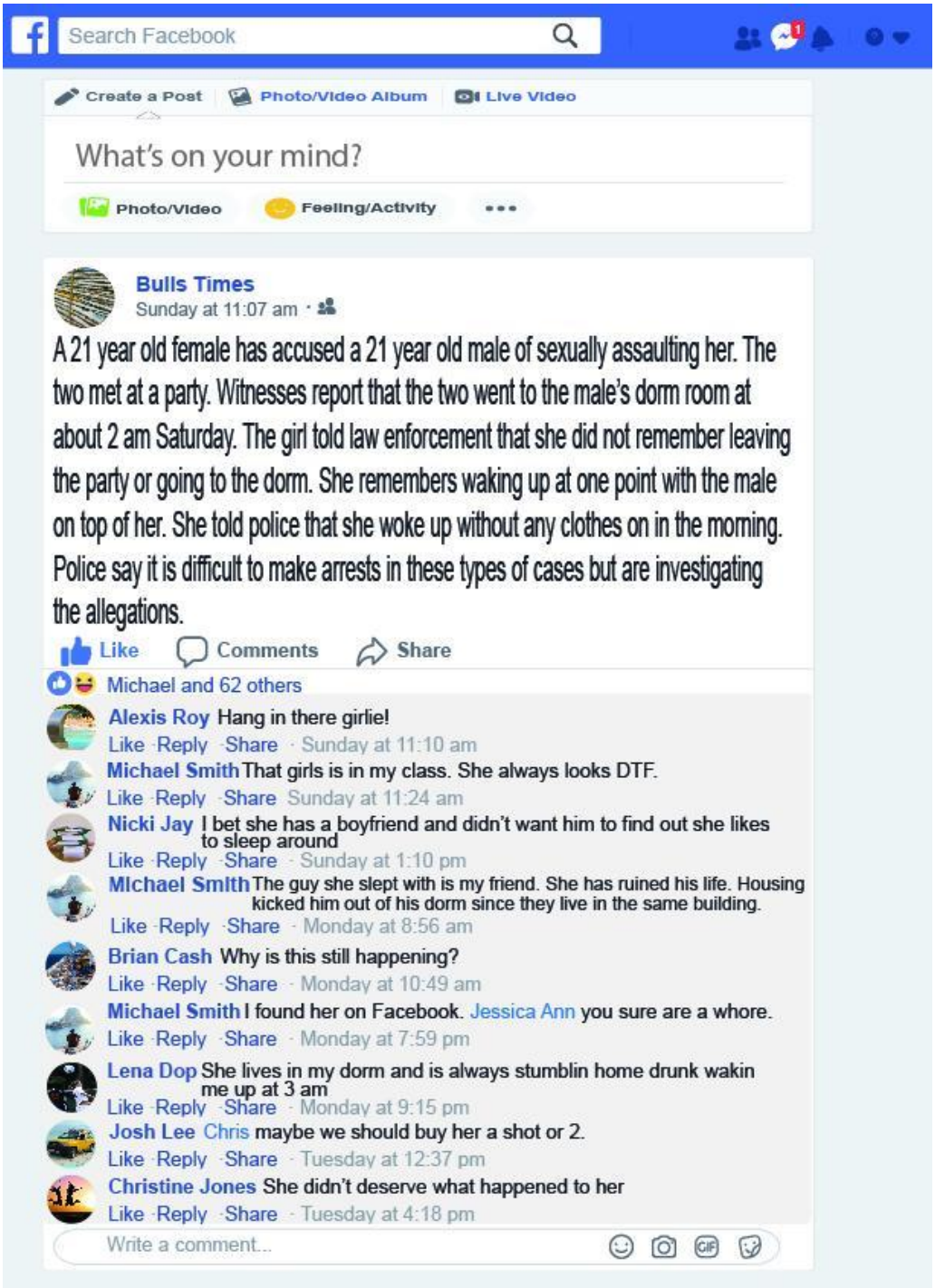
I freely give my consent to take part in this study. I understand that by proceeding with this survey that I am agreeing to take part in research and I am 18 years of age or older.

- Yes (1)

End of Block: consent

Start of Block: sexual harassment

Q3 One of your friends recently told you that she got really drunk at a party and woke up the next morning in some guy's bed without any clothes on. She told you she doesn't remember how she got there but she thinks she may have been raped. Today, you saw the following article on Facebook.



sv_manck What is Michael's relationship to Jessica?

- He is her boyfriend (1)
- He is her ex-boyfriend (2)
- The relationship between the two is unclear (3)

---

sv_int How likely are you to intervene in the situation you just read?

- Very unlikely (1)
- Unlikely (2)
- Neither unlikely nor likely (3)
- Likely (4)
- Very Likely (5)

v_intall From the list below select which items you are likely to do to respond to this situation. Select all that apply.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)
- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- Call a resident assistant, counselor, friend, coach, or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)
- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)
- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

sv_intmost This list is the same as the above list. Select which action you are the MOST likely to do.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)
- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- Call a resident assistance, counselor, friend, coach or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)
- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)

- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

sv_blame How much blame would you attribute to each of the following people in the above scenario? These numbers should total 100%

Michael : _____ (1)
Jessica : _____ (2)
Other : _____ (3)
No one is to blame in this scenario (put 100% here) : _____ (4)

Total : _____

---

sv_Jemsup As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs emotional support?

- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

---

sv_Jphypro As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs physical protection from Michael?

- Definitely not (18)
- Probably not (19)
- Might or might not (20)
- Probably yes (21)
- Definitely yes (22)

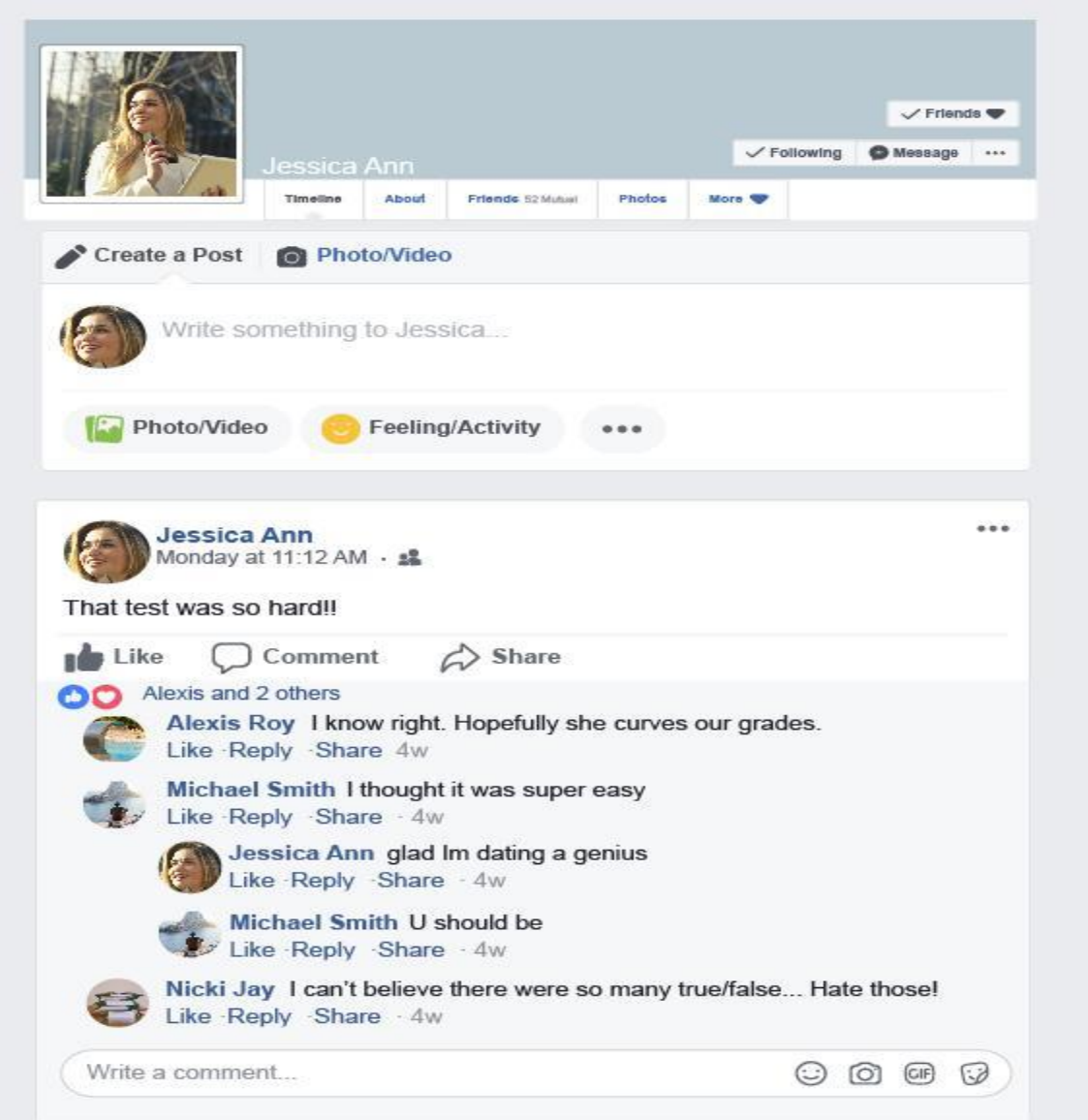
SV_Mbeh Is Michael's behavior threatening?

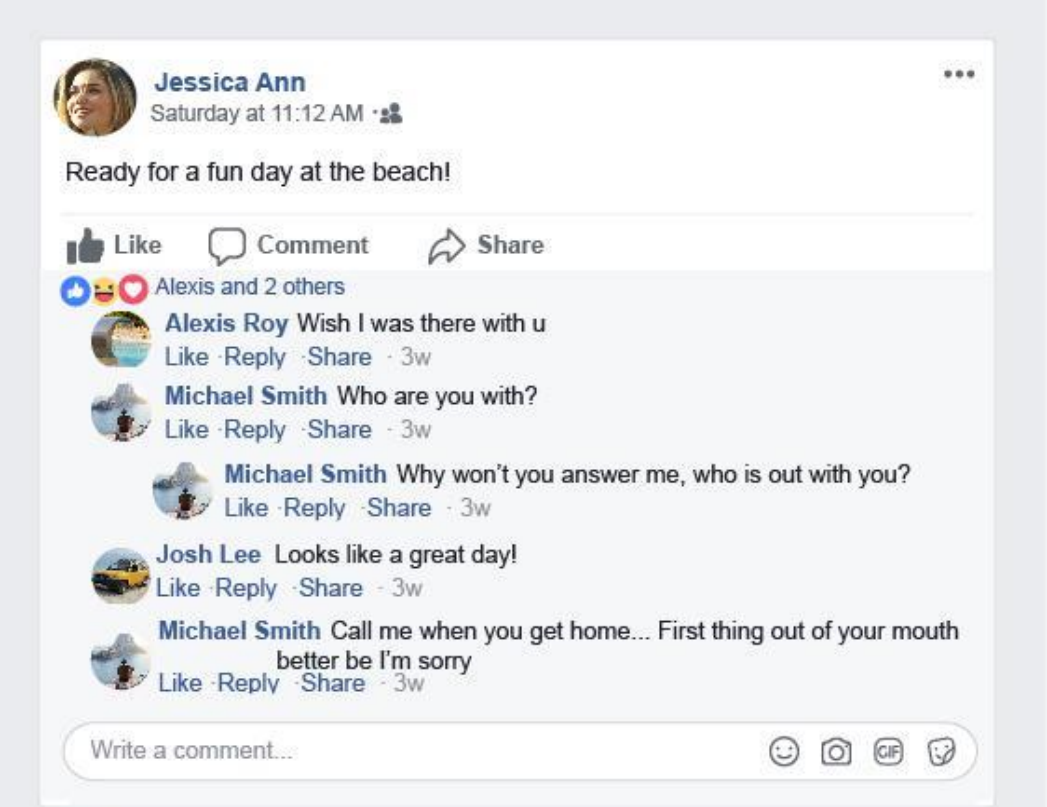
- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

