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WHO DID YOU TELL? COLLEGE WOMEN'S PERCEIVED HELPFULNESS OF FORMAL AND INFORMAL SUPPORT SOURCES AFTER VICTIMIZATION: SEXUAL ASSAULT, INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE, AND STALKING

By

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Bachelor of Arts, St. Olaf College, Northfield, MN, 2016

Thesis

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Who Did You Tell? College Women's Perceived Helpfulness of Formal and Informal Support Sources After Victimization: Sexual Assault, Intimate Partner Violence, and Stalking

Chairperson: Christine Fiore, Ph.D.

Violence against women is recognized as a serious public health concern in the United States. The prevalence and rates of victimization occurring on college campuses is problematic and has captured the attention of researchers and campus officials nation-wide. Research has shown that women ages 18 to 24 years old are at a particularly high risk of experiencing sexual assault, intimate partner violence (IPV), and stalking (Breiding et al., 2011). Despite the negative outcomes associated with victimization, many victims, particularly college students, do not seek help for these crimes. There is already a considerable body of literature that explores the reasons why victims of sexual violence do not disclose their experiences, and the barriers they may face in disclosure (Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2010; Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, & Townsend, 2005; Ullman, 1996a; Ullman & Filipas, 2001a; Walsh, Banyard, Moynihan, Ward, & Cohn, 2010; Zinzow & Thompson, 2011). However, there is a dearth of research that systematically examines the correlates of disclosure across additional types of victimization, such as IPV and stalking. In addition, previous research has established how social reactions to disclosures of sexual assault or IPV have significant effects on women's post-assault recovery (Sylaska & Edwards, 2013; Ullman, 1996b). Prior studies did not quantify the level of helpfulness victims perceived from the sources they disclosed to. The current study sought to address these important gaps in the literature by exploring a common set of intrapersonal and situational predictor variables that might account for the variance in disclosure across three different types of victimization. Perceptions of helpfulness and trauma symptomatology were also assessed. A campus-wide Safe Campus Survey was disseminated in 2018 at the University of Montana (UM). The total sample size for the study was 880 undergraduate women between the ages of 18 and 25. Close to half of the women surveyed indicated an experience of victimization. The majority of women who experienced victimization disclosed their experience to an informal support source, with the exception of victims of IPV. Logistic regression analyses revealed that level of fear, crime acknowledgement, and childhood victimization were significantly predictive of disclosure and disclosure source, although the associations varied depending on type of victimization. Overall perceived helpfulness of support sources and survivors' level of trauma symptoms demonstrated a negative correlation. The results of the study provide needed information that can help UM and additional colleges and universities develop ways to encourage support-seeking and reporting among students. Results also reveal strengths and opportunities for growth related to campus prevention, intervention, and response efforts.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRA	CT	ii
CHAPTEI	₹	
I.	INTRODUCTION	
	a. Factors Influencing Disclosure	6
	i. Sexual assault	
	ii. Intimate partner violence	
	iii. Stalking	
	b. Effects of Disclosure and the Role of Social Reactions	10
II.	THE CURRENT STUDY	
11.	a. Rationale	14
	b. Hypotheses	
	U. Hypotheses	1 /
III.	METHODS	
	a. Participants	18
	b. Measures	18
	i. Demographic questionnaire	19
	ii. Abbreviated sexual experiences survey	19
	iii. Unwanted intimate partner violence experiences survey	
	iv. Unwanted stalking experiences survey	20
	v. Adverse childhood experiences	21
	vi. Acquaintance to perpetrator	21
	vii. Physical force	
	viii. Coercive tactics	21
	ix. Substance use assessment	22
	x. Level of fear	22
	xi. Acknowledgment of crime	22
	xii. PTSD checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5)	
	xiii. Disclosure and disclosure source questionnaire	23
	xiv. Perceived helpfulness of support scale	
	c. Procedure	
	d. Analysis Strategy	
IV.	RESULTS	
1 V .	a. Demographics and Descriptive Statistics	25
	b. Inferential Statistics	
	o. Interential Statistics	20
V.	DISCUSSION	
	a. Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions	55
REFEREN	ICES	58
	NCL5	
	CES	

Who Did You Tell? College Women's Perceived Helpfulness of Formal and Informal Support Sources After Victimization: Sexual Assault, Intimate Partner Violence, and Stalking

Violence against women has been and continues to be a widespread and pervasive problem in our society. Violence against women may include, but is not limited to, sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking. According to the World Health Organization, 35% of women globally have experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence ("Global and regional estimates," 2013). According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), one in three American women are victims of sexual violence at some point in their lives, and one in four American women are victims of intimate partner violence (Smith et al., 2017).

There are varying definitions of sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking in the legal and research spheres. While consistency of definition is difficult, it allows researchers to measure risk and protective factors of victimization in a more uniform method (Basile, Smith, Breiding, Black, & Mahendra, 2014). For the purpose of this study, the definitions of sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking aligned most closely with definitions established by the CDC for each respective type of victimization. All unwanted sexual encounters were considered "sexual assault." "Sexual assault" includes any sexual act that is committed or attempted by another person without freely given consent of the victim, such as sexual contact, sexual intercourse with and without penetration, and invasive sexual contact with a tongue, finger, or object with and without penetration (Basile et al., 2014).

Any physical violence inflicted on a woman by a current or former intimate partner that is intended to harm or injure was considered "intimate partner violence." Physical violence

includes, but is not limited to, scratching; pushing; shoving; throwing; grabbing; biting; choking; shaking; slapping; punching; hitting; burning; use of a weapon; and use of restraints or one's body, size, or strength against another person (Breiding, Basile, Smith, Black, & Mahendra, 2015).

"Stalking" was defined as repeated, unwanted attention and contact that causes fear or concern for one's own safety. Some examples of stalking include repeated, unwanted phone calls, emails, texts, or letters; watching or following from a distance; spying; approaching or showing up in places when the victim does not want to see them; sending or leaving unwanted gifts or items; and damaging the victim's personal property (Breiding et al., 2015).

Sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking are significant problems in the general adult population and rates of victimization are especially alarming among college-aged women, a particularly vulnerable group to victimization (Breiding et al., 2011). Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski's (1987) national-level study of college women was among the first studies to empirically measure sexual assault prevalence in people ages 18 to 24 in the United States. The researchers sparked an exponential growth of research on rape and victimization prevalence statistics across populations. Through this seminal study and subsequent studies, it is estimated that one out of every five American women has been the victim of an attempted or completed rape in her lifetime. Research has shown that the majority of sexual assaults occur when victims are under 25 years of age (Black et al., 2011; Breiding et al., 2011; Elliot, Mok, & Briere, 2004; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). Women ages 18 to 24 who are college students are three times more likely than women outside of this age group to experience sexual victimization.

Females of the same age who are not enrolled in college are four times more likely to experience sexual assault (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, Martin, 2007; Sinozich & Langton, 2014).

Regarding intimate partner violence (IPV), approximately one out of every four

American women has been the victim of physical violence by an intimate partner in her lifetime with women ages 18 to 24 experiencing the highest rates of IPV (Black et al., 2011; Breiding, Chen, & Black, 2014; Truman & Morgan, 2014). Concerning stalking, an estimated one in six women has experienced stalking victimization during her lifetime, and persons ages 18 to 24 experience the highest rates of stalking (Baum, Catalano, Rand, & Rose, 2009; Breiding et al., 2011). Overall, these statistics signal that young, college-aged women are especially at risk of victimization.

There is growing recognition that violence against women is a significant public health problem, in large part due to the many research initiatives that have explored the prevalence and negative repercussions of victimization (Saltzman, Green, Marks, & Thacker, 2000). Women face very real consequences after violence, and victimization can take an immeasurable toll on victims' health. Physical and sexual victimization is a psychologically and emotionally damaging experience for many survivors. Among the consequences of physical and sexual assault, symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) are especially prominent. PTSD is a psychological response to the experience of intense traumatic events, and may include symptoms of hyperarousal, re-experiencing, avoidance, and numbing (Frazier et al., 2009). While not all women who experience a traumatic event develop PTSD, women are twice as likely to develop PTSD than men. This is largely because women are more likely to experience sexual assault, which has been shown to cause more emotional suffering than other types of trauma (Tolin & Foa, 2006). Among college students, sexual assault was associated with the highest level of PTSD symptoms compared to survivors of other forms of trauma (Frazier et al., 2009).

Physical and sexual abuse has been associated with a number of other physical, behavioral, and psychological sequelae, including: gynecological trauma; sexually transmitted infections; unintended pregnancy; sexual dysfunction; harmful coping mechanisms, such as increased alcohol and substance abuse; higher risk of experiencing subsequent sexual violence; increased risky sexual activity; dissociation; depression; anxiety; low self-esteem; difficulty sleeping; somatic complaints; and increased suicidal thoughts and behavior (Black et al., 2011; Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas, 1999; Campbell, 2002; Campbell, Dworkin, & Cabral, 2009; "Global and regional estimates," 2013; Goodman, Koss, & Russo, 1993; Zinzow et al., 2010). Sexual violence can also adversely affect victims' interpersonal functioning and relationships with family, friends, romantic partners, and co-workers (Crome & McCabe, 1995). The emotional and physical ramifications of sexual and physical assault can deeply impact a college student's ability to cope with academic, social, and personal responsibilities.

Like physical and sexual violence, victims of stalking face serious negative effects.

Stalking victims endorse high levels of fear and are often unsure if the stalking will ever stop (Baum et al., 2009). Levels of anxiety, insomnia, social dysfunction, and severe depression are much higher among stalking victims than the general population (Blaauw, Winkel, Arensman, Sheridan, & Freeve, 2002). As a result, many victims report negative repercussions in work, social life, and daily functioning (Baum et al., 2009).

Concerns over the rate and repercussions of sexual assault on college campuses have generated public interest across the nation. Colleges and universities have been criticized by the federal government for the ways in which they have handled victimization cases ("Not alone," 2014). Campus officials have responded to this scrutiny by creating and implementing various reforms and regulations to help address victimization on college campuses. These reforms

involve prevention and response efforts designed to help reduce and recover from victimization. Prevention efforts may take the form of bystander training, a program that teaches students important strategies and techniques that can help stop sexual violence before it happens. Response efforts, on the other hand, help students who are victimized cope and heal from the negative effects of victimization ("Not alone," 2014).

While prevention and response efforts are greatly beneficial and impactful, it is not uncommon for victims who have experienced incidents of unwanted sexual experiences, intimate partner violence, and/or stalking to withdraw from others and not seek the help they may so desperately need ("Trauma-informed care," 2014). In fact, the vast majority of perpetration against women goes undisclosed, and women who are victims of a trauma that leads to PTSD often hesitate to seek help from professionals. Victims may even wait years to receive treatment (Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, & Turner, 2003; Krebs et al., 2007; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011; Ullman, Foynes, & Tang, 2010). Additionally, college students may be even less likely than the general population to seek any kind of professional help (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Hart, 2003; Rennison, 2002; Sabina & Ho, 2014). Students have been shown to be especially unlikely to disclose to formal support sources, such as campus police or Title IX (Fisher et al., 2000; Sinozich & Langton, 2014).

In order to increase victims' likelihood of disclosing adverse victimization experiences and seeking help to mitigate the consequences of victimization, an improved understanding and awareness of the factors that are associated with disclosure across different types of victimization is warranted. In addition, an examination of victims' evaluations surrounding their disclosure is necessary. Understanding what factors correlate with disclosure and how victims perceive their

disclosure experience are vital first steps for informing and improving campus prevention and response efforts.

Factors Influencing Disclosure

Research on disclosure and help-seeking in the aftermath of victimization generally distinguishes between formal and informal support sources. Formal support sources typically include law enforcement, medical services, mental health services, and college campus authorities. Informal support sources include family, friends, and clergy (Sabina & Ho, 2014). Researchers have explored various factors that may influence the likelihood a victim discloses their adverse victimization experience to support sources. These factors have been organized using a modified ecological theoretical framework that consists of demographic characteristics, intrapersonal factors, and situational variables. Demographic characteristics may include age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, level of education, and socio-political beliefs. Situational variables, or assault variables, are characteristics of the victimization experience, such as type, severity, and frequency (Sylaska & Edwards, 2014). Intrapersonal factors, sometimes referred to as post-assault factors, are factors related to the individual, such as attitudes, perceptions, thoughts, feelings, and symptoms. Several important findings have emerged regarding how these variables relate to disclosure. While the majority of survivors tell someone about their victimization experience, there are many survivors who never disclose their experiences, or may wait a long time to do so (Fisher et al., 2003; Krebs et al., 2007; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011; Ullman, Foynes, & Tang, 2010). More research is needed to understand when and to whom college victims disclose their victimization experiences.

Sexual Assault

Research indicates that the majority of sexual assault victims disclose their experience to an informal support source, most often a friend or family member, rather than to a formal support source (Ahrens, Campbell, Ternier-Thames, Wasco, & Sefl, 2007; Edwards et al., 2012; Fisher et al., 2003; Lindquist, Crosby, Barrick, Krebs, & Settles-Reaves, 2016; Littleton, 2010; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2012; Ullman, 2007; Ullman & Filipas, 2001a; Walsh, Banyard, Moynihan, Ward, & Cohn, 2010). Ullman and colleagues (2008) examined sexual assault disclosure rates in a community-based sample of women and found that approximately 85.1% of women told friends, 38.4% of women told parents, 44.9% of women told a mental health professional, and less than 30% told other formal supports. While informal disclosure has also been shown to be high in college student samples, formal reporting appears to be far rarer (Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001; Fisher et al., 2003; Krebs et al., 2007; Paul et al., 2013; Sabina & Ho, 2014). Orchowski and Gidycz (2012) found that among college-attending women, disclosures to formal support sources were much lower than those found in community-based samples.