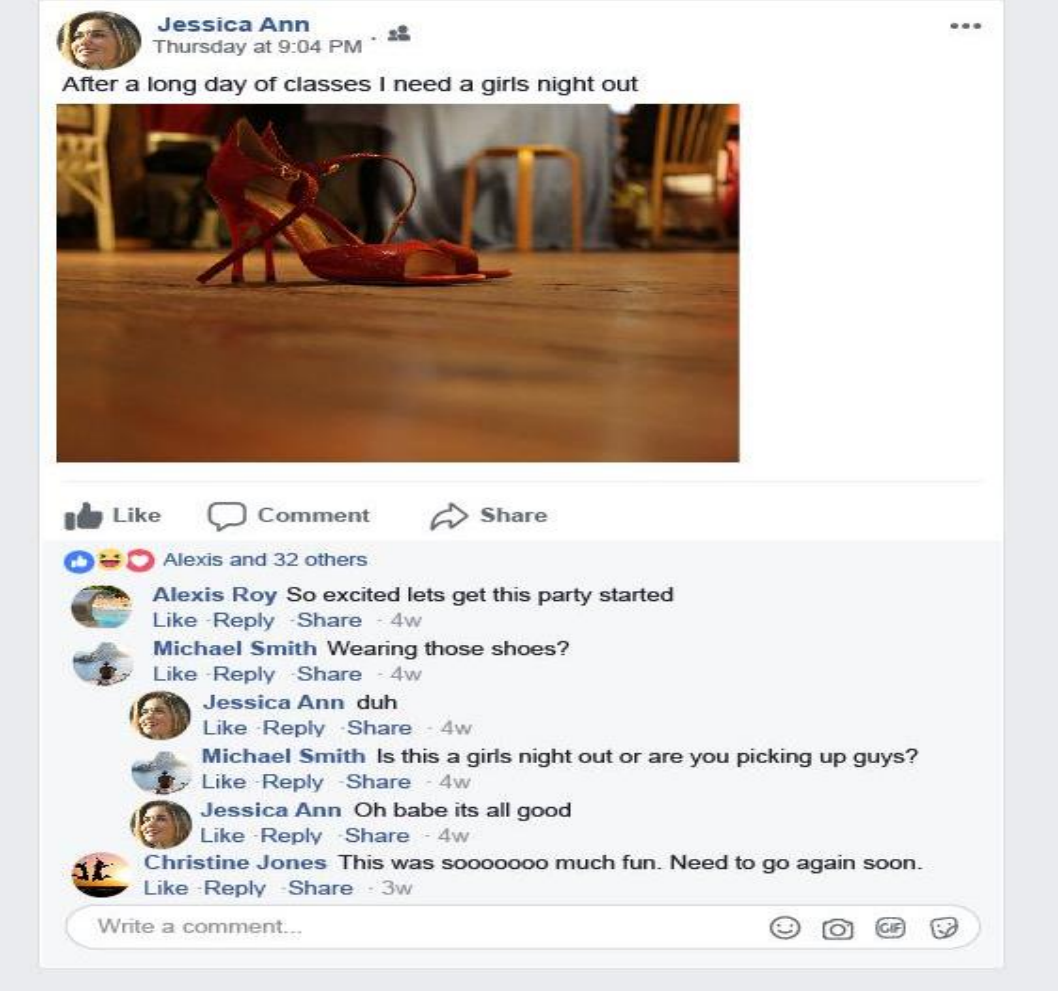
End of Block: sexual harassment

Start of Block: dating violence

Q77 In between classes today you decide to play on Facebook and look at some of your friend's posts. The following are posts that you saw on your friend's page.







Jessica Ann
Tuesday at 11:12 AM

Anyone want to go to the gym with me later today?

Like Comment Share

Alexis and 2 others

Christine Jones got class
Like · Reply · Share · 2w

Josh Lee Im busy too
Like · Reply · Share · 2w

Michael Smith Not sure u need to but I'll come and make sure no one is checking u out
Like · Reply · Share · 2w

Write a comment...

Jessica Ann
Thursday at 8:04 PM

No class tomorrow = drinks out tonight

Like Comment Share

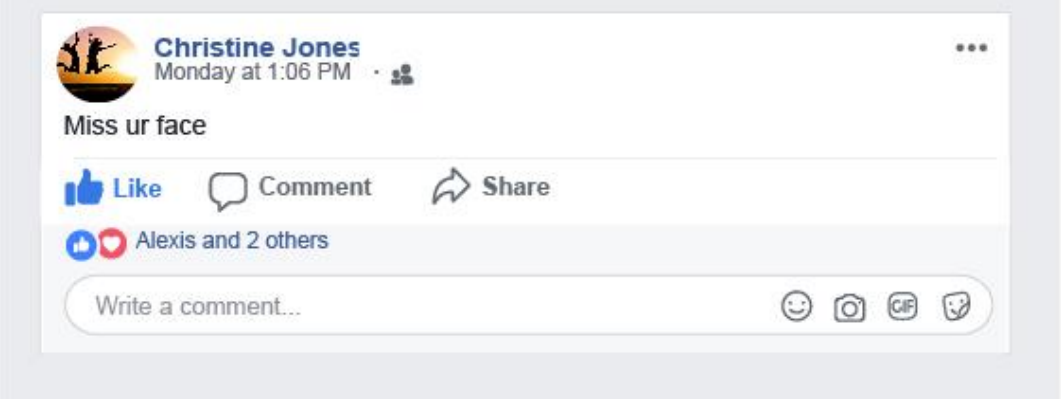
Christine and 29 others

Michael Smith Baby I thought we agreed you weren't going to the bars without me
Like · Reply · Share · 1w

Jessica Ann I'm sorry my girl was having a rough night and asked me to go
Like · Reply · Share · 1w

Michael Smith I'm on my way right now to pick you up
Like · Reply · Share · 1w

Write a comment...



dv_manck What is Michael's relationship to Jessica?

- He is her boyfriend (1)
- He is her ex-boyfriend (2)
- The relationship between the two is unclear (3)

dv_int How likely are you to intervene in the situation you just read?

- Very unlikely (1)
- Unlikely (2)
- Neither unlikely nor likely (3)
- Likely (4)
- Very Likely (5)

dv_intall From the list below select which items you are likely to do to respond to this situation. Select all that apply.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)
- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- Call a resident assistant, counselor, friend, coach, or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)
- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)
- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

dv_intmost This list is the same as the above list. Select which action you are the MOST likely to do.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)

- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- Call a resident assistant, counselor, friend, coach, or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)
- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)
- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

dv_blame How much blame would you attribute to each of the following people in the above scenario? These numbers should total 100%

Michael : _____ (1)
Jessica : _____ (2)
Other : _____ (3)
No one is to blame in this scenario (put 100% here) : _____ (4)

Total : _____

dv_jemsup As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs emotional support?

- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

dv_Jphypro As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs physical protection from Michael?

- Definitely not (25)
- Probably not (26)
- Might or might not (27)
- Probably yes (28)
- Definitely yes (29)

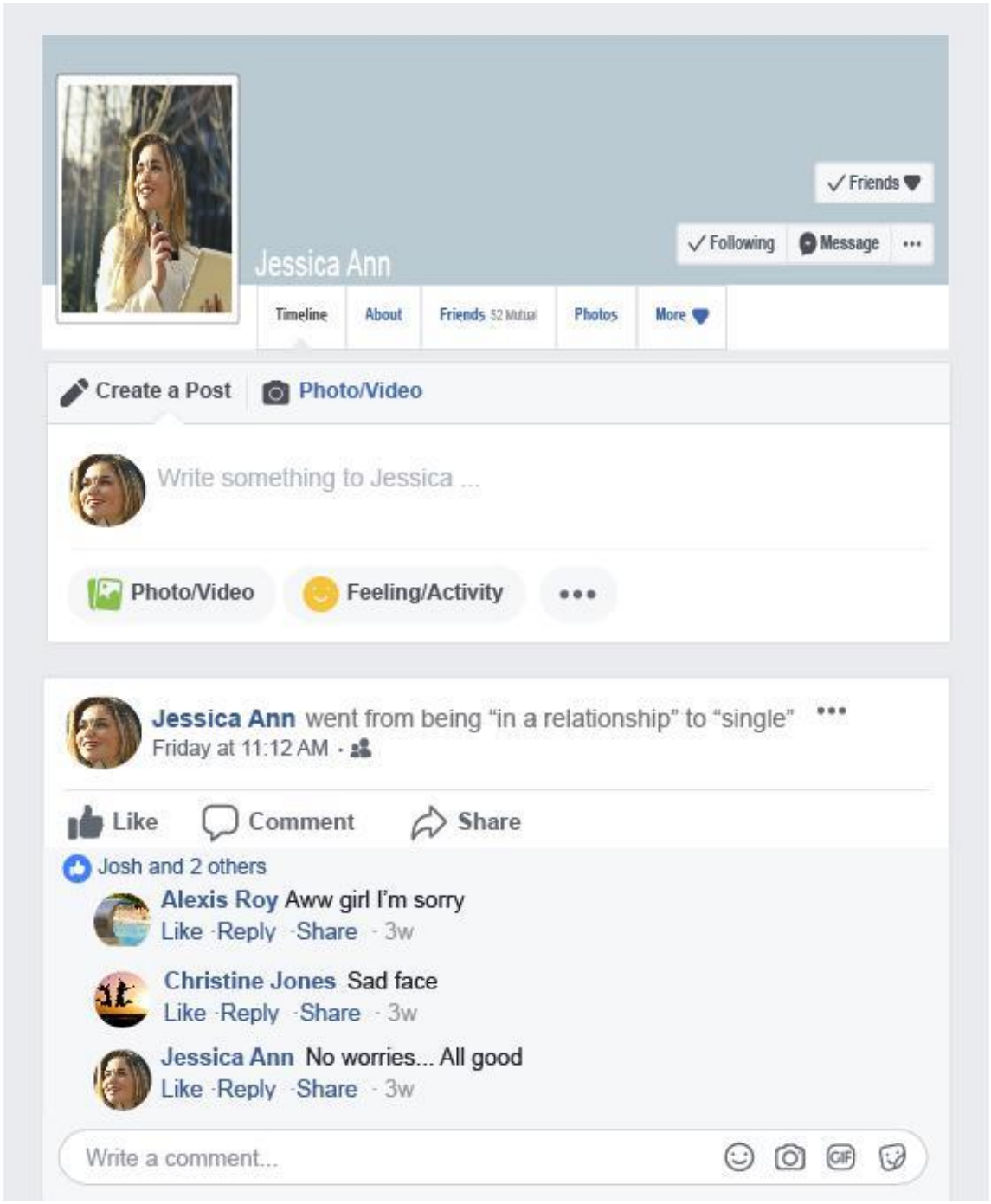
dv_mbeh Is Michael's behavior threatening?

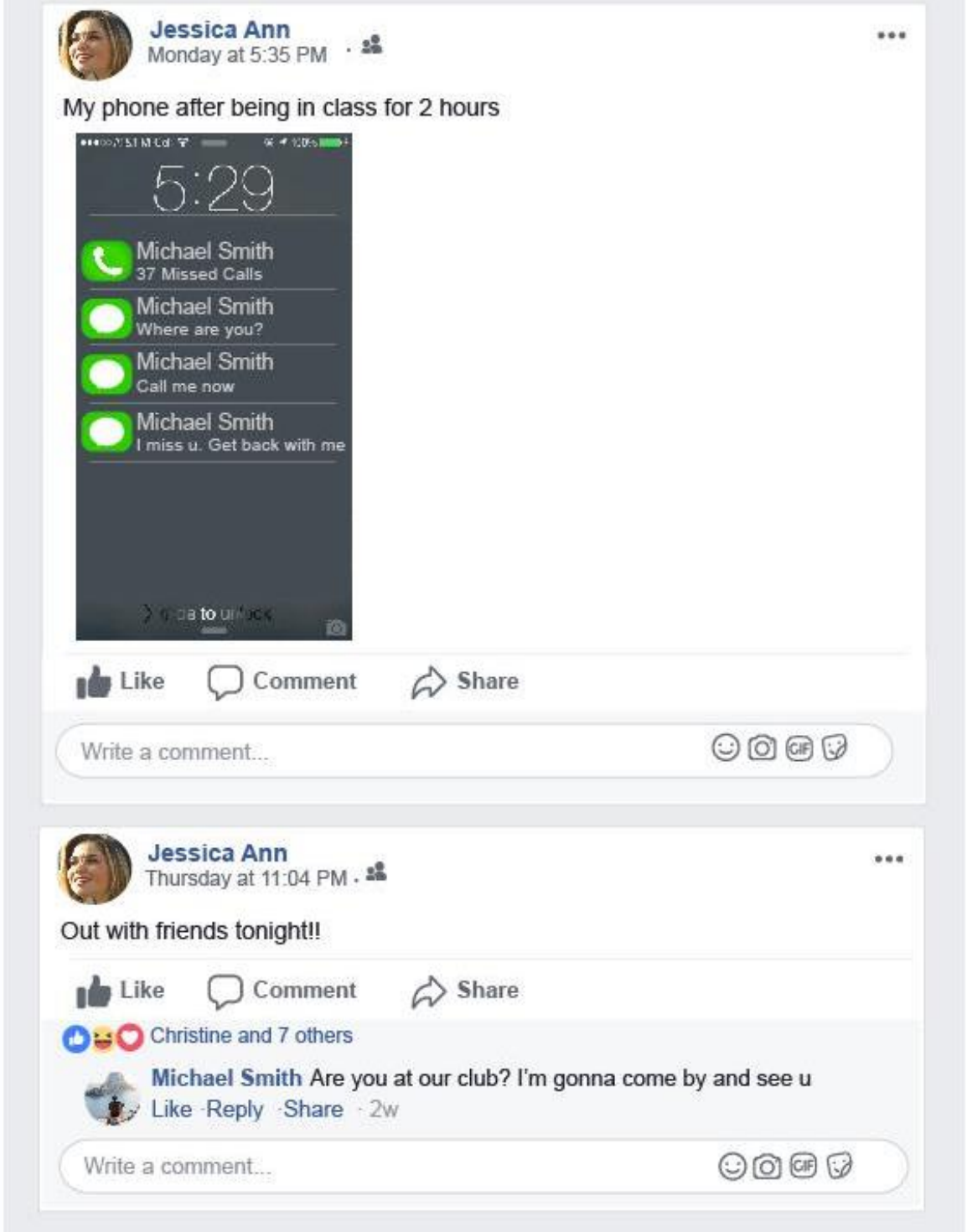
- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

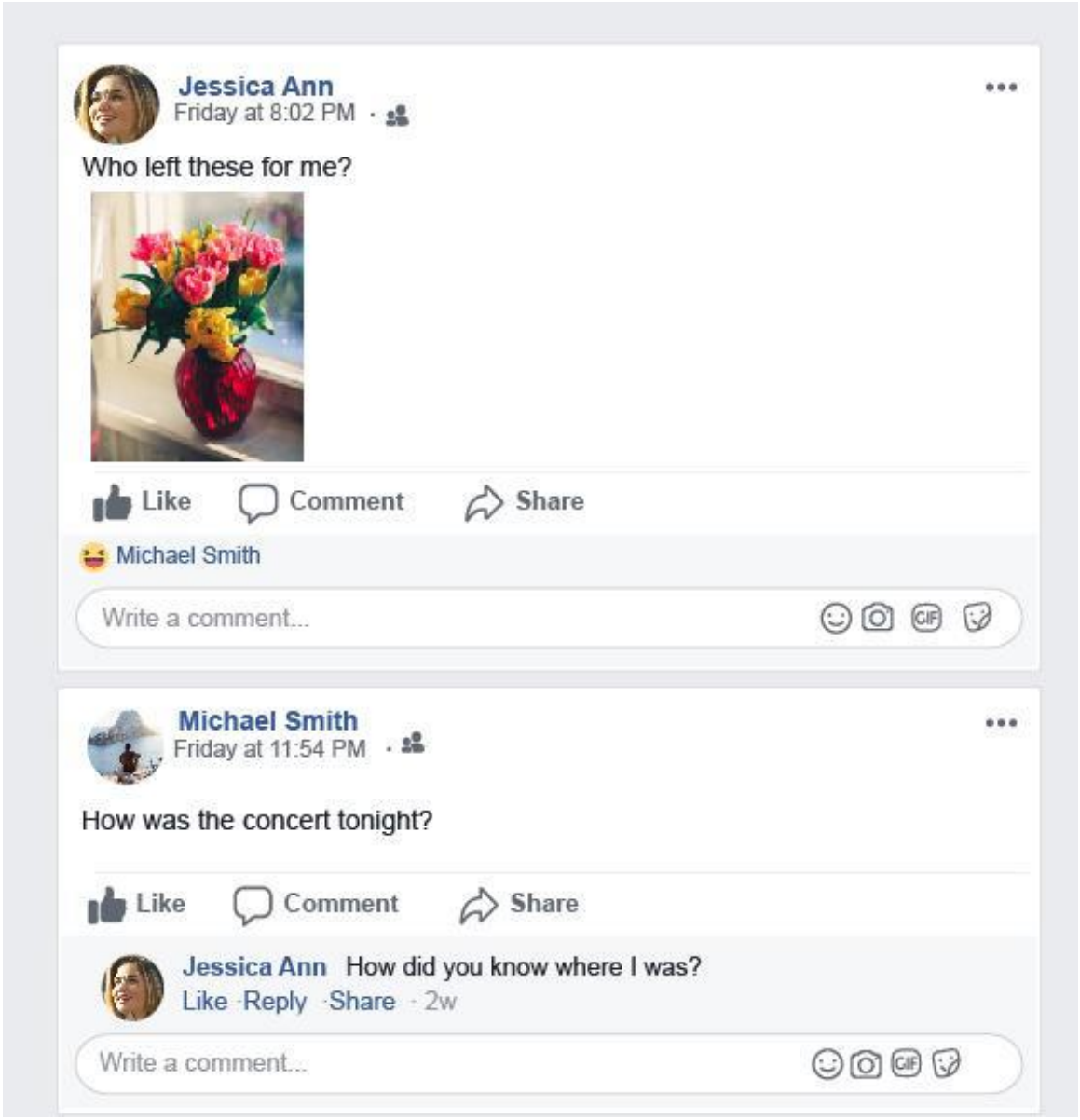
End of Block: dating violence

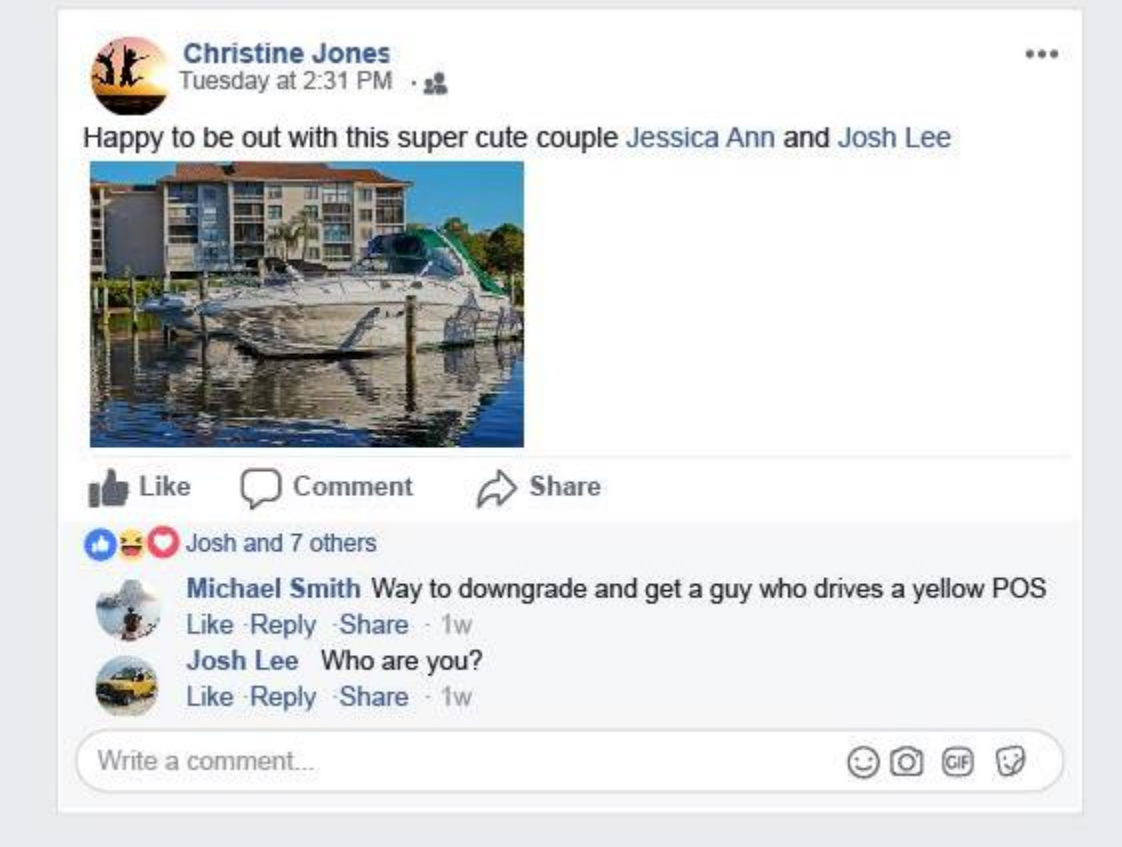
Start of Block: stalking

Q78 While you were looking on Facebook one of your friends posts caught your attention. You went and looked on her page and saw the following.









s_manck What is Michael's relationship with Jessica?

- He is her boyfriend (1)
- He is her ex-boyfriend (2)
- The relationship between the two is unclear (3)

s_int How likely are you to intervene in the situation you just read?

- Very unlikely (1)
- Unlikely (2)
- Neither unlikely nor likely (3)
- Likely (4)
- Very Likely (5)

s_intall From the list below select which items you are likely to do to respond to this situation. Select all that apply.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)
- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- Call a resident assistant, counselor, friend, coach, or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)

- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)
- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

s_intmost This list is the same as the above list. Select which action you are the MOST likely to do.

- Talk to Jessica in person about how they are feeling or to offer support (1)
- Talk to Jessica using technology (e.g., via cell phone or social media about how they are feeling or to offer support (2)
- call a resident assistant, counselor, friend, coach, or someone who I know is sensitive to this issue, and ask for her/his assistance or advice (3)
- Report to Facebook as being inappropriate (4)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can help Jessica (5)
- Talk to my other friends about how we can confront Michael (6)
- Talk to Michael in person (7)
- Talk to Michael using technology (e.g, via cell phone or social media) (8)
- Respond on one of the posts that the behavior is unacceptable (9)
- It's not safe for me to do anything (10)
- Do nothing, it is none of my business (11)
- Do nothing, nothing has occurred that needs my attention (12)

s_blame How much blame would you attribute to each of the following people in the above scenario? These numbers should total 100%

Michael : _____ (1)
Jessica : _____ (2)
Other : _____ (3)
No one is to blame in this scenario (put 100% here) : _____ (4)

Total : _____

s_jemsup As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs emotional support?

- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

s_Jphypro As Jessica's friend, do you think she needs physical protection from Michael?

- Definitely not (18)
- Probably not (19)
- Might or might not (20)
- Probably yes (21)
- Definitely yes (22)

s_mbeh Is Michael's behavior threatening?

- Definitely not (1)
- Probably not (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably yes (4)
- Definitely yes (5)

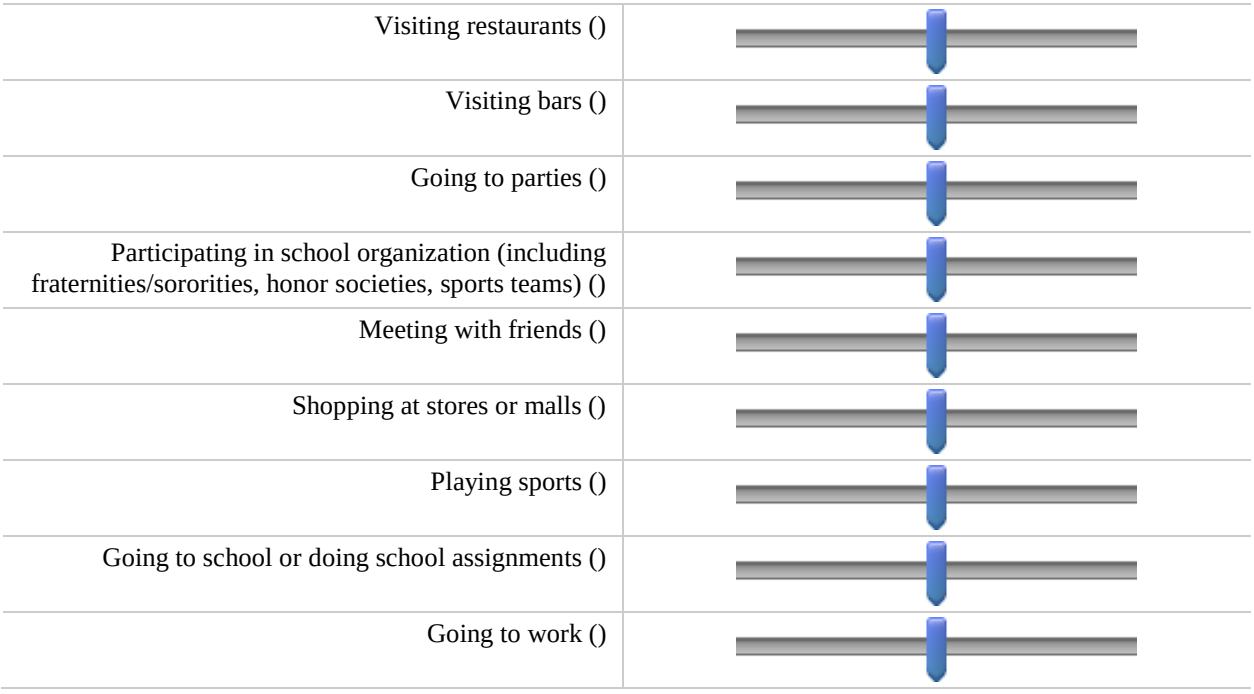
End of Block: stalking

Start of Block: RATs

ra How many hours per week do you spend doing the following activities?