Researchers have found that women are more likely to disclose unwanted sexual experiences to formal support sources when the victimization conforms to societal stereotypes of sexual assault (Fisher et al., 2003). For example, Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, and Townsend (2005) discovered that women were more likely to disclose their assault if it was perpetrated by a stranger with a weapon and physical injuries were sustained. Similarly, several studies have shown that women assaulted by those they knew and without weapons were less likely to report their assault experience to formal supports (Fisher et al., 2003; Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti, & McCauley, 2007). There is some conflicting evidence as to whether or not the victim's level of acquaintance to the perpetrator correlates with formal reporting of sexual

assault. Wolitzky-Taylor and colleagues (2011) found no association between level of acquaintance and likelihood to report to formal support.

There are additional factors that have been correlated with formal disclosure of sexual assault. Researchers have found that demographic variables, such as being Caucasian and older, and post-assault factors, such as increased PTSD symptomology, increased the likelihood women disclosed sexual assault to formal support sources (Ahrens, Rios-Mandel, Isas, & del Carmen Lopez, 2010; Starzynski, Ullman, Townsend, Long, & Long, 2007; Ullman, Starzynski, Long, Mason, & Long, 2008). Other studies have shown that the higher the perceived fear of death or injury, the more likely victims were to report their experiences to the police (Fisher et al., 2003; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). Several studies have shown that drug and alcohol use during victimization substantially lowered the rate of disclosure to formal sources (Finkelson & Oswalt, 1995; Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Krebs et al., 2007; Littleton, Grills-Taquechel, & Axsom, 2009). In addition, sexual assault victims who remembered the victimization incident "extremely well" and labeled their experience as "rape" were more likely to report to the police (Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Littleton, Axsom, Breitkopf, & Berenson, 2006; Orchowski, Untied, & Gidycz, 2013).

Similar to formal disclosure, severity of victimization and sustained injury have been shown to be positively associated with informal disclosure of sexual assault (Fisher et al., 2003). In contrast to the findings for formal disclosure, perpetrator and victim substance use has been associated with increased informal disclosure (Fisher et al., 2003; Littleton, Grills-Taquechel, & Axsom, 2009; Orchowski & Gidycz, 2012). In regard to the victim's level of acquaintance with the perpetrator, Fisher and colleagues (2003) found that informal disclosure was higher when

acquaintance was higher, whereas Orchowski and Gidycz (2012) found that as level of acquaintance with perpetrator increased, informal disclosure decreased.

Intimate Partner Violence

Similar to sexual assault victims, the majority of IPV victims tell someone, most often a friend (Ansara & Hindin, 2010; Edwards, Dardis, & Gidycz, 2012; Sylaska & Edwards, 2014). Victims of IPV tend to disclose their experiences to informal supports more than formal supports and often have long delays in formal disclosure (Ashley & Foshee, 2005; Dunham & Senn, 2000; Fanslow & Robinson, 2010; Henning & Klesges, 2002; Mahlstedt & Keeny, 1993). Situational variables appear to play an important role in the likelihood a victim of IPV discloses. Research shows that women were more likely to disclose experiences of IPV when the violence was more severe and when there were physical injuries sustained (Ansara & Hindin, 2010; Barrett & St. Pierre, 2011; Fanslow & Robinson, 2010; Flicker et al., 2011).

The effect of demographic variables on disclosure of IPV has resulted in mixed evidence. While the majority of IPV research focuses on community samples of adult women, a study by Barrett and St. Pierre (2011) found that younger victims were more likely to disclose their experiences of IPV than older victims. However, another study by Flicker and colleagues (2011) demonstrates the complexity of disclosure decisions. The researchers found that older women were less likely to disclose to family, but just as likely to disclose to friends as younger women (Flicker et al., 2011). Furthermore, Henning and Klesges (2002) found that younger women were less likely to obtain help from formal support sources. When considering the effects of race and ethnicity, researchers have found that Caucasian victims were more likely to disclose to informal and formal supports compared to women from minority backgrounds (Henning & Klesges, 2002;

Kaukinen, 2004; Rizo & Macy, 2011). Racial differences in the disclosure of IPV are not always supported, however (Flicker et al., 2011; Watson, Cascardi, Avery-Leaf, & O'Leary, 2001).

Stalking

There is very little research on stalking victimization and disclosure. Flicker and colleagues (2011) found that victims of stalking reported the highest frequency of disclosure to informal support sources. While victims of stalking are far more likely to disclose to informal rather than formal supports, Buhi, Clayton, and Surrency (2009) found that approximately half of women who reported stalking victimization did not seek help from anyone. Reyns and Englebrecht (2014) examined correlates of stalking and informal and formal help-seeking in a community sample. They found that the seriousness of the victimization incident increased the probability of formal reporting by over 20 times. The researchers defined seriousness as the number of times the stalker damaged or destroyed the victim's property, illegally entered the victim's home or car, attacked the victim physically, or threatened or intimidated the victim. Researchers have found that victims of stalking were less likely to disclose to formal support sources when the offender was an intimate partner, and more likely to disclose when they experienced fear and acknowledged the victimization experience as stalking (Jordan, Wilcox, & Pritchard, 2007; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2014).

Effects of Disclosure and the Role of Social Reactions

Disclosure, social support, and the help victims receive following victimization have been shown to be important factors for recovering from victimization experiences. Results reveal that a higher degree of disclosure is associated with decreased trauma symptomology and increased posttraumatic growth, whereas victims with a lower degree of disclosure tend to experience more symptoms of depression and posttraumatic stress (Ahrens, Stansell, & Jennings,

2010; Hassija & Turchik, 2016). These findings have led researchers to conclude that disclosure serves a protective function by lessening trauma symptomology (Staples et al., 2016).

Other researchers acknowledge that disclosure in and of itself may not improve the mental health of victims. Disclosure of sexual victimization may result in negative reactions from others, which have been shown to impede victims' well-being and contribute to further victimization and adverse psychological outcomes (Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015; Ullman, 1996a; Ullman, 1996b; Ullman & Peter-Hagene, 2014). The adverse effects of these negative reactions are so damaging that researchers have labeled the adverse disclosure experience a "second rape" (Campbell, 2008).

Encountering a negative reaction is a realistic fear for victims of sexual and physical violence. In one college sample, one in three women and one in five men were sought by victims of sexual violence for support, and approximately only half of those contacted felt they could be helpful or supportive to the survivor (Edwards et al., 2015). A lack of knowledge about how to be helpful increases the likelihood of survivors receiving negative reactions, which may worsen their psychological distress and PTSD symptoms. Furthermore, if a victim expects to receive negative reactions, she may be less likely to seek support in the first place.

Several studies have utilized the Social Reactions Questionnaire (SRQ), an instrument designed to measure the positive and negative social responses to sexual assault disclosure (Ullman, 2000), to assess the effects of social reactions on victim outcomes. The SRQ instructs victims to think about the reactions they have received from people they have told about the assault. The SRQ has been primarily used with female sexual assault victims and has generally relied on cross-sectional methods. The results show that social reactions lead to trauma-related

outcomes (DeCou, Cole, Lynch, Wong, & Matthews, 2017; Edwards, Dardis, Sylaska, & Gidycz, 2015; Hakimi, Bryant-Davis, Ullman, & Gobin, 2018; Ullman & Filipas, 2001b).

Very few studies have examined possible assault factors that may influence the positive or negative social reactions women receive upon disclosure. Starzynski and colleagues (2005) found that sexual assault victims received more positive reactions from support sources when they experienced greater life threat and the offender used a weapon during victimization. This finding suggests that social support sources are more likely to provide positive social reactions to victims who have experienced what society deems "traditional" rape (Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, & Townsend, 2005). In addition, sexual assaults that involved alcohol have been shown to result in more negative social reactions from social supports, although these results have been mixed among college victims (Littleton, Grills-Taquechel, & Axsom, 2009; Ullman & Filipas, 2001b; Ullman & Najdowski, 2010).

The literature on social reactions contains valuable information and indicates the important role that support sources play in the lives of survivors. However, there are several limitations and gaps in the research that have yet to be addressed. First, most of the data on the role of social support examines sexual assault victimization exclusively. Other forms of victimization are largely neglected. Second, more research is needed to thoroughly examine additional correlates that may be associated with support source responses. Lastly, social reactions, while important, do not explicitly measure whether victims find the support sources helpful or not. It has been shown that social reactions and perceptions of helpfulness are distinct constructs (Littleton, 2010). More research is warranted regarding how perceived helpfulness impacts victims' psychological functioning, and how assault factors might correlate to victims' perceived helpfulness of support sources (Starzynski & Ullman, 2014).

The Current Study

As previously established, there is a considerable body of literature that explores the correlates of disclosure. However, this research has examined the correlates of disclosure primarily in only one form of victimization – sexual assault. In addition, the factors previously explored tend to vary across studies and have resulted in conflicting evidence. There is a dearth of literature that systematically examines and compares factors that may influence disclosure across different types of victimization. There is an additional gap in the literature that incorporates and analyzes victims' lived experiences and perceptions of their disclosure, accounting for how helpful victims perceived support sources to be, and what impact helpfulness has on psychological adjustment.

The current study sought to extend previous research, and the goals were three-fold. First, this study examined what factors predicted college women's disclosure of victimization across three different types of victimization (i.e., sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking), and whether women who experienced different types of victimization disclosed at different rates. Second, this study assessed whether women across victimization types had different experiences with helping resources. Third, this study examined the relationship between victims' perceived helpfulness of support sources and subsequent trauma symptomology. University-attending women who identified as having experienced sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and/or stalking while attending the University of Montana were included in the study.

To accomplish the first goal, the current study assessed factors that were expected predictors of disclosure across victimization experiences to see if they accounted for the variance in disclosure (i.e., "Yes, I have told someone about the incident" or "No, I have not told anyone about the incident") and disclosure source (i.e., informal support sources or formal and informal

support sources). To accomplish the second goal, the current study analyzed whether victims' perceived helpfulness of support sources varied depending on victimization type and the predictor variables of interest. To accomplish the third goal, the study analyzed whether utilization and level of perceived helpfulness of social supports accounted for variance in trauma symptomatology.

A common set of predictors across experiences was assessed, including situational variables (i.e., level of acquaintance to the perpetrator, physical force, coercive tactics, and substance use) and intrapersonal factors (i.e., level of fear and acknowledgement of crime). Adverse childhood experiences were also included in analyses to explore and control for the possible effects that revictimization may have on disclosure. Demographic characteristics (i.e., age, race, and class standing) were included in analyses to clarify descriptions of the population sampled.

A systematic comparison of variables across victimization types allowed for the emergence of common and unique predictors of disclosure. The current study helped shed light on college women's experiences, examining when and to whom they disclosed victimization, as well as how helpful they perceived the support sources to be, and how helpfulness affected trauma symptomatology.

Rationale

The current study provided several important contributions to the literature regarding violence against women. First, analyses in this study revealed not only information about victims' behaviors after various types of victimization, but also information regarding the capacity of helping sources to address the needs of victims who have experienced different types of abuse. Scholars have argued that research on the processes of help-seeking among survivors

of violence has lacked consideration of survivors' appraisal of their experiences and how successful the support source was in helping them after victimization (Liang, Goodman, Tummala-Narra, & Weintraub, 2005). Studies that have examined social reactions were not able to quantify the level of helpfulness victims perceived, and they were not able to link positive and negative reactions to the specific support source. The current study was able to examine the level of perceived helpfulness in relation to the specific support source sought. By doing so, this study provided valuable information regarding the capacity of helping sources to address the needs of survivors who have experienced different types of victimization. Results from this study revealed strengths and limitations of campus support sources who provide assistance to women after victimization and allowed for the assessment of areas in need of further development and training.

Second, this study analyzed victimization experiences from a sample of college women who have experienced sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking while attending a public university. Previous studies have used mixed and community samples, which may or may not have included college women, without separating group differences in responding. This study addressed victimization among college-attending women specifically, which is necessary given the high prevalence rates of victimization among college-aged women. In addition, university-attending women have access to different support sources than a community sample might, and this study filled an important gap in the research that other universities could use to improve prevention and response efforts.

Third, this study was unique in that it examined both formal and informal support sources. Previous research has yielded mixed results regarding which factors predict formal and informal disclosure. Furthermore, much of the previous research examining the correlates and

predictors of sexual assault disclosure focused primarily on disclosure to police (Kilpatrick et al., 2007; Krebs et al., 2007). University-attending women have more formal supports than exclusively police. Studies that examine support sources through a narrowed scope will not capture the experience of those who report to formal support sources other than the police, such as Title IX, faculty, residence staff, or campus sexual assault advocates. This study sought to offer more depth and clarity about the factors influencing women's disclosure choices.

Fourth, most studies tend to examine just one form of victimization in relation to disclosure behavior. There are several studies that examine the correlates of disclosure among sexual assault survivors, but less empirical research exists surrounding disclosure correlates among victims of intimate partner violence and stalking. To the knowledge of the author, only two published studies have examined correlates of help-seeking behavior across multiple types of victimization (Ameral, Reed, & Hines, 2017; Demers et al., 2018). These studies differ from the current study in the independent variables assessed. The findings of this study contribute to the shortage of literature about the correlates of disclosure for IPV and stalking. A direct comparison of predictors that influence disclosure across victimization types may help inform colleges and universities of new ways to encourage, facilitate, and support victim reporting. This could allow for victims to be more likely to obtain help or treatment for the adverse effects of victimization.

Lastly, the current study was implemented during an important social and contextual timeframe, wherein sexual violence has been thrust into national dialogue with movements such as #MeToo. Twelve years after Tarana Burke coined the phrase "Me Too," the hashtag phrase has empowered hundreds of women to come forward and disclose their experiences of sexual harassment (Garcia, 2017). Results from this study could indirectly reveal the impact that anti-

sexual harassment movements, such as #MeToo, Time's Up, #ThatsHarassment, or #believesurvivors, has on college-age survivors of sexual assault, IPV, and stalking.