Hours per week

0 5 10152025303540455055606570758085909510 0



Checking emails ()	
Checking social media ()	
Shopping online ()	
Chatting online ()	
Reading news online ()	
Searching for information online for classes ()	

binge In the past 30 days...

0 5 10 15 20 25 30

How often have you consumed four or more alcoholic beverages for women or five of more alcoholic beverages for men on one occasion? ()	

drinkloc Where do you drink most often?

- Parties at friends' houses (1)
- Parties at strangers' houses (2)
- Parties at fraternity or sorority houses (3)
- Your own house (4)
- Bars (5)
- Restaurants (6)
- I do not drink (7)
- Other (8)

End of Block: RATs

Start of Block: bystander efficacy

be Please answer the following questions about what you think about "violence prevention." Violence is when people fight or hurt others on purpose. Violence prevention means keeping violence from happening or stopping violence before it starts. Pick only 1 answer that best describes your response:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
People's violent behavior can be prevented. (1)	•	•	•	•	•
There are certain things a person can do to help prevent violence. (2)	•	•	•	•	•
I myself can make a difference in helping to prevent violence. (3)	•	•	•	•	•
People can be taught to help prevent violence. (4)	•	•	•	•	•
Doing or saying certain kinds of things can work to help prevent violence. (5)	•	•	•	•	•
I can learn to do or say the kinds of things that help prevent violence. (6)	•	•	•	•	•
People can learn to become someone who helps others to avoid violence. (7)	•	•	•	•	•
Even people who are not involved in a fight can do things to help prevent violence. (8)	•	•	•	•	•
Even when I'm not involved and it's not about me, I can make a difference in helping to prevent violence. (9)	•	•	•	•	•

End of Block: bystander efficacy

Start of Block: friends who commit VAW

ts_drunk Please select an answer. If more than 30, select 30.

0 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30

How many FRIENDS do you have who have gotten women drunk to have sex with them? ()	
How many ACQUAINTANCES do you have who have gotten women drunk to have sex with them? ()	

Page Break

ts_viol
Please select an answer. If more than 30, select 30.

	0 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30
How many FRIENDS that are guys do you have that have committed violence within a relationship? ()	
How many ACQUAINTANCES that are guys do you have that have committed violence within a relationship? ()	

Page Break

ts_pursue Please select an answer. If more than 30, select 30.

	0 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30
How many FRIENDS that are guys do you have that have excessively pursued a woman? ()	
How many ACQUAINTANCES that are guys do you have that have excessively pursued a woman? ()	

Page Break

ts_sm
Please select an answer. If more than 30, select 30.

	0 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30
How many FRIENDS that are guys do you have that have used social media as a way to make fun of or hurt a girl? ()	
How many ACQUAINTANCES that are guys do you have that have used social media as a way to make fun of or hurt a girl? ()	

Page Break

ts_comp Please select an answer. If more than 30, select 30.

0 3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24 27 30

How many of your FRIENDS have accessed another's computer account or files without his or her knowledge or permission just to look at the information or files? ()	
How many of your ACQUAINTANCES have accessed another's computer account or files without his or her knowledge or permission just to look at the information or files? ()	

End of Block: friends who commit VAW

Start of Block: ASI

asi Please answer the following questions:

	Disagree strongly	Disagree somewhat	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree somewhat	Agree strongly
No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman. (1)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality." (2)	•	•	•	•	•	•
In a disaster, women ought to be rescued before men. (3)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist. (4)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women are too easily offended. (5)	•	•	•	•	•	•
People are not truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex. (6)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Feminists are seeking for women to have more power than men. (7)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess. (8)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women should be cherished and protected by men. (9)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them. (10)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women seek to gain power by getting control over men. (11)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores. (12)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Men are incomplete without women. (13)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women exaggerate problems they have at work. (14)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash. (15)	•	•	•	•	•	•
When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against. (16)	•	•	•	•	•	•
A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man. (17)	•	•	•	•	•	•

Many women get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances. (18)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility. (19)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives. (20)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Feminists are making unreasonable demands of men. (21)	•	•	•	•	•	•
Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste. (22)	•	•	•	•	•	•

End of Block: ASI

Start of Block: social media intensity

totalfriends About how many total friends do you have on social media (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, SnapChat, Tumblr, etc.) at USF or elsewhere?

- 10 or less (1)
- 11 to 100 (2)
- 101-200 (4)
- 201-300 (6)
- 301-400 (8)
- 401-500 (10)
- 501-600 (9)
- 601-700 (7)
- 701-800 (5)
- 801-900 (11)
- 901-1000 (12)
- 1001 or more (13)

timeonsm In the past week, on average, approximately how many minutes per day have you spent on Facebook and other social media sites (e.g., Tumblr, Instagram, SnapChat, etc.)

- Less than 10 minutes (1)
- 10-30 minutes (2)
- 31-60 minutes (3)
- 1-2 hours (4)

- 2-3 hours (5)
- More than 3 hours (6)

intensity Answer the following questions below:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Facebook and other social media sites are a part of my everyday activity	•	•	•	•	•
I feel out of touch when I haven't logged into Facebook or other social media sites in a while	•	•	•	•	•
I would feel sad if Facebook and other social media sites shut down	•	•	•	•	•
I have used Facebook and other social media to check out someone I met socially	•	•	•	•	•
I use Facebook and other social media to learn more about other people in my classes	•	•	•	•	•
I use Facebook and other social media to learn more about other people living near me	•	•	•	•	•
I use Facebook and other social media to keep in touch with my old friends	•	•	•	•	•
I use Facebook and other social media to meet new people	•	•	•	•	•

sitesused Which sites do you access 4 or more days per week (select all that apply)?

- Facebook (1)
- Instagram (2)
- Tumblr (3)
- Twitter (4)
- SnapChat (5)
- Pintrest (6)
- Kik (7)
- WhatsApp (8)
- YouTube (9)

noupdates Please answer the question. If more than 100 select 100.

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Approximately how many times per week do you post status updates on any of the social media platforms you utilize? ()	

End of Block: social media intensity

Start of Block: social support

socialsupport How often is each of the following kinds of support available to you if you need it?

	None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
Family whose advice you really want	•	•	•	•	•
Family who gives you good advice about a crisis	•	•	•	•	•
Family who gives you information to help you understand a situation	•	•	•	•	•
Family to turn to for suggestions about how to deal with a personal problem	•	•	•	•	•
Friends whose advice you really want	•	•	•	•	•
Friends who give you good advice about a crisis	•	•	•	•	•
Friends who give you information to help you understand a situation	•	•	•	•	•
Friends to turn to for suggestions about how to deal with a personal problem	•	•	•	•	•

End of Block: social support

Start of Block: VAWA

vawa Please answer the following questions:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
If a girl just ignored a guy who was always trying to contact her, he would eventually go away.	•	•	•	•	•
Posting mean things online about a person doesn't really hurt them.	•	•	•	•	•
A lot of girls lead guys on and then they claim they were raped.	•	•	•	•	•
A lot of domestic violence occurs because girls keep arguing about things with their partners.	•	•	•	•	•

If there is no actual violence in a dating relationship, it should not be considered a crime.	•	•	•	•	•
It's OK for a guy to continually ask to see his girlfriend's phone and social media accounts.	•	•	•	•	•
Repeatedly following someone, making phone calls, and leaving gifts does not actually hurt anyone.	•	•	•	•	•
If a girl continues living with a man who has hit her then it's her own fault if she is hit again.	•	•	•	•	•
It is usually only girls who wear slutty clothes that are raped.	•	•	•	•	•
Even if they were annoyed, most girls would be at least a little flattered by stalking.	•	•	•	•	•
If a guy posts threats online, there is nothing anyone can do about it.	•	•	•	•	•
Many girls have an unconscious wish to be dominated by their partners.	•	•	•	•	•
If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.	•	•	•	•	•
Girls tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.	•	•	•	•	•
Women often say one thing but mean another.	•	•	•	•	•
Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	•	•	•	•	•
Guys who are abusive lose control so much that they don't know what they're doing.	•	•	•	•	•
Stalkers only continue because they get some sort of encouragement. (18)	•	•	•	•	•
Everyone uses social media to keep track of their current or former dating partners.	•	•	•	•	•
If a girl is flirting with another guy she shouldn't be surprised if her boyfriend hits her.	•	•	•	•	•

End of Block: VAWA

Start of Block: sm ques

frreq Do you accept friend requests from people that you do not know on social media?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
-

restrictions Have you placed restrictions on who can view the content on your social media sites?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Not Sure (3)
-

loccheckin Do you use social media to check into locations you are at or have been?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

whosmfriends Are you friends with any of the following on social media? (select all that apply)

- Parents (1)
- Siblings (2)
- Aunts/Uncles (3)
- Cousins (4)
- Teachers from High School (5)
- Professors from College (6)
- Co-Workers (7)

talkparents How often do you talk to your parent(s) about what is going on in your life?

- Once per month or less (1)
- 2-3 times per month (2)
- Weekly (3)
- 2-3 days per week (4)
- Daily (5)
- More than once a day (6)

noclosefr Please answer the question. If more than 50 select 50.

	0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
How many close friends do you have? ()	

End of Block: sm ques

Start of Block: perceptions of peers helping

pph Please use the following scale to rate how likely YOUR FRIENDS are to do each of the following behaviors.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Ask a stranger if they need to be walked home from a party or get their friends to do so.	•	•	•	•	•
Criticize a friend who says they had sex with someone who was passed out or didn't give consent.	•	•	•	•	•
Do something to help a very intoxicated person who is being brought upstairs to a bedroom by a group of people at a party.	•	•	•	•	•
Do something to help a person who has had too much to drink and is passed out.	•	•	•	•	•
Confront a friend who you know is sharing sexually suggestive photos of another person without their permission.	•	•	•	•	•
Tell a campus or community authority if they see a person who has had too much to drink and is passed out.	•	•	•	•	•
Do something if they to see a woman surrounded by a group of men at a party who looks very uncomfortable.	•	•	•	•	•
Express discomfort/concern if someone makes a joke about a woman's body or about gays/lesbians or someone of a different race.	•	•	•	•	•
Knock on the door to see if everything is all right if they hear sounds of fighting or arguing through dorm or apartment walls.	•	•	•	•	•
Report a post on social media if it is offensive.	•	•	•	•	•
Go to an RA or RHD, other campus or community resource for advice on how to help if they suspect someone they know is in an abusive relationship.	•	•	•	•	•
Accompany a friend to the police department or other community resource if they needed help for an abusive relationship.	•	•	•	•	•
Ask a stranger who looks very upset at a party if they are okay or need help.	•	•	•	•	•
Ask a friend if they need to be walked home from a party.	•	•	•	•	•
Talk to people they know about the impact of using language that is negative toward groups like gays/lesbians/women/people of color.	•	•	•	•	•
Approach a friend if they thought s/he was being harassed online.	•	•	•	•	•

Speak up to someone who is making excuses for using physical force in a relationship.	•	•	•	•	•
Speak up to someone who is calling his/her partner names or swearing at them.	•	•	•	•	•
Step in and reply to comments on stories about dating or sexual violence that are blaming the victim.	•	•	•	•	•
Contact a community resource (e.g., counseling center, RA) to discuss concerns about a friend who may be in distress.	•	•	•	•	•
Educate themselves about sexual abuse and intimate partner abuse prevention and share this information with others.	•	•	•	•	•
Approach a friend if they thought s/he was in an abusive relationship to let them know they were there to help.	•	•	•	•	•
Step in and say something to someone they knew who was grabbing or pushing their partner.	•	•	•	•	•
Ask a friend everything is okay in their relationship if his/her partner appears to be making threats online.	•	•	•	•	•
Go to a community resource (crisis center, counseling center, police, professor, supervisor, etc.) if they saw someone grabbing or pushing their partner.	•	•	•	•	•

End of Block: perceptions of peers helping

Start of Block: dv victimization

Q64 **The following is a list of behaviors that sometimes happen in relationships. Please indicate whether or not a boyfriend/girlfriend or dating partner ever did any of these things to you in your lifetime. Consider experiences you may have had with any sexual or romantic partner, not just your current partner.**

pushed Pushed, grabbed or shoved you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Pushed, grabbed or shoved you != This has never happened to me

pushedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

slapped Slapped, hit, pulled your hair, or bit you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Slapped, hit, pulled your hair, or bit you != This has never happened to me

slappedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
-

Page Break

punched Punched you or threw something that could hurt you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Punched you or threw something that could hurt you != This has never happened to me

punchedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- Page Break

beaten Beaten, chocked or strangled you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)

- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Beaten, chocked or strangled you != This has never happened to me

beatenm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

threatened Threatened you with a knife, gun or other weapon

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Threatened you with a knife, gun or other weapon != This has never happened to me

threatenedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

knife Used a knife, gun or other weapon to hurt you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Used a knife, gun or other weapon to hurt you != This has never happened to me

knifem1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

phyforce Has anyone had, or attempted to have sexual contact with you by using physical force or threatening to physically harm you?