Hypotheses

Disclosure Hypotheses: There will be differences in disclosure across victimization type and the independent variables of interest.

It was hypothesized that disclosure to informal sources would be more frequent than disclosure to formal sources. It was also hypothesized that victims of IPV would be the least likely to disclose. Disclosure was hypothesized to be *more likely* when the experience was more frightening to the victim, when the experience involved physical force, when the experience involved more violent coercive tactics, and when the victim acknowledged a crime occurred. Disclosure was hypothesized to be *less likely* when the experience involved substance use and when the victim and perpetrator had a higher level of acquaintance. It was further hypothesized that victims would be *less likely* to seek help from *formal* support sources when the experience involved substance use and when the victim and perpetrator had a higher level of acquaintance.

Perceived Helpfulness Hypotheses: There will be differences in perceived helpfulness across victimization type and the independent variables of interest.

It was hypothesized that victims of sexual assault would perceive support sources as generally *less helpful*. It was also hypothesized that victims across victimization types would perceive support sources as *less helpful* when the experience involved substance use.

Due to the lack of research examining possible assault and post-assault correlates of perceived helpfulness, exploratory analyses were conducted to examine whether the other situational and intrapersonal variables related to the level of perceived helpfulness.

Trauma Symptom Hypotheses: There will be differences in trauma symptoms depending on perceived helpfulness of formal and informal supports across types of victimization.

It was hypothesized that the higher the trauma symptoms, the lower the perceived helpfulness of informal and formal supports. Exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the relative trauma symptoms across each type of support source sought, comparing those who did not seek the support, those who found it helpful, and those who found it unhelpful.

Method

Participants

Data and participants for this study were extracted from a larger study conducted at the University of Montana (UM) that gathered a volunteer sample of students to complete the Safe Campus Survey (SCS). The SCS anonymously measured students' knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, and experiences of sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking, as well as assessed the campus climate surrounding these issues. The SCS was limited to participants 18 years and older who were current students at UM. The SCS was advertised to all UM students from early November through mid-December of 2018. The survey was administered via Qualtrics Online Survey System and was expected to take 25 to 45 minutes for each participant to complete all of the sections. Participants were included in the current study if they identified themselves as an undergraduate student, woman, and 18 to 25 years of age. The total sample size was 880 women. Of the 880 participants, 428 of them reported victimization, including sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and/or stalking, in the past year or since they have been at UM.

Measures

Measures of the SCS that were utilized for this study included the following: demographic questionnaire; abbreviated sexual experiences survey; unwanted intimate partner violence experiences survey; unwanted stalking experiences survey; adverse childhood experiences; acquaintance to perpetrator; physical force; coercive tactics; substance use assessment; level of fear; acknowledgement of crime; PTSD checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5); disclosure and disclosure source questionnaire; and perceived helpfulness of support scale.

The various measures included in this study were administered using a progressive nature. For example, a participant who responded "yes," endorsing an experience of unwanted sexual victimization, received follow-up questions that assessed the assault and post-assault variables, whereas a participant who responded "no" was not presented with these same questions. If a participant endorsed multiple experiences of sexual assault, IPV, or stalking, the survey asked the participant to identify the event she considered to be the "most significant" and refer to that event for the remaining questions. The measures were provided in the same order for every participant, but not every participant had the opportunity to answer every measure due to the progressive nature of the survey.

Demographic questionnaire. Participants reported demographic characteristics at the beginning of the survey, including questions regarding age, class standing, gender, and race/ethnicity.

Abbreviated sexual experiences survey. An abbreviated portion of the Sexual Experiences Survey was used to detect cases of unwanted sexual contact and rape (Koss & Oros, 1982). This section of the survey consisted of five multiple choice questions that identified completed and attempted rape victims, and women who have had experiences of unwanted sexual contact and sexual coercion. The questions assessed women's sexual victimization experiences while attending UM. Participants had the choice to indicate "Yes, in the past year," "Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)," or "No." If participants indicated any

sexual assault victimization, they were asked follow-up questions regarding the single event that they considered to be the "most significant." Participants were coded as sexual assault victims if they indicated a positive response to having experienced unwanted sexual contact or sexual intercourse with or without penetration. A distinction was not made between unwanted sexual contact and rape.

Unwanted intimate partner violence experiences survey. To assess IPV victimization, the Physical Assault subscale of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale was used (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). Participants were asked to indicate the number of times a casual, steady, or serious dating or intimate partner had perpetrated each of the 16 "unwanted behaviors" against them in the past year. The frequency scale ranged from "0 times" to "10+ times." The behaviors ranged from minor acts of violence (e.g., scratched, slapped, or shoved) to severe acts of violence (e.g., choked, burned, beat up, or assaulted with a knife or gun). Participants were coded as IPV victims if they endorsed at least one of these behaviors. If participants indicated any IPV victimization, they were asked follow-up questions regarding the single event that they considered to be the "most significant."

Unwanted stalking experiences survey. The information disseminated by Spitzberg, Hoobler, and Cupach (2002a; 2002b; 2003; 2007) was used to create a measure that assessed stalking victimization. Participants were asked to indicate the number of times in the past year they experienced each of the 14 "unwanted behaviors" by strangers, friends, relatives, or partners, not including spam phone calls or e-mails, bill collectors, telephone solicitors, or other sales people. The frequency scale ranged from "0 times" to "5001+ times." The behaviors included cyber-pursuit stalking (e.g., sending unsolicited e-mails or social media messages), physical stalking (e.g., being followed or spied on, sending or leaving unwanted gifts or items, or

appearing at the person's home or workplace), and aggressive stalking (e.g., vandalizing property or forced communication). Participants were coded as stalking victims if they reported at least one stalking behavior that occurred repeatedly and were distressed and/or fearful because of it. States differ in their legal definition of stalking, but stalking is typically defined as a course of conduct that causes substantial fear or emotional distress and includes two or more incidents ("Analyzing stalking laws", n.d.). If participants indicated any stalking victimization, they were asked follow-up questions regarding the single event that they considered to be the "most significant."

Adverse childhood experiences. Participants were provided definitions of childhood physical and sexual abuse and asked whether or not they had any experiences of abuse prior to the age of 18. The response options included "Yes, physical abuse only," "Yes, sexual abuse only," "Yes, both physical and sexual abuse," and "No."

Acquaintance to perpetrator. For each type of victimization, participants were asked to rate how well they knew the perpetrator. The response options included, "Did not know at all," "Slightly acquainted," "Acquainted," and "Very acquainted."

Physical force. Participants were asked whether physical force was used during victimization. The response options were "Yes" or "No."

Coercive tactics. The number of coercive tactics experienced by victims was assessed. Participants were asked to select "Yes" or "No" as to whether their victimization experience involved the following: continual arguments and pressure, misuse of authority (boss, teacher, supervisor), threats of physical force, threat of a weapon, threat to kill, and the other person threatening to harm him/herself. Coercive tactics were added together to create a sum score with a range of 0 to 6.

Substance use assessment. Participants were asked to indicate whether alcohol and/or drugs were involved in their victimization experience. If participants endorsed that alcohol or drugs were involved, then the participant was asked follow-up questions about their own use and the perpetrator's use. The follow-up questions included the following: "How drunk/high was the other person?" and "How drunk/high were you?" The response options included, "Not at all drunk/high," "Somewhat drunk/high," "Drunk/high," and "Very drunk/high."

Level of fear. To assess the level of fear the participants felt during their victimization experience, participants were asked, "How afraid were you?" The response options included, "Not at all afraid," "Somewhat afraid," "Afraid," and "Very afraid."

Acknowledgement of crime. Participants were asked to look back on their experience and decide whether they would label the incident as a crime or not. The options included: "I am sure that a crime did not occur," "I am unsure whether or not a crime occurred," and "I am sure that a crime did occur."

PTSD Checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5). PTSD symptom severity was assessed using the Posttraumatic Symptom Disorder Checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5). The PCL-5 is a brief self-report instrument used to provide a reliable diagnosis of PTSD and a measure of the severity of PTSD symptoms based on DSM-5 diagnostic criteria. The 20-item scale has been shown to be a psychometrically sound measure of PTSD symptoms, exhibiting strong internal consistency (alpha = .94), test-retest reliability (r = .82), and convergent (rs = .74 to .85) and discriminant (rs = .31 to .60) validity (Blevins, Weathers, Davis, Witte, & Domino, 2015). Respondents were asked to indicate how much each symptom had bothered them in the past month. Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from "Not at all" to "Extremely." Response items were summed for each participant to provide a total severity score ranging from 0 to 80.

Disclosure and disclosure source questionnaire. For each type of victimization, participants were asked if they had ever told anyone about the victimization incident. Response options included "Yes, I have told someone about the incident" or "No, I have not told anyone about the incident." Participants who answered "Yes" were asked to identify who specifically they told about the incident, including a list of choices from six informal support sources (i.e., friend, roommate, parent or guardian, other family member, romantic partner, and clergy or religious leader) and ten formal support sources (i.e., medical doctor/nurse, counselor, faculty or staff, residence hall staff, campus police, city police, county sheriff, campus sexual assault advocate through the Student Advocacy Resource Center (SARC), Title IX office, and confidential counseling services or services off campus). The possible support sources listed were comprised primarily of on-campus resources available to assist students. Participants were also given an "Other" option where they could write in their own response.

Perceived helpfulness of support scale. Participants who endorsed having disclosed their victimization experience were asked to complete the perceived helpfulness scale for each support source they told. Participants were asked how helpful they found the individual(s) they endorsed telling. Answers were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all helpful" to "Very helpful."

Procedure

A number of recruitment methods were used in order to obtain a large sample of university-attending women at the University of Montana. Flyers were posted in academic buildings, dormitories, common areas, and other places students congregate, to recruit participants. Flyers were also posted in campus service areas that were likely to interact with survivors, such as the Student Advocacy Resource Center and Curry Health. Additionally, flyers

were posted on the University of Montana webpage and student Moodle page. A link was shared on the main university website (my.umt.edu) that directed students to the survey. Faculty and staff were notified and given the chance to present the survey as a possible extra credit opportunity for the students in their respective courses. Students were told that upon completion of the survey, they would have the opportunity to enter a drawing to win one of: two \$500 Amazon gift cards; three \$100 Amazon gift cards; two \$50 Amazon gift cards; or twenty \$5 campus coffee cards. Participation in the survey was entirely voluntary and anonymous. Because of the possibility of heightened psychological distress upon answering questions about experiences of sexual assault, IPV, and/or stalking, participants were informed repeatedly throughout the survey of contact information to services on and off campus that could provide immediate help. Participants were also informed that they could discontinue the survey at any time.

Analysis Strategy

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 was utilized to analyze the data. All analyses used an Alpha level of .05. Through the utilization of G*Power software, the sample size required for this study to achieve a power level of .90 and a Cohen's f^2 effect size of 0.15 (medium) on seven predictor variables was 130 students for each victimization type (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The sexual assault and stalking groups exceeded the necessary sample size, and the IPV group was only seven participants shy of meeting the power threshold. Analyses proceeded as proposed.

To examine the questions of interest, four main analyses were conducted. First, descriptive statistics were conducted to identify the prevalence and disclosure rates of sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and stalking. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize

frequency tables for whom victims across victimization types disclosed to and the level at which victims found them helpful. Pearson's chi-square test was used to analyze whether there were statistically significant differences in frequency of disclosure and victimization type.

Second, binary logistic regression was used to analyze the significant predictors of disclosure and disclosure source for each of the three victimization experiences. Binary logistic regression is a statistical method used for dichotomous measurement of the dependent variable (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2006). Odds ratios were obtained from the regressions to measure the strength of association between the predictor variables and the outcome.

Third, a comparison of means was used to assess whether there were any differences between victimization type and summed level of perceived helpfulness. One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA), *t*-tests, and simple linear regressions were used to assess the statistical relationship between the independent variables and level of perceived helpfulness across each type of victimization.

Fourth, linear regression was used to analyze the statistical relationship between summed level of perceived helpfulness and trauma symptomatology. Follow-up ANOVAs were conducted to examine whether there were statistically significant differences in trauma symptom severity by specific support source sought, helpfulness, and use (i.e., helpful, unhelpful, and not accessed).

Results

Demographic and Descriptive Results

Prior to analysis, the data and variables were examined to identify ineligible participants and incomplete surveys. Participants were included in the current study if they identified themselves as an undergraduate student, woman, and 18 to 25 years of age. Those who quit the

study before answering the sexual experiences section of the survey (less than approximately 40% of survey completion) were extracted from the data set. The total sample size was 880. Of the 880 participants, 428 of them reported victimization, including sexual assault, intimate partner violence (IPV), and/or stalking, in the past year or since they have been at UM. These final 428 participants comprised the sample for the following analyses. The current study defined sexual assault to include all unwanted sexual encounters, including unwanted sexual contact or sexual intercourse with and without penetration. IPV was defined as any physical violence inflicted on a woman by a current or former intimate partner. Stalking was defined as repeated, unwanted attention and contact that caused fear or concern for one's safety.

The majority of participants identified as White/Non-Hispanic (n=385, 90%), 18 identified as Hispanic (4.2%), six as Asian or Pacific Islander (1.4%), four as American Indian/Native American/Indigenous/First Nation (.9%), and fifteen were of two or more races (3.5%). Eighteen-year-olds were the largest represented age group (n=93, 22%), followed by 19-year-olds (n=84, 20%), 21-year-olds (n=79, 19%), 20-year-olds (n=74, 17%), 22-year-olds (n=53, 12%), 23-year-olds (n=18, 4%), 24-year-olds (n=11, 3%), and 25-year-olds (n=11, 3%). The average age of the sample was 20.2 (SD = 1.8, SE = .09) and ranged from 18 to 25. There was a somewhat even distribution for class standing. Freshmen comprised the largest proportion of participants (n=132, 31%), followed by seniors (n=111, 26%), juniors (n=108, 25%), and sophomores (n=77, 18%).