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

display This Question:

If Has anyone had, or attempted to have sexual contact with you by using physical force or threateni... != This has never happened to me

phyforcem1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

behaved Behaved in a jealous or controlling way such as, restricting what you can do, where you go, what you wear

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Behaved in a jealous or controlling way such as, restricting what you can do, where you go, what... != This has never happened to me

behavedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

limit Tried to limit contact with family or friends, or insisted on knowing where you were at all times

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)

- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Tried to limit contact with family or friends, or insisted on knowing where you were at all times != This has never happened to me

limitm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

called Called you names, put you down in front of others or made you feel inadequate on purpose

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Called you names, put you down in front of others or made you feel inadequate on purpose != This has never happened to me

calledm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

provoke Tried to provoke an argument, shouted or sworn at you, thrown objects or broken things when angry

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Tried to provoke an argument, shouted or sworn at you, thrown objects or broken things when angry != This has never happened to me

provokem1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

started Started to hit you but stopped or threatened to harm you or someone you know

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Started to hit you but stopped or threatened to harm you or someone you know != This has never happened to me

startedm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

dvconsent Has someone had sexual contact with you when you were unable to provide consent or stop what was happening because you were passed out, drugged, drunk, incapacitated, or asleep?

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Has someone had sexual contact with you when you were unable to provide consent or stop what was... != This has never happened to me

dvconsentm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

spread Spread rumors about you or posted embarrassing pictures, videos or stories about you using a cell phone, e-mail, IM, web chat, social networking site, etc.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)

- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Spread rumors about you or posted embarrassing pictures, videos or stories about you using a cell... != This has never happened to me

spreadm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

created Created a social media page about you, or used your social media account(s) without your permission or as a way to harass or put you down

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Created a social media page about you, or used your social media account(s) without your permissi... != This has never happened to me

createdm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Page Break

pressured Pressured or threatened you to send naked or sexual photos

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Pressured or threatened you to send naked or sexual photos != This has never happened to me

pressuredm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)

- No (2)

Page Break

cyberthreat Threatened to harm you or someone you know physically using a cell phone, text message, social networking page, etc.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Threatened to harm you or someone you know physically using a cell phone, text message, social ne... != This has never happened to me

cyberthreatm1 Have you experienced this by more than one partner?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

End of Block: dv victimization

Start of Block: stalking vict

Q102 **Since beginning college not including bill collectors, telephone solicitors, or other sales people, please indicate if anyone, male or female, has ever done any of these things to you:**

followed Followed you, spied on you or stood outside your home, classes or other places you were

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Followed you, spied on you or stood outside your home, classes or other places you were != This has never happened to me

followedfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

communicate Tried to communicate with you against your will

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Tried to communicate with you against your will != This has never happened to me

communicatefri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

nwanteditems Left unwanted items for you to find

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Left unwanted items for you to find != This has never happened to me

unwanteditemsfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

vandalized Vandalized your property or destroyed something that was yours

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)

- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Vandalized your property or destroyed something that was yours != This has never happened to me

vandalizedfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

threatkill Threatened to harm or kill you or a loved one

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Threatened to harm or kill you or a loved one != This has never happened to me

threatkillfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

sexstalk Made unwanted sexual suggestions, sent obscene material to you, or sexually approached you against your will?

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Made unwanted sexual suggestions, sent obscene material to you, or sexually approached you agains... != This has never happened to me

sexstalkfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

contfam Increased contact with friends or family members as a way to stay involved in your life or to check up on you

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Increased contact with friends or family members as a way to stay involved in your life or to che... != This has never happened to me

contfamfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

gps Used GPS or other tracking devices to monitor your location or internet usage

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Used GPS or other tracking devices to monitor your location or internet usage != This has never happened to me

gpsfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)

- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

smstalk Used social media accounts in order to gain access to you or your friends and family

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Used social media accounts in order to gain access to you or your friends and family != This has never happened to me

smstalkfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

phone Made unsolicited phone calls or tried to communicate in other ways that utilized technology against your will

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Made unsolicited phone calls or tried to communicate in other ways that utilized technology again... != This has never happened to me

phonefri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

posted Posted unwanted messages, pictures or videos of or about you to social media or internet websites

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Posted unwanted messages, pictures or videos of or about you to social media or internet websites != This has never happened to me

postedfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

usedsmloc Used information from your social networking site(s) to find your location

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Used information from your social networking site(s) to find your location != This has never happened to me

usedsmlocfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

messthreat Sent messages, such as social media posts or text/email, that threatened to harm you, your friends, family, pets, possessions, etc.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)

- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Sent messages, such as social media posts or text/email, that threatened to harm you, your friend... != This has never happened to me

messthreatfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

sentsexharass Sent sexually harassing messages that commented on your appearance, described hypothetical sexual acts between you, made sexually demeaning remarks, etc.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Sent sexually harassing messages that commented on your appearance, described hypothetical sexual... != This has never happened to me

sentsexharassfri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

messunsafe Sent you so many messages (like texts, e-mails, chats) that it made you feel unsafe

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

Display This Question:

If Sent you so many messages (like texts, e-mails, chats) that it made you feel unsafe != This has never happened to me

messunsafefri How frightened were you by this?

- Very frightened (1)
- Somewhat frightened (2)
- Just a little frightened (3)
- Not really frightened (4)

Page Break

stalksameperson Thinking about the actions just described, has the same person done more than one of the above things to you?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

End of Block: stalking vict

Start of Block: sv victimization

Q143 **Please indicate if any of the following have ever happened to you.**

fondled Fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of your body (lips, breast/chest, crotch or butt) or removed some of your clothes without your consent (but did not attempt sexual penetration)

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

oral Had oral sex with you or made you have oral sex with them without your consent

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

penetrated Sexually penetrated you with a finger or object (someone putting their finger or an object like a bottle or a candle in your vagina or anus)

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)

- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)
-

forcesexcont Had sexual contact with you by using physical force or threatening to physically harm you?

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

attemptedcont Attempted but not succeeded in having sexual contact with you by using or threatening to use physical force against you?

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

incapac Had sexual contact with you when you were unable to provide consent or stop what was happening because you were passed out, drugged, drunk, incapacitated, or asleep? This question asks about incidents that you are certain happened.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

photos Sent unsolicited sexual photos or naked photos

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)

- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

threatphoto Pressured or threatened you to send naked or sexual pictures of yourself

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

smmessagesex Sent text messages, email, or posts or messages on social media to have sex or engage in sexual acts that you did not want to

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

threatsm Threatened to post sexual pictures or videos of you on social media

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

postedpics Posted sexual pictures or videos on the internet without your permission

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

harassmess Sent sexually harassing messages that commented on your appearance, described hypothetical sexual acts between you, made sexually demeaning remarks, etc.

- Once (1)
- Twice (2)
- 3-5 times (3)
- 6-10 times (4)
- 11-20 times (5)
- More than 20 times (6)
- This has never happened to me (7)

End of Block: sv victimization

Start of Block: demographics

age

	18	26	34	43	51	59	67	75	84	92	100
How old are you? ()											

gender How do you describe yourself?

- Female (1)
- Male (2)
- Transgender (3)
- Other (4)

sexorient Do you think of yourself as? (Check all that apply)

- Heterosexual/straight (1)
- Gay or lesbian (2)
- Bisexual (3)
- Transgender, transsexual, or gender non-conforming (4)
- Other (5)

scyear What is your year in school?

- Freshman (1)
- Sophomore (2)
- Junior (3)
- Senior (4)
- Graduate Student (5)
- Non-degree seeking (6)

- Other (7)

locresidence What is the location of your residence?

- On campus dorm (1)
- Off campus apartment (3)
- Off campus house not with parents (4)
- Off campus house with parents (5)
- Other (6)

Page Break

greek Are you a member of a Greek organization?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
-

sportsteam Are you a member of a sports team at USF?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

veteran Are you a military veteran?

- Yes (1)
- No (3)

nostudentorgs How many student organizations are you a part of?

_____

Page Break

hispanic Are you Hispanic?

- Yes (1)
- No (3)

race What is your race/ethnicity?

- White (1)
- Black or African American (2)
- American Indian or Alaska Native (3)
- Asian (4)
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (5)
- Other (6)

major What is your major?

_____

gpa What is your overall college GPA (community college and USF)?

- 0.0- 1.0 (1)
- 1.1 - 2.0 (2)
- 2.1 - 3.0 (3)
- 3.1 - 4.0 (4)

datingrelationship Are you currently in a dating relationship?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

bystander Have you participated in a bystander intervention program while at USF?

- Yes (1)
- No (3)

smaccounts Do you have an account with the following social media sites? (Select all that apply)

- Facebook (1)
- Instagram (2)
- Tumblr (3)
- Twitter (4)
- SnapChat (5)
- Pintrest (6)
- Kik (7)
- Whats App (8)
- YouTube (9)

End of Block: demographics

APPENDIX 2:

VARIABLES USED TABLE

Table 1A. Variables Used

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Dependent Variables				
Types of Intervention	Direct Intervention Indirect Intervention Non-Intervention	1 = Yes 0 = No		1
Intervention Intentions	1 = Very Unlikely 2 = Unlikely 3 = Neither unlikely nor likely 4 = Likely 5 = Very Likely			1
Victimization Any (Dating Violence = 17 Questions; Sexual Violence = 12 Questions; Stalking = 15 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to any question 0 = No	Dating Violence α = 0.80 Sexual Violence α = 0.82 Stalking α = 0.78	2 3
In-Person Victimization (Dating Violence = 13 Questions; Sexual Violence = 6 Questions; Stalking = 6 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to any question 0 = No	Dating Violence α = 0.79 Sexual Violence α = 0.78 Stalking α = 0.60	2 3
Cyber Victimization (Dating Violence = 4 Questions' Sexual Violence = 6 Questions, Stalking = 9 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to any question 0 = No	Dating Violence α = 0.53 Sexual Violence α = 0.74 Stalking α = 0.69	2 3

Table 1A Continued

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Independent Variables				
Characterizations of Jessica				
Emotional Support	1 = Definitely Not 2 = Probably Not 3 = Might or Might Not 4 = Probably Yes 5 = Definitely Yes			1
Physical Protection	1 = Definitely Not 2 = Probably Not 3 = Might or Might Not 4 = Probably Yes 5 = Definitely Yes			1
Characterizations of Michael				
Behavior Threatening	1 = Definitely Not 2 = Probably Not 3 = Might or Might Not 4 = Probably Yes 5 = Definitely Yes			1
Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (22 Questions)	1 = Disagree Strongly 2 = Disagree Somewhat 3 = Disagree Slightly 4 = Agree Slightly 5 = Agree Somewhat 6 = Agree Strongly		**Hostile Sexism** Overall α = 0.94 Dating Violence α = 0.95 Sexual Violence α = 0.94 Stalking α = 0.94 **Benevolent Sexism** Overall α = 0.90 Dating Violence α = 0.89 Sexual Violence α = 0.90 Stalking α = 0.89	1 2 3
Attitudes towards Violence against Women Scale (ATVAW) (20 questions)	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree		Overall α = 0.93 Dating Violence α = 0.94 Sexual Violence α = 0.92 Stalking α = 0.94	1 2 3