As mentioned above, 428 of 880 undergraduate women between the ages of 18 and 25 years of age indicated that they experienced victimization (sexual assault, IPV, and/or stalking) in the past year or since they have been at UM. Of the 428 participants, 289 (68%) reported one type of victimization experience, 91 (21%) reported two types of victimization experiences, and

48 (11%) reported all three types of victimization experiences. For the 289 participants who reported one type of victimization experience, experiences of sexual assault were the most prevalent (n=189, 65%), followed by stalking (n=66, 23%), and IPV (n=34, 12%). For total victimization prevalence, which includes some overlapping participants who experienced more than one type of victimization, 317 participants indicated that they had experienced sexual assault, 123 indicated that they had experienced IPV, and 175 indicated that they had experienced stalking. Table 1 summarizes the prevalence of situational and intrapersonal factors by victimization type. Pearson's correlation matrices showed that there were no issues of multicollinearity present among the individual predictor variables. Please see Appendix A for a written description of Table 1 information.

Table 1

Prevalence of Situational and Intrapersonal Factors by Victimization Type

Variable	Sexual Assault	IPV	Stalking
Acquaintance to Perpetrator	_		
Did not know at all	22.6%, 68	1.9%, 2	22.9%, 40
Slightly acquainted	30.2%, 91	6.8%, 7	33.1%, 58
Acquainted	27%, 81	13.6%, 14	17.7%, 31
Very acquainted	20.2%, 61	77.7%, 80	26.3%, 46
Physical Force			
No	57.3%, 173	19.4%, 20	N/A
Yes	42.7%, 129	80.6%, 83	N/A
Coercive Tactics Sum	_		
0	43.7%, 132	29.8%, 31	42.8%, 75
1	42.4%, 128	32.7%, 34	32%, 56
2+	13.9%, 42	37.5%, 39	25.2%, 44
Alcohol Involvement			
No alcohol	46.2%, 140	71.6%, 73	94.9%, 166
Presence of alcohol	_ 53.8%, 163	28.5%, 29	5.1%, 9
Drug Involvement			
No drugs	89.2%, 272	92.2%, 95	94.9%, 166
Presence of Drugs	10.8%, 33	7.8%, 8	5.1%, 9

Level	of Fear			
	Not at all afraid	17.2%, 52	17.6%, 18	N/A
	Somewhat afraid	37%, 112	38.2%, 39	65.1%, 114
	Afraid	23.7%, 72	18.6%, 19	20.6%, 36
	Very afraid	22.1%, 67	25.5%, 26	14.3%, 25
		,	,	,
Ackn	owledgment of Crime			
	Crime did not occur	31%, 94	47.6%, 49	45.1%, 79
	Unsure	37%, 112	31%, 32	40%, 70
	Crime occurred	32%, 97	21.4%, 22	14.9%, 26

Disclosure Results

Of the 317 participants who experienced sexual assault, 304 participants completed the disclosure section of the survey, which showed that 75.3% (n=229) of sexual assault victims disclosed their experience of sexual assault to someone. A similar result was found for participants who experienced stalking. Of the 175 participants who experienced stalking, 72.6% (n=127) of them indicated that they told someone about their experience. Interestingly, of the 123 participants who experienced IPV, 104 participants completed the disclosure section of the survey, which demonstrated that only 37.5% (n=39) of IPV victims disclosed their experience to someone. A chi-square statistic conducted on disclosure and victimization type using independent groups of victimization¹ indicated that an association between victimization type and disclosure was observed, $\chi^2(2) = 17.455$, p < .001. This finding supports the hypothesis that there would be differences in disclosure across victimization type and victims of IPV would be the least likely to disclose their experience to anyone.

As predicted, across victimization types, the majority of women who indicated that they disclosed their experience to someone endorsed having told an informal support source. Of the

¹ In order to draw comparisons across types of victimization, and because the survey was structured to assess three victimization types separately, the grouping of sample data varied depending on the analysis being conducted. For example, when analyses required independence of groups based on victimization type, data from participants who reported only one type of victimization was used. In most other analyses, however, data were examined using participants who may have had overlapping experiences of victimization.

229 victims of sexual assault who disclosed their experience to someone, 74.9% (n=167) indicated that they told an informal support source exclusively, 0.9% (n=2) indicated that they told a formal support source exclusively, and 24.2% (n=54) indicated that they told both informal and formal support sources. Similar rates were found for victims of IPV and stalking. Prevalence and disclosure rates for each victimization type are summarized in Table 2. Among the informal support sources that victims told, close friends were the most frequently told support source regardless of victimization type. Among formal support sources, counselors were found to be the most frequently told support source. More detailed information regarding support source utilization and helpfulness after sexual assault, IPV, and stalking can be found in Appendix B.

Table 2

Prevalence and Disclosure Rates by Victimization Type

Victimization Type	Prevalence (n)	Disclosure (% of n)		Support Source (% of "yes" disclosed)			
		Yes	No	Informal	Formal	Both	
Sexual Assault	317	75.3	24.7	74.9	0.9	24.2	
IPV	123	37.5	62.5	78.4	0.0	21.6	
Stalking	175	72.6	27.4	73.4	0.8	25.8	

As described in the introduction, situational and intrapersonal factors have been shown to influence the likelihood a victim discloses their adverse victimization experiences to support sources. Chi-square analyses were run in order to determine whether or not there were significant differences between women who disclosed (no/yes) and who they disclosed to (informal/formal and informal) on the basis of these factors (see Tables 1.1-1.3 and 2.1-2.3 in the Appendix). Since less than 1% of women disclosed to formal support sources only, a separate category was not created for analysis. Next, logistic regression analyses were run in order to assess the effect of the variables on disclosure and disclosure source. Logistic regression analyses were initially run separately in order to identify significant variables (see Tables 3.1-3.3 and 4.1-4.3 in the Appendix). If variables met the cutoff criteria of p < .10 in the simple regression analyses, they

were then combined into a multiple regression model (Ranganathan, Pramesh, & Aggarwal, 2017). The multiple regression models allowed for the simultaneous consideration of the contribution of the variables.

Disclosure (No/Yes): Have You Told Anyone About the Incident?

The chi-square analyses revealed significant associations between level of fear and disclosure (i.e., no/yes) of sexual assault ($\chi^2(3)$ =12.41, p < .01), as well as acknowledgment of crime and disclosure of sexual assault ($\chi^2(2)$ =12.36, p < .01). Sum of coercive tactics approached a significant association with disclosure of IPV ($\chi^2(6)$ =11.43, p=.076). Childhood abuse was significantly associated with disclosure of stalking ($\chi^2(3)$ =8.587, p < .05). There was a near significant association between drug involvement and disclosure of stalking ($\chi^2(1)$ =3.586, p=.058), but since one cell was empty, the Fisher's exact test was interpreted and the association between drug involvement and disclosure of stalking was found to be non-significant (p=.117). Due to the lack of significance and empty cell, drug involvement was later not included in the logistic regression analysis for stalking and disclosure.

As indicated in the simple regression analyses, victims of sexual assault who were "afraid" compared to those who were "not at all afraid" were two times more likely to disclose their experience, whereas those who indicated that they were "very afraid" were approximately three times more likely to disclose. Additionally, victims of sexual assault who were sure a crime occurred were three times more likely to disclose their experience than victims who were unsure whether or not a crime. Because fear and crime acknowledgement were significant at the p < .10 cutoff level in the simple regression analysis, they were included as variables in the multiple logistic regression. The multiple regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(4) = 16.893$, p < .01, explained approximately 10% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in disclosure of sexual

assault, and correctly classified 76.6% of cases. In the combined model, crime acknowledgement and level of fear remained significant predictors of disclosure of sexual assault (Table 3). Given the simultaneous inclusion of the other variables in the model, women were two times more likely to disclose their experience when they were "afraid" compared to "somewhat afraid." In addition, women were more than twice as likely to disclose when they were sure that what happened to them classified as a crime compared to those who were unsure whether or not a crime occurred.

Table 3
Summary of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Disclosure (No/Yes) of Sexual Assault

Variables		В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		
							Lower	Upper
Level	of Fear							
(Ref	group: Somewhat afraid)							
	Afraid	.828	.390	4.511	.034*	2.288	1.066	4.912
	Very afraid	.782	.445	3.092	.079	2.186	.914	5.226
Ackn	Acknowledgment of Crime							
(Ref group: Unsure)								
	Crime did not occur	132	.374	.124	.725	.877	.422	1.823
	Crime occurred	.800	.408	3.844	.050*	2.225	1.000	4.950

Note. (N = 248), Nagelkerke $R^2 = .099, p = .002$

A second logistic regression was used to determine the effects of the independent variables on the likelihood that participants disclosed IPV. Since sum of coercive tactics and drug involvement nearly met the p < .10 cutoff level, they were included as variables in the multiple logistic regression. The model was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(2) = 4.218$, p > .05, indicating that neither the number of coercive tactics nor drug involvement were significantly predictive of disclosure of IPV (Table 4).

Table 4

Summary of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Disclosure (No/Y	Yes) of IPV
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Variables		В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		lence Interval OR
							Lower	Upper
Coerc	eive Tactics Sum	.200	.147	1.848	.174	1.221	.916	1.628
Drug Involvement								
(Ref group: No drugs)								
	Presence of Drugs	1.081	.775	1.947	.163	2.948	.646	13.461

Note. (N = 103), Nagelkerke $R^2 = .055$, p = .121

A third logistic regression was used to determine the effects of the variables on the likelihood that participants disclosed stalking. The simple regression analyses for women who experienced stalking revealed that fear, acknowledgment of crime, and childhood abuse were significantly related to disclosure of stalking. The multiple logistic regression model for disclosure of stalking was statistically significant, $\chi^2(7) = 19.226$, p < .01 (Table 5). The model explained approximately 15% (Nagelkerke R²) of the variance in disclosure of stalking and correctly classified 73% of cases. Women who endorsed that they were "afraid" were four times more likely to disclose their experience of stalking compared to women who indicated that they were "somewhat afraid," given the simultaneous inclusion of the other variables in the model. In addition, the odds of disclosing stalking among victims of childhood sexual abuse were .26 times the odds of those who did not experience childhood abuse. In other words, victims of stalking who experienced childhood sexual abuse were approximately 74% less likely to disclose their experience of stalking compared to those who had no history of childhood abuse. In the combined model, acknowledgement of crime did not remain a significant predictor of disclosure of stalking at the p < .05 level when controlling for other predictors.

Summary of Binary Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Disclosure (No/Yes) of Stalking

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		dence Interval r OR
					Katios	Lower	Upper
Level of Fear							
(Ref group: Somewhat afraid)	_						
Afraid	1.396	.576	5.883	.015*	4.040	1.307	12.485
Very afraid	.232	.525	.195	.658	1.261	.451	3.530
Acknowledgment of Crime (Ref group: Unsure)							
Crime did not occur	.765	.402	3.617	.057	2.148	.977	4.724
Crime occurred	.070	.535	.017	.896	1.072	.376	3.061
Childhood Abuse							
(Ref group: No childhood abuse)							
Physical abuse	.804	.692	1.349	.245	2.235	.575	8.679
Sexual abuse	-1.347	.525	6.573	.010*	.260	.093	.728
Both physical & sexual abuse	161	.469	.117	.732	.851	.339	2.136

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke $R^2 = .151$, p = .008

Overall, these results showed mixed support for the hypotheses pertaining to disclosure. Results provided no evidence of any association between the predictor variables of physical force, coercive tactics, substance use, and level of acquaintance on the likelihood of disclosure. In addition, the overall logistic regression for IPV was not statistically significant, which suggests that the variables in the study do not contribute significantly to the prediction of IPV disclosure. In support of hypotheses, three predictor variables, including level of fear, crime acknowledgment, and childhood victimization, had a statistically significant impact on disclosure decisions. The odds of disclosure of sexual assault increased when the experience was more frightening to the victim and when victims acknowledged that a crime occurred. The odds of disclosure of stalking increased when the experience was more frightening to the victim and decreased when there was a history of childhood sexual abuse.

Disclosure Source (Informal/Formal and Informal): Who Did You Tell?

Chi-square analyses revealed that there were significant relationships between several of the independent variables and type of support source (i.e., informal/formal and informal) told among victims of sexual assault. The level of acquaintance the victim had to the perpetrator $(\chi^2(3)=11.932, p<.01)$, physical force $(\chi^2(1)=12.469, p<.01)$, number of coercive tactics $(\chi^2(4)=26.668, p<.001)$, level of fear $(\chi^2(3)=40.168, p<.001)$, acknowledgement of crime $(\chi^2(2)=32.813, p<.001)$, and history of childhood abuse $(\chi^2(3)=24.239, p<.001)$ were all significantly associated with disclosure source among women who experienced sexual assault. There were no significant relationships between the independent variables and disclosure source among victims of IPV. Among victims of stalking, the sum of coercive tactics $(\chi^2(6)=16.339, p<.05)$ and level of fear $(\chi^2(2)=23.079, p<.001)$ were significantly related to disclosure source at the p<.05 level. Acquaintance to perpetrator $(\chi^2(3)=7.322, p=.062)$ and acknowledgement of crime $(\chi^2(2)=5.687, p=.058)$ approached significance.

As indicated in the simple regression analyses, more violent instances of sexual assault appeared to predict women's disclosure to both formal and informal support sources.