Table 1A Continued

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Bystander Efficacy (9 Questions)	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree		Overall α = 0.92 Dating Violence α = 0.93 Sexual Violence α = 0.91 Stalking α = 0.93	1 2 3
Perceptions of Peers Helping (25 Questions)	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree		Overall α = 0.95 Dating Violence α = 0.96 Sexual Violence α = 0.94 Stalking α = 0.96	1 2 3
Victimization				
Dating Violence (17 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to at least 1 Question 0 = None	α = 0.82	1
Sexual Violence (12 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to at least 1 Question 0 = None	α = 0.84	1
Stalking Victimization (15 Questions)	1 = Once 2 = Twice 3 = 3-5 Times 4 = 6-10 Times 5 = 11-20 Times 6 = More than 20 Times 7 = Never	1 = Yes to at least 1 Question 0 = None	α = 0.81	

Table 1A Continued

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Social Media Usage				
Sites used 4+ Days/Week	Facebook Instagram Tumblr Twitter SnapChat Pintrest Kik WhatsApp YouTube	1 = Yes if used 4+ Sites 0 = No		1
Above Average Updates	0 - 100	1 = Yes 0 = No		1
Proximity to People who Victimize women (5 Questions about Friends & Acquaintances)	0 - 30	1 = Yes 0 = No if clicked 0 or left question blank and answered yes to at least 1 question in section		2
Routine Activities/Lifestyles (15 questions)	0 - 100	1 = Yes 0 = No if clicked 0 or left question blank and answered yes to at least 1 question in section		2
Primary Risky Drinking Location (3 Dummy Variables)	Parties at Friend's houses Parties at Strangers Houses Parties at Fraternity or Sorority Houses Your own House Bars Restaurants I do not drink Other	Drink in bars; Drink at Frat parties; Drink at Parties 1 = Yes 0 = No		2
Facebook Intensity Scale (5 Questions)	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree		α=0.72	2
Off to Online Scale (4 Questions)	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree		α=0.75	2

Table 1A Continued

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Talk to Parents Daily	1 = Once per month or less 2 = 2-3 Times per month 3 = Weekly 4 = 2=3 Days per week 5 = Daily 6 = More than once a day	5 or 6 = Yes 1 – 4 = No		2
Friends with Parents on Social Media	1 = Yes 0 = No			2
Family Support (4 Questions)	1 = None of the time 2 = A little of the time 3 = Some of the time 4 = Most of the time 5 = All of the time		α=0.96	2
Friend Support (4 Questions)	1 = None of the time 2 = A little of the time 3 = Some of the time 4 = Most of the time 5 = All of the time		α=0.96	2
Total Friends on Social Media	1 = 10 or less 2 = 11-100 3 = 101-200 4 = 201-300 5 = 301-400 6 = 401-500 7 = 501-600 8 = 601-700 9 = 701-800 10 = 801-900 11 = 901-1000 12 = 1001 or more			2
Close Friends	0-50			2
Meet New People Online	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree			2
Social Media Private	0 = No 1 = Yes 2 = Not Sure			2
Restrictions on Content Viewing	0 = No 1 = Yes 2 = Not Sure			2

Table 1A Continued

Variable	Value	Coding for Analysis	Alpha	Research Goal
Used Social Media to Check into Locations	1 = Yes 0 = No			2
Bystander Intervention Program	1 = Yes 0 = No			3
Demographic Variables				
Gender	1 = Male 2 = Female			
Race/Ethnicity	1 = White 2 = Black 3 = Hispanic 4 = Other			
Class Year	1 = Freshman 2 = Sophomore 3 = Junior 4 = Senior 5 = Other			
Greek Organization Member	1 = Yes 0 = No			
Sports Team Member	1 = Yes 0 = No			
Dating Relationship	1 = Yes 0 = No			
Bystander Intervention Program	1 = Yes 0 = No			

APPENDIX 3:

PROXIMITY VARIABLES MISSING DATA

Table 2A. Missing Data on Proximity Variables

	Friends				Acquaintances			
	Freq.	%	# Missing	% Yes	Freq.	%	# Missing	% Yes
Women drunk to have sex with them	74	33	348	15	172	61	293	35
Committed physical violence within a relationship	116	45	315	23	208	66	260	42
Excessively pursued a woman	218	63	228	44	290	79	207	58
Used social media to hurt a girl	187	56	240	38	297	79	196	60
Accessed another's computer without permission	155	56	295	31	160	58	297	32

APPENDIX 4:

SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Table 3A. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on High Rates of Victimization

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Parties	-0.55	0.28	0.58	*	-1.00	0.36	0.37	**				
Friends	0.50	0.24	1.64	*	0.43	0.28	1.54					
Sports	-0.91	0.30	0.40	**								
Pursue Friend	0.43	0.23	1.54									
Pursue Acquaintance	0.74	0.24	2.10	**								
Social Media Friend	0.52	0.23	1.68	*								
Social Media Acquaintance					0.87	0.30	2.39	**	0.86	0.28	2.36	**
Computer Friend					0.65	0.26	1.91	*				
Drink at Frat Parties	1.12	0.55	3.05	*								
Male	-0.78	0.28	0.74	**	-1.00	0.40	0.37	*	-0.63	0.34	0.53	
Heterosexual	-0.30	0.28	0.86		-0.49	0.31	0.61		-0.35	0.31	0.70	
Hispanic	-0.15	0.24	0.82		-0.01	0.30	0.99		-0.28	0.30	0.76	
Black	-0.20	0.31	1.40		-0.40	0.38	0.67		0.26	0.34	1.29	
Other Race	0.34	0.31	0.99		-0.72	0.46	0.49		0.81	0.35	2.24	*
Veteran	-0.01	0.58	1.50		0.14	0.70	1.14		-0.16	0.79	0.85	
Sophomore	0.41	0.39	1.61		-0.05	0.50	0.95		0.46	0.48	1.58	
Junior	0.48	0.34	1.93		0.37	0.42	1.44		0.18	0.43	1.20	
Senior	0.66	0.34	1.42		0.33	0.43	1.39		0.92	0.41	2.51	
Greek Member	0.35	0.34	1.42		0.13	0.42	1.14		-0.12	0.36	0.88	
Sports Team Member	0.35	0.51	0.24		0.28	0.56	1.32		0.75	0.49	2.11	
Constant	-1.44	0.42		***	-1.84	0.51	0.16	***	-2.26	0.50	0.10	***
Pseudo R^2			0.1215				0.1161				0.0752	
	N=491				N=491				N=491			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(7)=49.35$***				LR $Chi^2(4)=27.21$***				LR $Chi^2(1)=10.04$***			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 4A. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on Severe In-Person Victimization

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.81	0.28	2.24	**				
Friends									0.75	0.25	2.13	**
Sports									-0.64	0.31	0.53	*
Shop Online									-0.85	0.28	0.43	**
Drunk Acquaintance									0.59	0.24	1.80	*
Pursue Friend					0.84	0.25	2.31	***	0.72	0.22	2.05	***
Social Media Friend	0.61	0.24	1.84	*								
Social Media Acquaintance	0.77	0.26	2.15	**					1.00	0.24	2.73	***
Computer Friend					0.69	0.25	2	**				
Male	-1.76	0.37	0.17	***	-2.51	0.49	0.08	***	-1.40	0.31	0.25	***
Heterosexual	-0.67	0.28	0.51		-0.85	0.29	0.43	**	-0.62	0.29	0.54	*
Hispanic	-0.14	0.26	0.87		-0.15	0.28	0.86		0.01	0.26	1.01	
Black	0.01	0.31	1.01		-0.13	0.35	0.88		-0.10	0.32	0.90	
Other Race	0.47	0.33	1.60		-0.03	0.37	0.97		0.28	0.32	1.32	
Veteran	1.02	0.57	2.77		1.20	0.62	3.34		-0.05	0.63	0.95	
Sophomore	0.21	0.44	1.23		1.06	0.48	2.89	*	-0.10	0.40	0.91	
Junior	0.57	0.36	1.78		0.97	0.42	2.64	*	0.00	0.33	1.00	
Senior	0.99	0.36	2.69	**	0.93	0.42	2.53	*	0.18	0.34	1.20	
Greek Member	0.00	0.32	1.00		-0.18	0.36	0.84		0.06	0.32	1.06	
Sports Team Member	-0.34	0.54	0.71		-0.23	0.57	0.80		-0.23	0.54	0.79	
Constant	-1.48	0.43	0.23	***	-1.82	0.46	0.16	***	-0.90	0.42	0.41	
Pseudo R^2	0.1364				0.172				0.191			
	N=491				N=491				N=491			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(2)=26.39$***				LR $Chi^2(3)=35.28$***				LR $Chi^2(6)=71.67$***			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 5A. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on High Rates of Victimization

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Attitudes towards VAW	-0.74	0.23	0.48	***								
Benevolent Sexism	-0.25	0.13	0.78	*					-0.28	0.12	0.76	*
Hostile Sexism	0.34	0.12	1.40	**								
Male	-0.74	0.25	0.48	**					-0.35	0.31	0.70	
Heterosexual	-0.58	0.26	0.56	*					-0.34	0.29	0.71	
Hispanic	-0.06	0.22	0.95						-0.21	0.28	0.81	
Black	-0.22	0.28	0.81						0.25	0.33	1.28	
Other Race	0.18	0.28	1.20						0.65	0.33	1.91	*
Veteran	0.09	0.56	1.09						-0.27	0.78	0.77	
Sophomore	0.18	0.35	1.20						0.14	0.44	1.15	
Junior	0.15	0.30	1.16						-0.02	0.39	0.98	
Senior	0.44	0.30	1.55						0.63	0.37	1.88	
Greek Member	0.39	0.28	1.47						0.13	0.34	1.13	
Sports Team Member	0.63	0.43	1.88						1.24	0.43	3.47	**
Constant	0.68	0.44	1.97						-0.99	0.46	0.37	*
Pseudo R^2			0.0544								0.0532	
	N=567								N=567			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(2)=12.41$**								LR $Chi^2(1)=4.86$*			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 6A. Logistic Regression of Target Suitability Variables on Severe In-Person Victimization

	Dating Violence			Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Attitudes towards VAW				-0.46	0.21	0.63	*	-0.31	0.17	0.74	
Male				-1.92	0.43	0.15	***	-1.26	0.27	0.28	***
Heterosexual				-0.86	0.26	0.42	***	-0.86	0.25	0.42	***
Hispanic				-0.18	0.26	0.84		-0.16	0.22	0.85	
Black				-0.25	0.30	0.78		-0.57	0.27	0.56	*
Other Race				0.01	0.33	1.01		0.10	0.28	1.11	
Veteran				1.20	0.61	3.32	*	-0.10	0.60	0.90	
Sophomore				0.49	0.43	1.64		-0.26	0.34	0.77	
Junior				0.57	0.37	1.78		-0.23	0.29	0.79	
Senior				0.71	0.37	2.03		-0.09	0.29	0.92	
Greek Member				0.18	0.32	1.20		0.18	0.28	1.20	
Sports Team Member				0.24	0.51	1.27		0.05	0.44	1.05	
Constant				-0.04	0.50	0.96		1.13	0.42	3.09	**
Pseudo R^2				0.1043				0.053.08142			
				N=567				N=567			
Likelihood Ratio Test				LR $Chi^2(1)=5.23$**				LR $Chi^2(1)=3.27$			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 7A. Logistic Regression of Capable Guardian Variables on High Rates of Victimization