Specifically, assaults in which the perpetrator used physical force and more coercive tactics were related to women's disclosure to both formal and informal support sources. Sexual assault victims were three times as likely to tell both formal and informal sources when the offender used physical force. For every unit increase in coercive tactics women experienced, they were nearly three times more likely to disclose to both formal and informal support sources. In addition, victims of sexual assault were 6.5 times more likely to tell formal and informal support sources when they were "very afraid" during the assault. Women were 2.4 times as likely to tell formal and informal sources when they were "very acquainted" to the perpetrator and 4.5 times more likely to tell formal and informal sources when they were sure what happened to them was

a crime. Lastly, previous victimization appeared to significantly predict disclosure to formal and informal support sources. Assault victims who also experienced childhood physical abuse were nearly five times more likely to disclose to formal and informal supports, whereas women who experienced both physical and sexual abuse were over six times as likely to disclose to both formal and informal sources.

Since all eight predictor variables were significant at the p < .10 cutoff level in the simple regression analyses, they were included as independent variables in the multiple logistic regression model (Table 6). The multiple logistic regression model for disclosure source after sexual assault was statistically significant, $\chi^2(14) = 64.296$, p < .001. The model explained approximately 42% (Nagelkerke R²) of the variance in the disclosure to informal only or both formal and informal support sources after sexual assault, and correctly classified 71% of cases. According to the model, acknowledgement of crime and childhood abuse remained significant predictors of telling both formal and informal support sources after sexual assault, controlling for other predictors. Women who were sure a crime occurred were four times more likely than women who were unsure a crime occurred to disclose to formal and informal support sources. Women who experienced childhood physical abuse or childhood physical and sexual abuse were 5.6 and 3.4 times, respectively, more likely to tell both formal and informal support sources compared to women who had no experiences of childhood abuse. Acquaintance to perpetrator, physical force, coercive tactics, alcohol and drug involvement, and level of fear were not significantly predictive of type of support source told after sexual assault when controlling for the other variables. Level of coercive tactics approached significance, but fell short of meeting the p < .05 significance level.

Table 6

Summary of Multiple Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Disclosure Source (Informal/Formal and Informal) of Sexual Assault

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		fidence Interval or OR
						Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator							
(Ref group: Did not know at all)	i						
Slightly acquainted	559	.569	.963	.327	.572	.187	1.746
Acquainted	936	.595	2.470	.116	.392	.122	1.260
Very acquainted	.695	.619	1.259	.262	2.003	.595	6.740
Physical Force							
(Ref group: No)							
Yes	.007	.487	.000	.989	1.007	.387	2.616
Coercive Tactics Sum	.513	.271	3.585	.058	1.671	.982	2.843
Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)							
Presence of alcohol	578	.459	1.585	.208	.561	.228	1.380
Drug Involvement							
(Ref group: No drugs)	1 224	650	2.522	0.61	2.426	0.45	10.466
Presence of Drugs	1.234	.658	3.523	.061	3.436	.947	12.466
Level of Fear							
(Ref group: Somewhat afraid)							
Afraid	020	.544	.001	.971	.980	.337	2.850
Very afraid	.606	.579	1.095	.295	1.833	.589	5.703
Acknowledgment of Crime							
(Ref group: Unsure)	1						
Crime did not occur	181	.686	.070	.792	.834	.218	3.200
Crime occurred	1.388	.492	7.955	.005*	4.005	1.527	10.503
Childhood Abuse							
(Ref group: No childhood abuse)							
Physical abuse	1.717	.729	5.542	.019*	5.568	1.333	23.255
Sexual abuse	295	.573	.266	.606	.744	.242	2.288
Both physical & sexual	1.221	.540	5.106	.024*	3.389	1.176	9.770
abuse	1 72						

Note. (N = 185), Nagelkerke R^2 = .419, p = .000

None of the predictor variables for the simple logistic regression analyses for disclosure source after IPV met the p < .10 cutoff. Therefore, no multiple logistic regression model was conducted to determine the effects of the variables on the type of disclosure source after IPV.

In regard to women who experienced stalking, the simple regression analyses revealed that women who were "very acquainted" to the offender, compared to those who did not know the offender at all, were 2.6 times more likely to disclose to formal and informal support sources.

Furthermore, for every unit increase in coercive tactics, women were 1.7 times more likely to tell both types of support sources. The presence of alcohol also appeared to increase the likelihood of disclosure to formal and informal supports by 4.6 times. Women who experienced stalking were more than five times more likely to disclose to both formal and informal support sources when they were "afraid," and more than 12 times more likely to tell formal sources when they were "very afraid." Women who indicated that they were sure their experience was not a crime were .34 times less likely to tell both types of support. Lastly, women who experienced both physical and sexual abuse in childhood were nearly three times more likely to tell both formal and informal support sources after stalking.

Since these six predictor variables were significant at the p < .10 cutoff level in the simple regression analyses, they were included as independent variables in the multiple logistic regression model (Table 7). The multiple logistic regression model for disclosure source after stalking was statistically significant, $\chi^2(12) = 31.081$, p < .01. The model explained approximately 33% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the disclosure to informal only or both formal and informal support sources after stalking, and correctly classified 74% of cases. According to the model, only level of fear remained a significant predictor of telling both formal and informal support sources after stalking, controlling for the other predictors. The more afraid women were after experiencing stalking, the more likely they were to disclose to both formal and informal support sources. Women who indicated that they were "afraid" were 4.5 times more likely to disclose to formal and informal support sources, whereas women who were "very afraid" were 8.6 times more likely to tell both types of support sources, controlling for the other variables in the model.

Table 7

Summary of Multiple Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Disclosure Source (Informal/Formal and Informal) of Stalking

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		dence Interval or OR
						Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator							
(Ref group: Did not know at all)							
Slightly acquainted	.100	.778	.017	.897	1.105	.241	5.077
Acquainted	.035	.840	.002	.967	1.036	.199	5.376
Very acquainted	.559	.786	.507	.477	1.750	.375	8.168
Coercive Tactics Sum	.225	.220	1.041	.308	1.252	.813	1.927
Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)							
Presence of alcohol	.941	1.245	.572	.450	2.563	.224	29.393
Level of Fear							
(Ref group: Somewhat afraid)							
Afraid	1.494	.574	6.781	.009*	4.456	1.477	13.721
Very afraid	2.151	.724	8.834	.004*	8.590	2.080	35.473
Acknowledgment of Crime							
(Ref group: Unsure)							
Crime did not occur	665	.548	1.473	.225	.514	.176	1.505
Crime occurred	967	.773	1.564	.211	.380	.084	1.731
Childhood Abuse							
(Ref group: No childhood abuse)							
Physical abuse	.046	.728	.004	.950	1.047	.251	4.465
Sexual abuse	262	.917	.082	.775	.769	.127	4.645
Both physical & sexual	.607	.606	1.004	.316	1.835	.559	6.020
abuse							

Note. (N = 123), Nagelkerke $R^2 = .327$, p = .002

In summary, the results did not support the hypothesis that disclosure to formal support sources would be less likely when the experience involved substance use or when the victim and perpetrator had a higher level of acquaintance. In fact, the simple regression analyses confirmed the opposite in the case of level of acquaintance. Women who were sexually assaulted or stalked were more likely to report to both formal and informal support sources when they had a higher level of acquaintance with the perpetrator. However, the multiple regression models did not retain level of acquaintance as a statistically significant predictor for either type of victimization. When controlling for other predictors, acknowledgement that a crime occurred and childhood victimization increased the odds women disclosed sexual assault to more formal support sources,

whereas higher levels of fear increased the odds women disclosed stalking to formal support sources. Again, the overall logistic regression model for IPV was not statistically significant.

Perceived Helpfulness Results

Summed level of perceived helpfulness was converted into percentage scores so that perceived helpfulness was relative to total helpfulness possible given the number of sources the participant told. A comparison of means showed that, on average, victims of sexual assault perceived support sources to be less helpful than victims of IPV and stalking (Table 8). This finding substantiates the hypothesis that there would be differences in perceived helpfulness across victimization type with victims of sexual assault perceiving support sources as generally less helpful.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess whether the mean level of perceived helpfulness after victimization differed depending on the independent variables in the study. For perceived helpfulness after sexual assault, level of acquaintance was the only variable that approached significance (F(3, 203) = 2.310, p = .077). A Tukey HSD multiple comparison post-hoc revealed that victims of sexual assault rated support sources as more helpful, on average, when they did not know the perpetrator at all, compared to those who were slightly acquainted to the perpetrator (p = 0.069). For perceived helpfulness after IPV, drug involvement appeared to be statistically significant. An independent samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in mean perceived helpfulness after IPV between instances of IPV that had drug involvement and those that did not (t(28) = 7.938, p < .001). The presence of drugs corresponded to increased perceived helpfulness after IPV. For stalking, a trend towards a statistically significant positive correlation was found between number of coercive tactics and level of perceived helpfulness (r(103) = .171, p = .082). The hypothesis that victims across

victimization types would perceive support sources as less helpful when the experience involved substance use was not supported, but exploratory analyses revealed additional factors that may impact perceived helpfulness.

Table 8

Comparison of Means for Perceived Helpfulness by Type of Victimization

	n	Mean	Standard	Median	Standard Error of	Range
		Helpfulness	Deviation		Mean	
Sexual Assault	209	64.90	21.36	62.50	1.48	75.00
IPV	31	74.22	19.33	75.00	3.47	58.33
Stalking	105	69.48	21.42	75.00	2.09	75.00

Trauma Symptomatology Results

An ANOVA was performed comparing participants' PTSD symptom severity, measured on a continuous scale, based on number of types of victimization experiences (one, two, or three). For clarity, one victimization experience would refer to sexual assault, IPV, or stalking, whereas three victimization experiences denotes that all three types of victimization experiences were present. Two victimization experiences would be any pairing of the types of victimization measured in the study (e.g., sexual assault and stalking, sexual assault and IPV, stalking and IPV, etc.). A statistically significant difference was found (F(2, 373) = 26.789, p < .001), with an estimated effect size of .126 (Eta-squared), suggesting that approximately 13% of the variance in PTSD can be explained or accounted for by the number of types of victimization experiences featured in the study. Because the assumption of equality of variances was suspect (Levene's test indicated a violation), a more robust F-test was also performed (Welch), for which the null hypothesis was also easily rejected (p < .001).

A Tukey HSD multiple comparisons post-hoc procedure was used to follow-up on the statistically significant ANOVA findings as to learn of where pairwise mean differences exist among number of type of victimization experiences. Statistically significant mean differences

were found between one and two types of victimization experiences (p < .01), one and three (p < .001), and two and three (p < .001). A follow-up analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to investigate mean differences of number of victimization experiences on PTSD while controlling for the effect of childhood abuse. The assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met, as no evidence of childhood abuse by number of victimization experiences interaction was found. The number of types of victimization experiences was found to be statistically significant (p < .001), suggesting that in the population from which these data were drawn, higher PTSD was associated with increased number of types of victimization experiences.

Several one-way ANOVAs were performed to examine differences in trauma symptom severity by specific support source sought, use, and helpfulness (i.e., whether the support source was helpful, unhelpful, or not accessed). For sexual assault, statistically significant differences were found in PTSD based on use and helpfulness of parents (F(2, 144) = 3.364, p < .05), romantic partners (F(2, 161) = 4.997, p < .01), counselors (F(2, 143) = 24.479, p < .001), doctors/nurses (F(2, 140) = 6.654, p < .01), university faculty (F(2, 139) = 6.578, p < .01), university residence hall staff (F(2, 136) = 5.200, p < .01), city police (F(1, 133) = 24.475, p < .001), county sheriff (F(1, 133) = 11.799, p < .01), campus sexual assault advocates at SARC (F(2, 139) = 20.999, p < .001), Title IX (F(2, 136) = 7.374, p < .01), and counseling services off-campus (F(2, 138) = 7.673, p < .01).

A Bonferroni multiple comparisons correction post-hoc procedure was used to follow-up on the statistically significant ANOVA findings as to learn of where pairwise mean differences existed among helpfulness by source. Statistically significant mean differences were found between Parent Unhelpful and Parent Not Accessed (p < .05), Romantic Partner Unhelpful and

Romantic Partner Not Accessed (p < .01), Romantic Partner Unhelpful and Romantic Partner Helpful (p < .05), Residence Hall Staff Helpful and Residence Hall Staff Not Accessed (p < .05), and Title IX Unhelpful and Title IX Not Accessed (p < .05), Title IX Helpful and Title IX Not Accessed (p < .05). Significance values from independent samples t-tests were used to determine differences between groups when there were only two groups of the independent variable. Statistically significant mean differences were found between Counselor Helpful and Counselor Not Accessed, but because the assumption of equality of variances was suspect (Levene's test indicated a violation), a more robust F-test was performed, for which the null hypothesis was also rejected (t(38) = 5.934, p < .001). Statistically significant mean differences in trauma symptomatology were also found between Medical Doctor/Nurse Helpful and Medical Doctor/Nurse Not Accessed (t(140) = 2.53, p < .05), Faculty Helpful and Faculty Not Accessed (t(139) = 2.981, p < .01), City Police Helpful and City Police Not Accessed (t(133) = 4.947, p < .01).001), County Sheriff Helpful and County Sheriff Not Accessed (t(133) = 3.435, p < .01), SARC Helpful and SARC Not Accessed (t(139) = 6.226, p < .001), Confidential Counseling Off-Campus Helpful and Confidential Counseling Off-Campus Not Accessed (t(138) = 3.563, p < 1.563.01). Overall, higher PTSD scores among women who experienced sexual assault were associated with unhelpful parents, unhelpful romantic partners, helpful counselors, helpful and unhelpful doctors/nurses, helpful and unhelpful faculty, helpful residence hall staff, helpful city police, helpful county sheriffs, helpful and unhelpful SARC, helpful and unhelpful Title IX, and helpful and unhelpful services off-campus.

No statistically significant differences were found comparing participants' PTSD symptom severity based on use or helpfulness of support sources among victims of IPV. For stalking, ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences in PTSD based on use and

helpfulness of clergy (F(2, 118) = 6.131, p < .01), residence hall staff (F(1, 120) = 7.687, p < .01) .01), and city police (F(2, 118) = 1.427, p = .244). Because the assumption of equality of variances was suspect for city police (Levene's test indicated a within marginal violation), a more robust F-test was performed (Welch), for which the null hypothesis was rejected (p < .05). A Bonferroni multiple comparisons correction post-hoc procedure was used to follow-up on the statistically significant ANOVA findings as to learn of where pairwise mean differences existed among helpfulness by source. Statistically significant mean differences were found between Clergy Unhelpful and Clergy Not Accessed (p < .01), as well as Clergy Unhelpful and Clergy Helpful (p < .01). The independent samples t-test revealed significant differences between Residence Hall Staff Helpful and Residence Hall Staff Not Accessed (t(120) = 2.773, p < .01). A Games-Howell post hoc follow-up procedure (which does not assume equal variances and sample sizes) was conducted to test the difference between pairwise comparisons among city police helpfulness and use. Statistically significant mean differences were found between City Police Unhelpful and City Police Helpful (p < .05). Use and helpfulness of roommate (F(2, 130) = 2.910, p = .058) and county sheriff (F(1, 118) = 3.267, p = .073) showed trends towards significance, but did not meet the p < .05 level of significance. Overall, higher PTSD scores among women who experienced stalking were associated with unhelpful clergy, helpful residence hall staff, and unhelpful city police.

Simple linear regression was performed to see whether the summed level of perceived helpfulness could help predict trauma symptomatology across types of victimization. The residual plots for helpfulness of sexual assault and stalking appeared to violate the assumptions of the linear regression model. Therefore, sequential polynomial regression analysis was employed to investigate the nature of the relationship between helpfulness and trauma

symptomatology. After evaluating a linear model, each additional step involved entering the next highest power of the predictor (i.e., helpfulness). This continued until the addition of the next highest power increased the fit of the model to the data by an insignificant or otherwise trivial amount. As shown in Table 9, adding a quadratic component and cubic component to the sexual assault model produced a significant increase in fit. Accordingly, the cubic model was adopted, F(1, 184) = 4.410, p < .01, $R^2 = .067$ (Figure 1). As shown in Table 10, no regression model of helpfulness predicting trauma symptomatology was significant among victims of IPV, F(1, 26) = 1.181, p > .05, $R^2 = .058$. For victims of stalking, the linear model of perceived helpfulness and trauma symptomatology demonstrated significance, F(1, 94) = 3.920, p < .05, $R^2 = .04$ (Table 11, Figure 2). The direction and tails of the regression lines demonstrate support for the hypothesis that the lower the perceived helpfulness, the higher the trauma symptomatology, and vice versa.

Table 9

Regression Analysis for Summed Perceived Helpfulness Predicting PTSD After Sexual Assault

Step	R Square Change	F Change	df	p
1: Linear	.012	2.331	1, 186	.128
2: Quadratic	.032	6.288	1, 185	.013
3: Cubic	.022	4.384	1, 184	.038

Figure 1

Relationship Between Helpfulness and PTSD After Sexual Assault

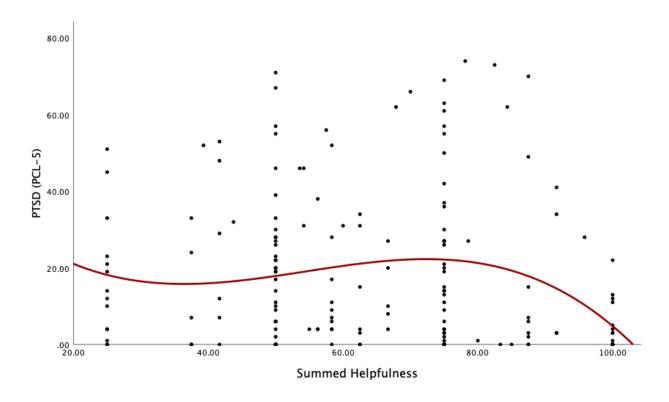


Table 10

Regression Analysis for Summed Perceived Helpfulness Predicting PTSD After IPV

Step	R Square Change	F Change	df	p
1: Linear	.043	1.181	1, 26	.287
2: Quadratic	.015	.393	1, 25	.536

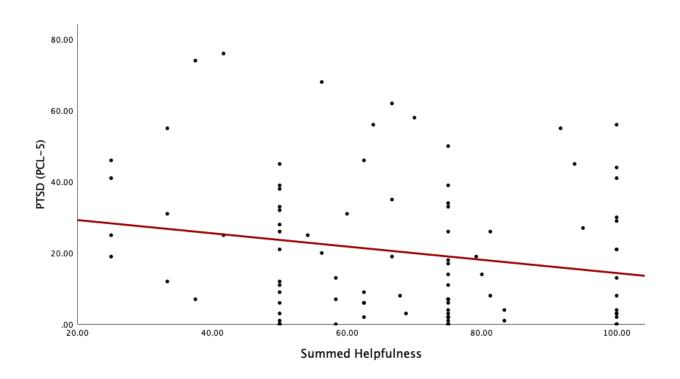
Table 11

Regression Analysis for Summed Perceived Helpfulness Predicting PTSD After Stalking

Step	R Square Change	F Change	df	p
1: Linear	.040	3.920	1, 94	.051
2: Quadratic	.025	2.487	1, 93	.118
3: Cubic	.000	.005	1, 92	.943

Figure 2

Relationship Between Helpfulness and PTSD After Stalking



Discussion

This study had three main aims. The first purpose of the current study was to explore the prevalence rates of three different types of victimization, including sexual assault, intimate partner violence (IPV), and stalking, among a college-aged sample, as well as compare how intrapersonal and situational variables across these three types of victimization impact college-

attending women's disclosure to social support sources. While prevalence findings tend to vary widely depending on research design and methodology, the prevalence rates for sexual assault, IPV, and stalking found in this study were consistent with past research (Fedina, Holmes, & Backes, 2018; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, 2016). Overall, nearly one in two college-attending women between the ages of 18 and 25 experienced some form of victimization in the past year or since they have been at the University of Montana. As predicted, the majority of women told someone about their victimization experience, with the exception of women who experienced IPV, and disclosure to informal support sources was more frequent than disclosure to formal support sources. The current study revealed that rates of disclosure varied by victimization type and disclosure rates of IPV were the lowest overall. Well over half of the women in the current study said they had not told anyone about their experience of intimate partner physical violence.

This result conflicts with previous research that states that the majority of IPV victims tell someone about their experience (Ansara & Hindin, 2010; Edwards, Dardis, & Gidycz, 2012; Sylaska & Edwards, 2014). It may be that college-attending women face specific barriers that prevent them from disclosing their experiences of IPV, such as intersecting social networks, being away from home and removed from previously established support networks, fear about the responses they may receive from their friend group, family, abuser, or school administrators, and lack of knowledge or education surrounding what constitutes healthy dating relationships. Nearly 50% of women in this study who endorsed that they experienced unwanted physical violence by a romantic partner later endorsed that they were sure that what happened to them did not classify as a crime. The reversal of disclosure rates among college women based on type of victimization adds important information to this research area and signals a need for further

investigation. These findings also affirm the need for revamped campus education, response, and prevention efforts specifically tailored to address intimate partner violence.

Three predictor variables in this study provided significant results for the prediction of disclosure and disclosure source, although the variables differed in significance across types of victimization. Logistic analyses indicated that level of fear, crime acknowledgement, and childhood abuse were significantly predictive of disclosure and disclosure source. Specifically, for women who experienced sexual assault or stalking, higher levels of fear increased the odds of disclosure in general. Furthermore, women who experienced stalking were significantly more likely to tell formal support sources when they had increased fear during their stalking experience. This result suggests that the level of fear a woman feels during an experience of sexual assault or stalking may facilitate and motivate help-seeking behavior to a certain extent. It may also be the case that victims perceive more fearful experiences as substantial enough to disclose to support sources. In addition to level of fear, acknowledgement that a crime occurred increased the odds of disclosure for women who experienced sexual assault, whereas women who experienced stalking showed decreased odds of disclosure if they had also experienced childhood sexual abuse. Interestingly, none of the predictor variables remained significant for women who experienced IPV, perhaps in part due to the smaller sample size and reversal of disclosure rates among this group. Additional research is needed to understand what contextual variables are related to disclosure of IPV among college-attending women.

A closer examination of factors predicting disclosure source showed that victims of sexual assault were more likely to disclose to formal support sources when their experience of assault was more violent and included the presence of physical force, increased coercive tactics, and increased levels of fear. These variables were significant predictors of disclosure source only

when analyzed separately using simple regression analyses. In the multiple regression analysis, acknowledgment that a crime occurred became the primary significant predictive factor of whether women disclosed to formal support sources after sexual assault. This finding may suggest that women are more likely to label their experience of sexual assault as a crime if it is more violent and frightening, and that the appraisal of criminality motivates victims to seek help from more formal support sources.

Previous research has shown that victims of sexual assault are more likely to disclose their experience if it conforms to "stereotypical" notions of assault, such as if the assault was perpetrated by a stranger, physical injuries were sustained, and the perpetrator used a weapon. Researchers have hypothesized that these findings may in large part be due to women feeling they will be believed upon disclosure if their experience conforms to what society deems "real" rape (Fisher et al., 2003; Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, & Townsend, 2005; Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti, & McCauley, 2007). Contrary to previous research, the current study found that increased level of acquaintance between victim and perpetrator increased the odds of disclosing both sexual assault and stalking to formal support sources when variables were examined separately. Additionally, the current study did not find an association between substance use and disclosure. Prior research has shown that alcohol use during victimization significantly lowers rates of disclosure (Finkelson & Oswalt, 1995; Kilpatrick et al., 2007). The results of the current study suggest that perhaps there has been some positive cultural shift in the understanding and awareness of sexual assault, especially as it relates to situational variables and college women's likelihood to disclose to support sources. Inaccurate stereotypes of victimization hinder survivors from getting help, and often lead to victims being blamed and shamed. If more people, from students themselves to campus professional support sources,

rejected stereotyped understandings of violence against women, women might be more inclined to seek help and receive more helpful responses.

The findings related to crime acknowledgment suggest that even though college women endorse survey items that follow legal definitions of sexual assault or rape, many women do not recognize or acknowledge their experience as a crime. The discrepancy between experience and perception of crime, a phenomenon that some researchers have termed "unacknowledged rape," has been shown to be higher among the college student population (Wilson & Miller, 2016). The current study found that women who were certain and labeled their experience of assault as a crime showed significantly increased odds of disclosing their experience to resources that offer more formal help. This finding raises several important implications. Disclosing to more formal support sources, such as counselors and advocates, increases the likelihood that women receive services that can help them heal from the adverse effects of assault. If women are unsure or do not acknowledge their experience of assault as a crime, they may be less likely to disclose, which means they may not get the help or support they need.

These results warrant the need for educational information, particularly as it relates to the criminality of sexual assault, to be underscored and made widely available to college-attending individuals. Campuses that enforce mandatory safety or bystander trainings to students and employees, or those with campus-wide sexual assault prevention campaigns, may benefit from ensuring that students comprehend the information provided to them, such as through the implementation of an assessment or evaluation tool. It may be that the downstream effects of such efforts would result in more victims disclosing their experiences and receiving the services they need, and, may have available to them on-campus.

In regard to the significant association between childhood abuse and disclosure found in the current study, there is extensive research on revictimization, which shows that a history of sexual victimization is a strong predictor of future victimization (Ellis, Atkeson, & Calhoun, 1982; Gidycz, Coble, Latham, & Layman, 1993; Grauerholz, 2000; Classen, Palesh, & Aggarwal, 2005; Ports, Ford, & Merrick, 2016). The literature on revictimization primarily discusses how common it is for adult survivors of childhood abuse to delay disclosure or never disclose their experiences as children (Somer & Szwarcberg, 2001; Smith et al., 2000; Collin-Vézina, De La Sablonnière-Griffin, Palmer, & Milne, 2015). The current study showed that childhood victimization decreased the likelihood women disclosed adulthood experiences of stalking, but increased the likelihood they disclosed adulthood sexual assault to formal and informal supports. The current study highlights the potential varied effect that prior victimization or revictimization has on women's likelihood to disclose subsequent adverse experiences as young adults. While it is a somewhat hopeful finding that prior victimization did not inhibit sexual assault victims from seeking formal help, the relationship between revictimization and adulthood disclosure is complex and dynamic and requires further study.

The second purpose of the study was to assess women's perceived helpfulness of support sources across victimization types. As predicted, victims of sexual assault perceived support sources as less helpful, on average, when compared with women's perceptions of helpfulness after IPV and stalking. Previous research has shown that victims of sexual assault receive more negative social reactions from formal support sources (Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, & Townsend, 2005; Ullman, 1996b; Ullman & Filipas, 2001a), which may be one possible explanation for this finding. This finding may also be reflective of the cultural stigmatization and misunderstanding

of sexual assault, which could negatively influence the level of helpfulness victims may receive upon disclosure.

The current study found a trend towards significance that showed that survivors of sexual assault rated support sources as more helpful, on average, when they did not know the perpetrator at all, compared to those who were slightly acquainted to the perpetrator. This finding demonstrates one example of how support sources may be biased and operating from flawed conceptualizations of sexual assault, especially since the vast majority of sexual assaults happen between people who know each other (Koss, 1985; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Continued efforts to enhance positive and helpful responses and reduce rape myths among campus service providers and support sources likely to come into contact with survivors is needed. Prior research has shown that only around half of peers contacted by college-aged survivors of sexual assault felt they could be helpful or supportive to the survivor (Edwards et al., 2015). Education about how to be helpful to survivors is needed at all institutional levels, from peers to administrators. Equipping people with how to respond in helpful ways would likely result in more helpful responses towards survivors, which would further allow for increased rates of disclosure, connection with needed services, and improved psychological outcomes among survivors.