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Family Support	-0.22	0.08	0.80	**	-0.32	0.10	0.72	***				
Total Friends on SM	0.06	0.02	1.06	*								
SM Location Checkin									0.50	0.24	1.65	*
Bystander Efficacy									-0.31	0.20	0.74	
Male	-0.91	0.25	0.40	***	-1.12	0.37	0.33	**	-0.51	0.31	0.60	
Heterosexual	-0.40	0.25	0.67		-0.57	0.29	0.56	*	-0.41	0.30	0.66	
Hispanic	-0.08	0.23	0.92		0.08	0.28	1.08		-0.24	0.29	0.79	
Black	-0.52	0.28	0.59		-0.30	0.33	0.74		-0.03	0.33	0.97	
Other Race	0.06	0.28	1.06		-1.13	0.45	0.32	*	0.60	0.33	1.82	
Veteran	0.03	0.55	1.03		0.26	0.67	1.30		-0.16	0.78	0.85	
Sophomore	0.04	0.35	1.05		0.04	0.47	1.04		-0.06	0.45	0.94	
Junior	0.11	0.30	1.11		0.34	0.40	1.41		-0.08	0.39	0.93	
Senior	0.39	0.30	1.47		0.54	0.40	1.71		0.52	0.37	1.68	
Greek Member	0.14	0.29	1.15		-0.33	0.39	0.72		0.14	0.34	1.15	
Sports Team Member	0.23	0.42	1.26		0.47	0.49	1.60		0.97	0.44	2.64	*
Constant	0.18	0.48	1.20		0.15	0.56	1.16		-0.42	0.95	0.66	
Pseudo R^2	0.0559				0.0776				0.0573			
	N=559				N=559				N=559			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(2)=11.56$**				LR $Chi^2(1)=10.05$**				LR $Chi^2(2)=7.23$			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

Table 8A. Logistic Regression of Capable Guardian Variables on Severe In-Person Victimization

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Family Support	-0.27	0.09	0.76	**								
Total Friends on SM									0.05	0.02	1.05	*
Residence less Guarded	0.64	0.23	1.90	**	0.56	0.23	1.75	*				
Bystander Int. Participant	0.62	0.33	1.86						0.54	0.31	1.72	
Male	-1.92	0.36	0.15	***	-2.12	0.43	0.12	***	-1.33	0.27	0.26	***
Heterosexual	-0.48	0.27	0.62		-0.80	0.26	0.45	**	-0.81	0.25	0.44	***
Hispanic	-0.28	0.25	0.76		-0.20	0.26	0.82		-0.16	0.23	0.85	
Black	-0.15	0.29	0.86		-0.40	0.31	0.67		-0.68	0.28	0.51	*
Other Race	0.35	0.31	1.42		0.02	0.33	1.02		0.11	0.28	1.11	
Veteran	0.78	0.56	2.18		0.92	0.61	2.52		-0.19	0.60	0.83	
Sophomore	-0.26	0.43	0.77		0.27	0.44	1.32		-0.26	0.34	0.77	
Junior	0.18	0.36	1.20		0.35	0.39	1.43		-0.18	0.29	0.83	
Senior	0.42	0.36	1.52		0.40	0.39	1.49		-0.09	0.29	0.91	
Greek Member	-0.03	0.32	0.97		0.15	0.33	1.16		0.02	0.29	1.02	
Sports Team Member	0.12	0.49	1.12		0.15	0.51	1.16		-0.08	0.44	0.93	
Constant	0.17	0.51	1.19		-0.86	0.39	0.42	*	0.22	0.37	1.25	
Pseudo R^2			0.1263		0.1048				0.087			
	N=559				N=559				N=559			
Likelihood Ratio Test	LR $Chi^2(3)=22.32$***				LR $Chi^2(1)=5.74$*				LR $Chi^2(2)=7.00$*			

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

APPENDIX 5:

PRELIMINARY AND INTERMEDIATE MODELS

Table 9A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Restaurant	-0.26	0.33	0.77		-0.25	0.28	0.78		0.01	0.28	1.01	
Bar	0.46	0.41	1.58		1.02	0.35	2.77	[a]	0.02	0.33	1.02	
Parties	-0.06	0.36	0.94		0.06	0.32	1.07		-0.18	0.30	0.84	
School Orgs.	-0.06	0.35	0.94		-0.35	0.32	0.71		0.02	0.31	1.02	
Friends	1.04	0.36	2.82	[a]	0.27	0.28	1.31		0.86	0.28	2.35	[a]
Shopping	-0.38	0.35	0.68		-0.12	0.30	0.89		-0.29	0.30	0.75	
Sports	-0.27	0.34	0.76		-0.71	0.30	0.49	[a]	-0.24	0.30	0.79	
School	-0.43	0.28	0.65	[a]	-0.20	0.25	0.82		-0.06	0.24	0.94	
Work	0.10	0.28	1.11		-0.08	0.24	0.92		0.14	0.24	1.15	
Email	-0.52	0.35	0.60	[a]	-0.44	0.31	0.64		-0.15	0.30	0.86	
Social Media	0.13	0.35	1.13		-0.20	0.30	0.82		-0.26	0.30	0.77	
Shopping Online	-0.17	0.34	0.85		-0.33	0.30	0.72		-0.27	0.30	0.76	
Chatting Online	-0.28	0.32	0.76		0.52	0.29	1.69	[a]	0.10	0.28	1.11	
Searching Info Online	0.53	0.34	1.70	[a]	-0.38	0.29	0.69		-0.51	0.28	0.60	[a]
Drink in Bars	-0.25	0.48	0.78		-0.57	0.40	0.57		0.46	0.38	1.58	
Drink at Frat Parties	-0.29	0.76	0.75		-0.27	0.62	0.76		0.10	0.61	1.10	
Drink at Parties	-0.45	0.36	0.64		-0.08	0.33	0.92		0.11	0.31	1.11	
Drunk Friend	0.18	0.48	1.20		0.15	0.39	1.16		-0.21	0.38	0.81	
Drunk Acq.	0.22	0.34	1.25		0.21	0.30	1.24		0.44	0.28	1.55	[a]
Violence Friend	0.59	0.39	1.81	[a]	0.19	0.31	1.21		0.18	0.30	1.20	
Violence Acq.	0.03	0.30	1.03		-0.02	0.26	0.98		0.25	0.25	1.29	
Pursue Friend	0.09	0.29	1.10		0.30	0.25	1.36		0.59	0.24	1.80	[a]
Pursue Acq.	0.15	0.29	1.16		-0.04	0.26	0.96		-0.19	0.26	0.83	
Social Media Friend	-0.26	0.31	0.77		-0.21	0.27	0.81		-0.13	0.26	0.88	
Social Media Acq.	0.80	0.30	2.22	[a]	0.89	0.27	2.43	[a]	0.82	0.26	2.28	[a]
Computer Friend	0.33	0.34	1.39		0.60	0.28	1.81	[a]	0.34	0.27	1.41	
Computer Acq.	0.68	0.37	1.96	[a]	0.13	0.29	1.14		0.14	0.28	1.14	
Social Media Intensity	0.07	0.19	1.07		-0.08	0.17	0.92		0.04	0.16	1.04	

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 10A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.71	0.27	2.04	*				
Friends	0.81	0.30	2.24	*					0.66	0.23	1.93	*
Sports					-0.71	0.28	0.49	*				
School	-0.44	0.27	0.65									
Email	-0.64	0.32	0.53	*	-0.72	0.26	0.49	*				
Chatting Online					0.21	0.25	1.23					
Searching Info Online	0.46	0.31	1.58						-0.69	0.24	0.50	*
Drunk Acq.									0.40	0.23	1.49	
Violence Friend	0.61	0.33	1.85									
Pursue Friend									0.60	0.21	1.81	*
Social Media Acq.	0.84	0.25	2.31	*	0.86	0.22	2.37	*	0.92	0.22	2.51	*
Computer Friend	0.86	0.32	2.36	*								
Computer Acq.					0.66	0.23	1.93	*				

* $p < 0.05$

Table 11A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Restaurant	-0.25	0.32	0.78		-0.25	0.28	0.78		-0.38	0.29	0.68	
Bar	0.34	0.39	1.40		1.00	0.33	2.73	[a]	0.28	0.34	1.32	
Parties	0.28	0.35	1.32		-0.12	0.31	0.89		0.47	0.32	1.60	[a]
School Orgs.	-0.14	0.34	0.87		-0.09	0.32	0.92		0.00	0.33	1.00	
Friends	0.81	0.33	2.24	[a]	0.04	0.27	1.04		0.72	0.29	2.06	[a]
Shopping	-0.47	0.34	0.62		-0.11	0.30	0.89		-0.26	0.32	0.77	
Sports	-0.40	0.33	0.67		-0.62	0.30	0.54	[a]	-0.31	0.32	0.73	
School	-0.32	0.27	0.73		-0.35	0.25	0.70		0.17	0.26	1.18	
Work	0.16	0.26	1.17		-0.04	0.24	0.96		0.33	0.26	1.39	
Email	-0.41	0.34	0.66		-0.21	0.30	0.81		0.04	0.32	1.04	
Social Media	0.23	0.33	1.26		0.08	0.30	1.09		-0.54	0.31	0.58	[a]
Shopping Online	0.01	0.33	1.01		-0.03	0.30	0.97		-0.20	0.31	0.82	
Chatting Online	-0.40	0.31	0.67		0.36	0.29	1.44		0.23	0.30	1.26	
Searching Info Online	0.63	0.33	1.87	[a]	0.13	0.28	1.14		-0.69	0.30	0.50	[a]
Drink in Bars	-0.10	0.45	0.90		-0.38	0.38	0.68		-0.30	0.39	0.74	
Drink at Frat Parties	0.15	0.74	1.16		-0.13	0.61	0.88		-0.22	0.62	0.80	
Drink at Parties	-0.20	0.35	0.82		-0.08	0.32	0.92		-0.24	0.34	0.79	
Drunk Friend	0.15	0.45	1.17		-0.05	0.37	0.95		-0.86	0.39	0.42	[a]
Drunk Acq.	-0.02	0.33	0.98		0.25	0.28	1.28		0.74	0.30	2.10	[a]
Violence Friend	0.42	0.37	1.52		-0.04	0.30	0.97		0.23	0.31	1.26	
Violence Acq.	0.27	0.29	1.31		0.46	0.25	1.58	[a]	0.18	0.26	1.20	
Pursue Friend	0.10	0.27	1.10		0.23	0.24	1.26		0.46	0.26	1.58	[a]
Pursue Acq.	0.18	0.28	1.19		0.05	0.26	1.05		0.10	0.27	1.10	
Social Media Friend	-0.03	0.30	0.97		0.25	0.26	1.28		-0.22	0.27	0.81	
Social Media Acq.	0.78	0.29	2.19	[a]	0.70	0.27	2.01	[a]	0.32	0.28	1.37	
Computer Friend	0.33	0.32	1.40		0.41	0.27	1.50	[a]	0.34	0.27	1.40	
Computer Acq.	0.55	0.34	1.73	[a]	0.12	0.28	1.13		0.52	0.28	1.68	[a]
Social Media Intensity	0.00	0.18	1.00		-0.19	0.17	0.82		-0.32	0.17	0.73	[a]