The third purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between women's perceived helpfulness after victimization and subsequent trauma symptomology. The findings demonstrate the complicated relationship between disclosure, helpfulness of support sources, and PTSD symptoms. In some instances, women who found the source unhelpful had higher PTSD symptom severity than those who found it helpful. For example, women who utilized romantic partners for support after sexual assault and felt that their significant other was "not at all helpful" had significantly higher trauma symptoms than women who found romantic partners

"helpful." Similarly, women who disclosed their experience of stalking to clergy or city police and found either source unhelpful had significantly higher PTSD symptoms than those who found those sources helpful. In other instances, women who utilized a support source and felt it was unhelpful showed significantly higher trauma symptoms than those who did not utilize the source. For example, women who utilized parents after sexual assault and felt that their parent/guardian was "not at all helpful" had significantly higher trauma symptoms than women who did not utilize their parents for support at all. This was also the case with Title IX after sexual assault, in which women had more trauma symptoms when Title IX was unhelpful than when it was not accessed.

Moreover, in many cases, analyses revealed that women had higher PTSD symptoms after a support source was perceived to be helpful compared to those who did not access the source. For example, sexual assault victims who found counselors helpful had higher PTSD scores than women who did not access counselors for support. A similar result was found among women who experienced stalking and sought help from residence hall staff. These findings seem counter to what would be expected. It may be the case that women who seek help from a counselor after an adverse experience do so because they are experiencing higher symptoms of trauma and are in dire need of relief. This interpretation is consistent with prior research that has noted strong correlations between the severity of psychological distress and increased odds of formal help-seeking after victimization (Amstadter et al., 2008; Starzynski et al., 2007; Fleming & Resick, 2017). Due to the correlational and cross-sectional nature of this research, we cannot conclude that helpful counselors cause higher PTSD among women, just like we cannot conclude that unhelpful parents cause higher PTSD. Similar conclusions may be drawn for the decision to disclose to law enforcement. It may be that the women in this study were prompted to report

their experience to police because they knew a crime occurred, or because their heightened symptoms of PTSD prompted them to seek more formal help, or some combination of the two.

Overall, disclosure to and helpfulness of a specific support source may or may not exacerbate symptoms of PTSD. Even if sources are helpful, PTSD symptoms may remain high among survivors. This finding may be in part due to the stressful and potentially retraumatizing process of recalling, disclosing, and reporting victimization. Regardless of the complicated relationship between support source utilization, helpfulness, and PTSD symptomatology, the need for trauma-informed care and response across campus resources is vital. Fortunately, the results from the current study showed that the majority of survivors across victimization types received helpful responses from every support source included in the study. That is, there were no support sources that received more "unhelpful" ratings than "helpful" ratings from women across victimization types.

In further support of trauma-informed approaches, regression analyses in the current study revealed that women's PTSD symptomatology decreased as summed helpfulness increased. While the regression relationship between PTSD and helpfulness among women who experienced sexual assault was cubic, as opposed to linear, the tails and general slope of the regression lines supported the prediction that trauma symptomatology would decrease as a function of increased perceived helpfulness, and vice versa. This finding adds further support for the need to continue and maintain current campus interventions and trainings that are in place that may be helping to increase the sensitivity that support providers offer survivors. Ongoing efforts to evaluate training and assess whether this relates to better post-victimization adjustment among survivors is needed.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

The current study had both strengths and limitations. Perhaps the biggest strength of this study was the comparison of three different types of victimization experiences prevalent on college campuses. A deeper understanding of what factors preclude or promote disclosure among survivors of different types of victimization provides direction for existing campus resources and educators to build upon and improve prevention, intervention, and response efforts based on the experiences of a broader population of students. While there was some overlap of significant predictor variables across types of victimization, there were also some important differences. This highlights the importance of systematically studying and comparing influential factors across victimization experiences. Many American colleges and universities have improved and strengthened their protocols to respond to campus victimization in recent years, but the evaluation of said responses relies on students disclosing their experiences in the first place. If victims do not disclose their experiences, they may not receive the social support needed to address the harmful effects of victimization. Further, if victims are met with unhelpful responses upon disclosure, they are at increased risk of additional psychological and emotional harm. The information in this study could help colleges and universities assess the strengths and limitations of their own response efforts, develop ways to encourage reporting and help-seeking, and address the misconceptions that women hold regarding what constitutes reportable victimization. Additional strengths for this study include the large campus-wide sample that was collected, the assessment of trauma symptomatology, and the collection of information into the perceived helpfulness of specific support sources.

This study had several limitations that future research can address. First, this study was limited by its cross-sectional design, making it impossible to establish causality. Further inquiry

is needed to explore the longitudinal relationship between disclosure, perceived helpfulness, and subsequent psychological and emotional adjustment. A second limitation was the study's non-representative sampling strategy, which prevents generalizing results to representatively sampled individuals outside of the college population and this region. Future research could compare how the current study's results compare with data collected from other universities, or gather census data from a sample of universities nation-wide.

This study examined female victims of sexual assault, IPV, and stalking. Because men experience victimization as well, more research and education is needed regarding the victimization of males (Allen, Ridgeway, & Swan, 2015). A third limitation involved the study's reliance on self-report survey data and retrospective recall. Future studies could use a mixed method design to provide a more complete and comprehensive understanding of the disclosure decision-making process and what constitutes helpful or unhelpful support responses.

Future research could also examine the processes behind crime acknowledgement. In addition, the current study measured IPV based on the presence of physical violence. Future studies could broaden their definition of IPV in order to capture a more complete prevalence rate of IPV. The narrower definition of IPV used in this study might account for the smaller sample size in the current study. More research is needed in general on this particular victimization type among college-attending individuals.

Related, follow-up studies might deconstruct what is meant by "sexual assault" to include analyses on more specific groups. For example, it may be beneficial to analyze the important predictors of disclosure among women who have experienced sexual harassment, unwanted sexual contact, and rape, separately, in order to understand possible unique predictors across these forms of victimization. The current study grouped unwanted sexual contact and rape

together to comprise the sexual assault group, which may have resulted less nuanced information.

Lastly, future research should address how multiple victimizations might impact the predictors of disclosure. While the current study found that college women who experienced multiple types of victimization reported increased PTSD symptoms, the current study mainly analyzed the role of revictimization based on childhood experiences. Future studies would benefit from examining the impact and relationship between multiple victimization experiences in adulthood, disclosure, and psychological outcomes.

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Tables

Table 1.1

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure (no/yes) of sexual assault

Independent Variables	No Disclosure	Yes Disclosure	N	χ² value	p-value
	(%, n)	(%, n)			
Acquaintance to Perpetrator			299	1.307	.727
Did not know at all	18%, 13	24%, 54			
Slightly acquainted	32%, 23	30%, 67			
Acquainted	30%, 22	26%, 59			
Very acquainted	20%, 15	20%, 46			
Physical Force			300	1.273	.259
No	63%, 46	56%, 126			
Yes	37%, 27	44%, 101			
Coercive Tactics Sum			302	2.147	.709
0	43%, 32	44%, 100			
1	44%, 33	42%, 95			
2+	13%, 10	14%, 32			
Alcohol Involvement			302	1.187	.276
No alcohol	41%, 30	48%, 109			
Presence of alcohol	59%, 44	52%, 119			
Drug Involvement			304	1.805	.179
No drugs	93%, 70	88%, 201			
Presence of Drugs	7%, 5	12%, 28			
Level of Fear			301	12.410	.006
Not at all afraid	22%, 16	16%, 36			
Somewhat afraid	50%, 37	33%, 74			
Afraid	16%, 12	26%, 59			
Very afraid	12%, 9	25%, 58			
Acknowledgment of Crime			302	12.361	.002
Crime did not occur	41%, 31	28%, 63			
Unsure	43%, 32	35%, 79			
Crime occurred	16%, 12	37%, 85			

Childhood Abuse (Chi-square value=3.818, *p*=.282)

Table 1.2

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure (no/yes) of IPV

Independent Variables	No Disclosure $(\%, n)$	Yes Disclosure (%, n)	N	χ² value	p-value
Acquaintance to Perpetrator	(70, 11)	(70, 11)	103	1.297	.730
Did not know at all	3%, 2	0%, 0			
Slightly acquainted	6%, 4	8%, 3			
Acquainted	14%, 9	13%, 5			

Very acquainted	77%, 50	79%, 30			
Physical Force	_		103	.507	.477
No	22%, 14	16%, 6			
Yes	78%, 51	84%, 32			
Coercive Tactics Sum			104	11.429	.076
0	29%, 19	31%, 12			
1	37%, 24	26%, 10			
2+	34%, 22	43%, 17			
Alcohol Involvement			102	1.282	.257
No alcohol	75%, 49	65%, 24			
Presence of alcohol	25%, 16	35%, 13			
Drug Involvement	_		103	2.443	.118
No drugs	95%, 62	87%, 33			
Presence of Drugs	5%, 3	13%, 5			
Level of Fear			102	1.605	.658
Not at all afraid	20%, 13	13%, 5			
Somewhat afraid	39%, 25	37%, 14			
Afraid	19%, 12	18%, 7			
Very afraid	22%, 14	32%, 12			
Acknowledgment of Crime	_		103	.435	.804
Crime did not occur	48%, 31	47%, 18			
Unsure	29%, 19	34%, 13			
Crime occurred	23%, 15	19%, 7			

Childhood Abuse (Chi-square value=.230, p=.973)

Table 1.3

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure (no/yes) of stalking

Independent Variables	No Disclosure	Yes Disclosure	N	χ² value	p-value
_	(%, n)	(%, n)		~	
Acquaintance to Perpetrator			175	1.549	.671
Did not know at all	27%, 13	21%, 27			
Slightly acquainted	33%, 16	33%, 42			
Acquainted	13%, 6	20%, 25			
Very acquainted	27%, 13	26%, 33			
Physical Force				N/A	N/A
No	N/A				
Yes	N/A				
Coercive Tactics Sum			175	4.067	.668
0	46%, 22	42%, 53			
1	23%, 11	35%, 45			
2+	31%, 15	23%, 29			
Alcohol Involvement			175	.129	.719

No alcohol	96%, 46	94%, 120				
Presence of alcohol	4%, 2	6%, 7				
1						
Drug Involvement			175	3.586	.058	
No drugs	100%, 48	93%, 118				
Presence of Drugs	0	7%, 9				
Level of Fear			175	4.192	.123	
Not at all afraid	N/A	N/A				
Somewhat afraid	73%, 35	62%, 79				
Afraid	10%, 5	25%, 31				
Very afraid	17%, 8	13%, 17				
Acknowledgment of Crime			175	3.843	.146	
Crime did not occur	33%, 16	50%, 63				
Unsure	50%, 24	36%, 46				
Crime occurred	17%, 8	14%, 18				
	T	1		T a = a=		
Childhood Abuse			175	8.587	.035	
No	48%, 23	55%, 70				
Physical abuse	6%, 3	15%, 19				
~	1 1		ı		ı	

No	48%, 23	55%, 70		
Physical abuse	6%, 3	15%, 19		
Sexual abuse	25%, 12	9%, 12		
Both physical & sexual	21%, 10	21%, 26		
abuse				

Table 2.1

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure source (informal/formal and informal) after sexual assault

Independent Variables	Informal (%, <i>n</i>)	Formal and Informal	N	χ² value	p-value
		(%, n)			
Acquaintance to Perpetrator			219	11.932	.008
Did not know at all	24%, 40	24%, 13			
Slightly acquainted	33%, 54	20%, 11			
Acquainted	28%, 47	20%, 11			
Very acquainted	15%, 24	35%, 19			
Physical Force			220	12.469	.000
No	63%, 104	35%, 19			
Yes	37%, 62	65%, 35			
Coercive Tactics Sum			221	26.668	.000
0	51%, 85	20%, 11			
1	41%,68	48%, 26			
2+	8%, 14	32%, 17			
Alcohol Involvement			221	2.806	.094
No alcohol	44%, 74	57%, 31			
Presence of alcohol	56%, 93	43%, 23			
Drug Involvement			221	3.140	.076
No drugs	90%, 151	81%, 44			

Presence of Drugs	10%, 16	19%, 10			
Level of Fear			220	40.168	.000
Not at all afraid	20%, 34	0			
Somewhat afraid	37%, 62	20%, 11			
Afraid	27%, 44	24%, 13			
Very afraid	16%, 26	56%, 30			
Acknowledgment of Crime			220	32.813	.000
Crime did not occur	33%, 55	8%, 4			
Unsure	39%, 65	22%, 12			
Crime occurred	28%, 46	70%, 38			

Childhood Abuse			221	24.239	.000
No	71%, 119	40%, 22			
Physical abuse	6%, 9	15%, 8			
Sexual abuse	15%, 25	15%, 8			
Both physical & sexual abuse	8%, 14	30%, 30			

Table 2.2

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure source (informal/formal and informal) after IPV

Independent Variables	Informal (%, <i>n</i>)	Formal and Informal	N	χ² value	p-value
		(%, n)	2.5		20.4
Acquaintance to Perpetrator			37	2.382	.304
Did not know at all	0	0			
Slightly acquainted	10%, 3	0			
Acquainted	14%, 4	0			
Very acquainted	76%, 22	100%, 8			
Physical Force			37	.104	.747
No	17%, 5	12%, 1			
Yes	83%, 24	88%, 7			
Coercive Tactics Sum			39	8.232	.222
	35%, 11	12.5%, 1			
1	29%, 9	12.5%, 1			
2+	36%, 11	75%, 6			
Alcohol Involvement			36	1.286	.257
No alcohol	71%, 20	50%, 4			
Presence of alcohol	29%, 8	50%, 4			
Drug Involvement			37	1.237	.266
No drugs	86%, 25	100%, 8			
Presence of Drugs	14%, 4	0			
Level of Fear			37	1.500	.682
Not at all afraid	14%, 4	12.5%, 1			
Somewhat afraid	38%, 11	25%, 2			