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 12A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.83	0.26	3.16	0.002				
Parties									0.3	0.28	1.35	*
Friends	0.56	0.27	2.11	*					0.65	0.26	1.91	
Sports					-0.60	0.28	-2.14	0.033				
School					-0.26	0.21	-1.23	0.219				
Email												
Social Media									-0.63	0.27	0.53	*
Chatting Online												
Searching Info Online	0.22	0.27	0.82						-0.68	0.26	0.51	*
SM Intensity									-0.27	0.16	0.76	
Drunk Friend									-0.7	0.34	0.49	*
Drunk Acq.									0.79	0.27	2.20	*
Violence Acq.					0.54	0.22	2.49	0.013				
Pursue Friend									0.59	0.23	1.81	*
Social Media Acq.	0.97	0.24	4.04	*	0.79	0.23	3.52	0				
Computer Friend					0.53	0.22	2.38	0.017				
Computer Acq.	0.79	0.30	2.65	*					0.72	0.23	2.05	*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 13A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Cyber Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Restaurant	0.13	0.27	1.14		-0.38	0.29	0.68		-0.01	0.27	0.99	
Bar	0.04	0.33	1.04		0.99	0.34	2.70	[a]	-0.03	0.32	0.97	
Parties	-0.37	0.32	0.69		0.10	0.32	1.10		-0.39	0.30	0.68	
School Orgs.	-0.58	0.34	0.56	[a]	-0.40	0.34	0.67		0.17	0.31	1.18	
Friends	0.37	0.27	1.45		0.36	0.28	1.43		0.47	0.27	1.60	[a]
Shopping	-0.23	0.30	0.80		-0.07	0.31	0.93		-0.10	0.30	0.91	
Sports	0.11	0.30	1.12		-0.42	0.31	0.66		-0.26	0.30	0.77	
School	-0.15	0.25	0.86		-0.01	0.26	0.99		0.17	0.24	1.19	
Work	0.22	0.24	1.24		-0.35	0.25	0.70		0.34	0.24	1.40	
Email	-0.16	0.31	0.86		-0.54	0.32	0.59	[a]	-0.24	0.31	0.79	
Social Media	-0.03	0.30	0.97		-0.22	0.31	0.80		0.03	0.30	1.03	
Shopping Online	-0.19	0.30	0.82		-0.27	0.31	0.76		-0.78	0.31	0.46	[a]
Chatting Online	-0.16	0.29	0.85		0.41	0.30	1.51		0.19	0.29	1.21	
Searching Info Online	-0.11	0.28	0.90		-0.51	0.29	0.60	[a]	-0.14	0.28	0.87	
Drink in Bars	0.12	0.37	1.13		-0.56	0.39	0.57	[a]	0.43	0.37	1.53	
Drink at Frat Parties	0.87	0.60	2.39	[a]	0.08	0.62	1.08		0.16	0.59	1.18	
Drink at Parties	-0.28	0.33	0.76		0.23	0.33	1.26		0.31	0.31	1.36	
Drunk Friend	0.13	0.37	1.14		0.08	0.39	1.09		0.04	0.37	1.04	
Drunk Acq.	-0.18	0.29	0.83		0.16	0.30	1.17		0.19	0.28	1.21	
Violence Friend	-0.26	0.30	0.77		0.05	0.31	1.06		0.06	0.29	1.06	
Violence Acq.	0.80	0.25	2.23	[a]	-0.31	0.27	0.73		0.46	0.25	1.59	[a]
Pursue Friend	0.14	0.25	1.15		0.10	0.25	1.11		0.41	0.24	1.51	[a]
Pursue Acq.	0.04	0.27	1.04		-0.04	0.27	0.96		-0.22	0.26	0.81	
Social Media Friend	0.56	0.26	1.75	[a]	-0.02	0.27	0.98		-0.02	0.25	0.98	
Social Media Acq.	0.32	0.28	1.38		0.73	0.28	2.08	[a]	0.92	0.28	2.52	[a]
Computer Friend	0.16	0.26	1.17		0.71	0.28	2.04	[a]	0.47	0.26	1.60	[a]
Computer Acq.	0.36	0.28	1.43		0.12	0.28	1.12		0.10	0.27	1.11	
Social Media Intensity	-0.03	0.17	0.97		-0.09	0.17	0.91		-0.02	0.17	0.98	

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 14A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of Cyber Victimization and Target Suitability Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Bar					0.91	0.31	2.49	*				
Friends									0.40	0.23	1.50	
School Orgs.	-0.63	0.32	0.53	*								
Email					-0.69	0.28	0.50	*				
Shop Online									-0.79	0.27	0.45	*
Searching Info Online					-0.46	0.26	0.63					
Drink in Bars					-0.69	0.36	0.50					
Drink at Frat Parties	0.71	0.53	2.04									
Violence Acquaintance	0.86	0.21	2.36	*					0.44	0.22	1.55	*
Pursue Friend									0.41	0.21	1.51	
Social Media Friend	0.75	0.21	2.12	*								
Social Media Acq.					0.68	0.23	1.98	*	0.87	0.23	2.40	*
Computer Friend					0.73	0.23	2.07	*	0.53	0.22	1.70	*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 15A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence			Sexual Violence			Stalking		
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
VAW Acceptance	-0.13	0.22	0.88	-0.39	0.21	0.68 [a]	-0.28	0.20	0.76
Benevolent Sexism	-0.14	0.13	0.87	-0.05	0.12	0.95	-0.13	0.12	0.87
Hostile Sexism	0.13	0.13	1.13	-0.02	0.12	0.98	0.16	0.12	1.17

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 16A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Attitudes towards VAW					-0.45	0.16	0.64	*				

* $p < 0.05$

Table 17A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
VAW Acceptance	-0.14	0.21	0.87		-0.42	0.21	0.65	[a]	-0.47	0.22	0.62	[a]
Benevolent Sexism	-0.13	0.12	0.88		-0.18	0.12	0.83	[a]	-0.16	0.13	0.85	
Hostile Sexism	0.19	0.12	1.21	[a]	0.14	0.12	1.15		0.16	0.12	1.17	

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 18A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence			Sexual Violence			Stalking			
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	
Attitudes towards VAW				-0.31	0.19	0.74	-0.39	0.17	0.68	*
Benevolent Sexism				-0.11	0.10	0.90				
Hostile Sexism	0.08	0.08	1.08							

* $p < 0.05$

Table 19A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Cyber Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence			Stalking		
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
VAW Acceptance	-0.39	0.22	0.68	[a]	-0.26	0.22	0.77	-0.30	0.21	0.74
Benevolent Sexism	-0.23	0.13	0.80	[a]	-0.02	0.13	0.98	-0.11	0.12	0.90
Hostile Sexism	0.23	0.12	1.25	[a]	-0.04	0.13	0.96	0.16	0.12	1.17

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 20A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Motivated Offender Variables

	Dating Violence			Sexual Violence			Stalking		
	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
Attitudes towards VAW	-0.39	0.22	0.68				-0.30	0.21	0.74
Benevolent Sexism	-0.23	0.13	0.80				-0.11	0.12	0.90
Hostile Sexism	0.23	0.12	1.25				0.16	0.12	1.17

* $p < 0.05$

Table 21A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Capable Guardian Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily	-0.10	0.22	0.90		-0.38	0.21	0.68	[a]	-0.19	0.20	0.83	
Friends w/Parents on SM	-0.02	0.26	0.98		-0.01	0.25	0.99		-0.03	0.24	0.97	
Family Support	-0.08	0.12	0.92		0.04	0.11	1.04		-0.04	0.10	0.96	
Friend Support	-0.07	0.12	0.94		-0.17	0.11	0.85	[a]	0.02	0.11	1.02	
Total Friends on SM	0.07	0.03	1.07	[a]	0.02	0.03	1.02		0.05	0.03	1.05	[a]
# Close Friends	-0.02	0.02	0.98		-0.02	0.02	0.98		-0.01	0.02	0.99	
Meet New People SM	0.17	0.11	1.18	[a]	0.22	0.11	1.24	[a]	0.03	0.10	1.03	
SM Restrictions	-0.05	0.22	0.95		0.07	0.22	1.07		-0.09	0.20	0.91	
SM Location Checkin	0.48	0.22	1.62	[a]	0.08	0.20	1.08		0.46	0.19	1.58	[a]
Residence less Guarded	0.29	0.23	1.34		0.30	0.21	1.36	[a]	0.03	0.20	1.03	
Perceptions of Peers Helping	0.00	0.16	1.00		0.26	0.15	1.30	[a]	-0.02	0.14	0.98	
Bystander Efficacy	0.25	0.19	1.28		0.38	0.18	1.46	[a]	0.14	0.17	1.15	
Bystander Int. Participant	0.67	0.41	1.96	[a]	1.07	0.36	2.92	[a]	0.30	0.31	1.35	

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 22A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of Any Victimization and Capable Guardianship Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily					-0.39	0.19	0.68	*				
Family Support					-0.12	0.09	0.88					
Total Friends on SM	0.06	0.03	1.06	*					0.05	0.02	1.05	*
Meet New People SM					0.21	0.10	1.23	*				
SM Location Checkin	0.39	0.20	1.47						0.36	0.18	1.43	*
Residence less Guarded	0.40	0.20	1.48	*	0.24	0.19	1.27					
Perceptions of Peers Helping					0.27	0.14	1.31					
Bystander Efficacy					0.38	0.17	1.46	*				
Bystander Int. Participant	0.74	0.39	2.09		0.98	0.35	2.67	*				

* $p < 0.05$

Table 23A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Capable Guardian Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily	-0.20	0.22	0.82		-0.36	0.21	0.70	[a]	-0.33	0.22	0.72	[a]
Friends w/Parents on SM	-0.11	0.25	0.89		0.00	0.25	1.00		-0.12	0.25	0.89	
Family Support	-0.10	0.12	0.91		-0.01	0.10	0.99		-0.03	0.11	0.97	
Friend Support	-0.03	0.12	0.97		-0.17	0.11	0.84	[a]	0.03	0.11	1.03	
Total Friends on SM	0.09	0.03	1.09	[a]	0.01	0.03	1.01		0.04	0.03	1.04	[a]
# Close Friends	-0.01	0.02	0.99		-0.02	0.02	0.98		0.00	0.02	1.00	
Meet New People SM	0.13	0.11	1.14		0.22	0.11	1.25	[a]	-0.02	0.11	0.98	
SM Restrictions	0.16	0.22	1.17		-0.10	0.22	0.91		0.02	0.22	1.02	
SM Location Checkin	0.35	0.21	1.43	[a]	-0.10	0.20	0.91		0.25	0.20	1.28	
Residence less Guarded	0.43	0.22	1.53	[a]	0.42	0.21	1.52	[a]	0.36	0.21	1.44	[a]
Perceptions of Peers Helping	0.00	0.16	1.00		0.21	0.15	1.23		0.25	0.15	1.28	[a]
Bystander Efficacy	0.20	0.18	1.23		0.26	0.18	1.30	[a]	0.21	0.18	1.24	
Bystander Int. Participant	0.64	0.39	1.90	[a]	0.88	0.33	2.41	[a]	0.52	0.32	1.68	[a]

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 24A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of In-Person Victimization and Capable Guardianship Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily					-0.40	0.19	0.67	*	-0.29	0.19	0.75	
Friend Support					-0.14	0.09	0.87					
Total Friends on SM	0.08	0.03	1.08	*					0.04	0.02	1.04	
Meet New People SM					0.21	0.10	1.23	*				
SM Location Checkin	0.28	0.20	1.32									
Residence less Guarded	0.55	0.19	1.73	*	0.37	0.19	1.44					
Perceptions of Peers Helping									0.30	0.14	1.35	*
Bystander Efficacy					0.34	0.17	1.40	*				
Bystander Int. Participant	0.76	0.38	2.13	*	0.83	0.32	2.30	*	0.65	0.31	1.91	*

* $p < 0.05$

Table 25A. Preliminary Logistic Regression of Cyber Victimization and Capable Guardian Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking			
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR	
Talk Parents Daily	-0.04	0.21	-0.2		-0.34	0.22	-1.52	[a]	-0.08	0.21	-0.4	
Friends w/Parents on SM	0.12	0.26	0.46		-0.11	0.26	-0.42		-0.09	0.24	-0.38	
Family Support	-0.13	0.10	-1.28		-0.11	0.11	-0.96		-0.09	0.10	-0.89	
Friend Support	-0.16	0.11	-1.46	[a]	0.08	0.12	0.69		-0.09	0.11	-0.82	
Total Friends on SM	0.03	0.03	1.27		0.02	0.03	0.65		0.03	0.03	1.29	
# Close Friends	-0.01	0.02	-0.4		-0.01	0.02	-0.41		-0.01	0.02	-0.66	
Meet New People SM	0.00	0.11	0.04		0.20	0.12	1.72	[a]	0.16	0.11	1.46	[a]
SM Restrictions	-0.02	0.22	-0.07		0.28	0.24	1.17		-0.19	0.21	-0.91	
SM Location Checkin	0.11	0.20	0.55		0.13	0.21	0.61		0.35	0.19	1.78	[a]
Residence less Guarded	0.20	0.21	0.96		0.34	0.22	1.53	[a]	-0.08	0.20	-0.39	
Perceptions of Peers Helping	0.18	0.15	1.21		0.20	0.16	1.29		0.08	0.15	0.52	
Bystander Efficacy	0.15	0.18	0.83		0.36	0.19	1.86	[a]	0.02	0.17	0.1	
Bystander Int. Participant	0.70	0.31	2.28	[a]	1.01	0.34	2.94	[a]	0.46	0.31	1.48	[a]

[a] $p < 0.15$

Table 26A. Intermediate Logistic Regression of Cyber Victimization and Capable Guardianship Variables

	Dating Violence				Sexual Violence				Stalking		
	b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR		b	SE	OR
Talk Parents Daily					-0.40	0.20	0.67	*			
Family Support	-0.13	0.09	0.88								
Meet New People SM					0.21	0.10	1.24	*			
Residence less Guarded	0.38	0.19	1.46	*							
Bystander Efficacy					0.45	0.18	1.57	*			
Bystander Int. Participant	0.72	0.30	2.05	*	1.10	0.33	2.99	*	0.55	0.29	1.73

* $p < 0.05$