Afraid	21%, 6	12.5%, 1			
Very afraid	27%, 8	50%, 4			
Acknowledgment of Crime			36	1.676	.433
Crime did not occur	48%, 14	29%, 2			
Unsure	31%, 9	57%, 4			
Crime occurred	21%, 6	14%, 1			

Childhood Abuse			39	1.325	.723
No	52%, 16	63%, 5			
Physical abuse	13%, 4	0			
Sexual abuse	16%, 5	12%, 1			
Both physical & sexual abuse	19%, 6	25%, 2			

Table 2.3

Chi-square contingency table for variables associated with disclosure source (informal/formal and informal) after stalking

Independent Variables	Informal (%, n)	Formal and Informal	N	χ² value	p-value
		(%, n)			
Acquaintance to Perpetrator			123	7.322	.062
Did not know at all	22%, 20	19%, 6			
Slightly acquainted	36%, 33	22%, 7			
Acquainted	22%, 20	15%, 5			
Very acquainted	20%, 18	44%, 14			
Physical Force			N/A	N/A	N/A
No	N/A	N/A			
Yes	N/A	N/A			
Coercive Tactics Sum			125	16.339	.012
0	46%, 42	27%, 9			
1	39%, 35	32%, 11			
2+	15%, 14	41%, 14			
Alcohol Involvement			123	3.127	.077
No alcohol	98%, 89	91%, 29			
Presence of alcohol	2%, 2	9%, 3			
Drug Involvement			123	.586	.444
No drugs	95%, 86	91%, 29			
Presence of Drugs	5%, 5	9%, 3			
Level of Fear			123	23.079	.000
Not at all afraid	N/A	N/A			
Somewhat afraid	74%, 67	28%, 9			
Afraid	20%, 18	41%, 13			
Very afraid	6%, 6	31%, 10			
Acknowledgment of Crime			123	5.687	.058
Crime did not occur	55%, 50	31%, 10			
Unsure	32%, 29	53%, 17			

Crime occurred	13%, 12	16%, 5			
Childhood Abuse	_		125	4.711	.194
No	59%, 54	41%, 14			
Physical abuse	14%, 13	18%, 6			
Sexual abuse	10%, 9	9%, 3			
Both physical & sexual	17%, 15	32%, 11			
abuse					

Table 3.1

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for Sexual Assault and Disclosure (no/yes)

	Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds		idence Interval
						Ratios	fe	or OR
							Lower	Upper
Acqu	aintance to Perpetrator							
(Ref	group: Did not know at all)							
	Slightly acquainted	355	.392	.818	.366	.701	.325	1.513
	Acquainted	438	.397	1.213	.271	.646	.296	1.407
	Very acquainted	303	.429	.501	.479	.738	.319	1.711

Note. (N = 299), Nagelkerke R^2 =.007, p > .05

Physical Force							
(Ref group: No)	.312	.277	1.268	.260	1.366	.794	2.349
Yes							

Note. (N = 300), Nagelkerke R^2 =.006, p > .05

Coercive Tactics Sum	030	.163	.034	.854	.971	.705	1.335

Note. (N = 302), Nagelkerke R^2 =.000, p > .05

Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)	295	.271	1.184	.277	.744	.437	1.267
Presence of alcohol							

Note. (N = 302), Nagelkerke R^2 =.006, p > .05

Drug Involvement							
(Ref group: No drugs)	.668	.505	1.750	.186	1.950	.725	5.247
Presence of Drugs							

Note. (N = 304), Nagelkerke R^2 =.010, p > .05

Level of Fear							
(Ref group: Not at all afraid)							
Somewhat afraid	118	.362	.106	.745	.889	.437	1.806
Afraid	.782	.437	3.207	.073*	2.185	.929	5.141
Very afraid	1.052	.468	5.065	.024*	2.864	1.146	7.162

Note. (N = 301), Nagelkerke R^2 =.062, p =.005

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	195	.303	.411	.521	.823	.454	1.492
	Crime occurred	1.054	.373	7.992	.005*	2.869	1.382	5.958

Note. (N = 302), Nagelkerke R^2 =.064, p = .001

 hood Abuse group: No childhood abuse)							
Physical abuse	546	.429	1.621	.203	.579	.250	1.342
Sexual abuse	.571	.474	1.450	.229	1.771	.699	4.487
Both physical & sexual	153	.378	.163	.686	.858	.409	1.800
abuse							

Note. (N = 304), Nagelkerke R^2 =.019, p > .05

Table 3.2

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for IPV and Disclosure (no/yes)

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios	95% Confidence Interval for OR	
						Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator (Ref group: Very acquainted) Slightly acquainted	.223	.798	.078	.780	1.250	.262	5.972
Acquainted	077	.604	.016	.899	.926	.284	3.023

Note. (N = 101), Nagelkerke R^2 =.001, p > .05

Physical Force (Ref group: No)	.381	.538	.503	.478	1.464	.511	4.199
Yes						-	

Note. (N = 103), Nagelkerke R^2 =.007, p > .05

Coercive Tactics Sum	.191	.142	1.794	.180	1.210	.915	1.599
1	2						

Note. (N = 104), Nagelkerke R^2 =.024, p > .05

Alcohol Involvement (Ref group: No alcohol)	.506	.449	1 271	.260	1.659	.688	3.999
Presence of alcohol	.500	.449	1.2/1	.200	1.039	.000	3.999

Note. (N = 102), Nagelkerke R^2 =.017, p > .05

Drug Involvement							
(Ref group: No drugs)	1.141	.761	2.247	.134	3.131	.704	13.927
Presence of Drugs							

Note. (N = 103), Nagelkerke R^2 =.031, p > .05

	l of Fear							
(Ref	group: Not at all afraid)							
	Somewhat afraid	.376	.623	.363	.547	1.456	.429	4.939
	Afraid	.417	.709	.345	.557	1.517	.378	6.090
	Very afraid	.801	.657	1.488	.223	2.229	.615	8.078

Note. (N = 102), Nagelkerke R^2 =.021, p > .05

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref g	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	164	.466	.124	.725	.849	.340	2.116
	Crime occurred	383	.582	.432	.511	.682	.218	2.135

Note. (N = 103), Nagelkerke R^2 =.006, p > .05

Child	lhood Abuse							
(Ref	group: No childhood abuse)							
	Physical abuse	.343	.724	.225	.636	1.410	.341	5.829
	Sexual abuse	.056	.584	.009	.924	1.057	.336	3.322
	Both physical & sexual	.081	.526	.024	.878	1.084	.387	3.039
	abuse							

Note. (N = 104), Nagelkerke R^2 =.003, p > .05

Table 3.3

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for Stalking and Disclosure (no/yes)

Varia	ables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		lence Interval r OR
							Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator (Ref group: Did not know at all)								
Slightly acc	quainted	.234	.448	.274	.601	1.264	.526	3.038
Acquainted		.696	.566	1.512	.219	2.006	.661	6.086
Very acqua	inted	.201	.470	.182	.670	1.222	.486	3.072

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.013, p > .05

Coercive Tactics Sum	045	.130	.122	.727	.956	.741	1.233
·							

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.001, p > .05

Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)	.294	.820	.128	.720	1.342	.269	6.697
Presence of alcohol							

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.001, p > .05

Level	of Fear							
(Ref g	group: Somewhat afraid)							
	Afraid	1.010	.523	3.733	.053*	2.747	.986	7.656
	Very afraid	060	.474	.016	.899	.941	.372	2.386

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.038, p = .098

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref g	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	.720	.377	3.656	.056*	2.054	.982	4.297
	Crime occurred	.170	.494	.105	.745	1.174	.446	3.091

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.032, p = .142

 lhood Abuse group: No childhood abuse)							
Physical abuse	.733	.666	1.210	.271	2.081	.564	7.678
Sexual abuse	-1.113	474	5.520	.019*	.329	.130	.832
Both physical & sexual abuse	157	.443	.126	.722	.854	.359	2.035

Note. (N = 175), Nagelkerke R^2 =.067, p = .041

Table 4.1

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for Sexual Assault and Disclosure Source (informal/formal and informal)

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		idence Interval or OR
						Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator							
(Ref group: Did not know at all)							
Slightly acquainted	467	.460	1.033	.310	.627	.255	1.543
Acquainted	328	.463	.503	.478 .044*	.720	.291	1.784
Very acquainted	.890	.443	4.040	.044*	2.436	1.1022	5.804

Note. (N = 219), Nagelkerke R^2 =.074, p = .011

Physical Force							
(Ref group: No)	1.128	.327	11.901	.001*	3.090	1.628	5.866
Yes							

Note. (N = 220), Nagelkerke R^2 =.082, p = .000

Coercive Tactics Sum	.993	.215	21.257	.000*	2.700	1.770	4.119

Note. (N = 221), Nagelkerke R^2 =.162, p = .000

Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)	527	.316	2.778	.096*	.590	.318	1.097
Presence of alcohol							

Note. (N = 221), Nagelkerke R^2 =.019, p = .094

Drug Involvement							
(Ref group: No drugs)	.763	.438	3.035	.081*	2.145	.909	5.061
Presence of Drugs							

Note. (N = 221), Nagelkerke R^2 =.019, p = .090

Level of Fear				

(Ref	group: Somewhat afraid)							
	Afraid	.510	.455	1.258	.262	1.665	.683	4.059
	Very afraid	1.872	.423	19.603	.000*	6.503	2.839	14.897

Note. (N = 186), Nagelkerke R^2 =.171, p =.000

Because the chi-square analysis for level of fear in relation to disclosure source after sexual assault revealed one empty cell (see Table 2.1 above), the "not at all afraid" and "somewhat afraid" levels of fear were collapsed in order to glean important information from the data. It is important to note that no sexual assault victims disclosed their experience to formal support sources if they indicated that they were "not at all afraid."

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	932	.606	2.365	.124	.394	.120	1.291
	Crime occurred	1.498	.383	15.298	.000*	4.475	2.112	9.481

Note. (N = 220), Nagelkerke R^2 =.211, p = .000

Child	lhood Abuse							
(Ref	group: No childhood abuse)							
	Physical abuse	1.570	.538	8.504	.004*	4.808	1.673	13.814
	Sexual abuse	.549	.468	1.375	.241	1.731	.692	4.330
	Both physical & sexual	1.822	.433	17.670	.000*	6.182	2.644	14.454
	abuse							

Note. (N = 221), Nagelkerke R^2 =.142, p = .000

Table 4.2

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for IPV and Disclosure Source (informal/formal and informal)

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios	95% Confidence for Lower	
Physical Force (Ref group: No) Yes	.377	1.177	.103	.748	1.458	.145	14.636

Note. (N = 37), Nagelkerke R^2 =.005, p > .05

Coercive Tactics Sum	.197	.227	.751	.386	1.217	.780	1.899

Note. (N = 39), Nagelkerke R^2 =.029, p > .05

Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)	.916	.822	1.244	.265	2.500	.500	12.510
Presence of alcohol							

Note. (N = 36), Nagelkerke R^2 =.052, p > .05

Level of Fear				

(Ref	group: Not at all afraid)							
	Somewhat afraid	318	1.357	.055	.814	.727	.051	10.390
	Afraid	405	1.555	.068	.794	.667	.032	14.033
	Very afraid	.693	1.275	.296	.587	2.000	.164	24.328

Note. (N = 37), Nagelkerke R^2 =.059, p > .05

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	-1.135	.966	1.381	.240	.321	.048	2.133
	Crime occurred	981	1.236	.630	.427	.375	.033	4.228

Note. (N = 36), Nagelkerke R^2 =.070, p > .05

Because the chi-square analyses for acquaintance to perpetrator, drug involvement, and childhood abuse revealed empty cells (see Table 2.2 above), inferential conclusions regarding disclosure source after IPV on the basis of these variables could not be gleaned from the data. It is important to note that no victims of IPV who indicated that drugs were involved in their victimization experience reported to formal support sources. Of the eight women who disclosed drug involvement in their experience of IPV, only 50% disclosed to informal support sources. These statistics require caution when drawing conclusions due to the small sample size (n=8).

Table 4.3

Binary Simple Logistic Regression Analyses for Stalking and Disclosure Source (informal/formal and informal)

Variables	В	SE	Wald	<i>p</i> -value	Odds Ratios		dence Interval or OR
						Lower	Upper
Acquaintance to Perpetrator (Ref group: Did not know at all)							
Slightly acquainted	347	.624	.308	.579	.707	.208	2.404
Acquainted	182	.683	.071	.790	.833	.218	3.179
Very acquainted	.953	.586	2.641	.104*	2.593	.822	8.179

Note. (N = 123), Nagelkerke R^2 =.080, p = .074

Coercive Tactics Sum	.542	.182	8.851	.003*	1.720	1.203	2.458

Note. (N = 125), Nagelkerke R^2 =.112, p = .002

Alcohol Involvement							
(Ref group: No alcohol)	1.527	.938	2.652	.103*	4.603	.733	28.917
Presence of alcohol							

Note. (N = 123), Nagelkerke R^2 =.032, p = .101

Level of Fear				
(Ref group: Somewhat afraid)				

Afraid	1.682	.508	10.944	.001*	5.377	1.985	14.564
Very afraid	2.518	.627	16.149	.000*	12.407	3.633	42.374

Note. (N = 123), Nagelkerke R^2 =.244, p = .000

Ackn	owledgment of Crime							
(Ref	group: Unsure)							
	Crime did not occur	-1.075	.462	5.421	.020*	.341	.138	.844
	Crime occurred	341	.614	.309	.578	.711	.213	2.367

Note. (N = 123), Nagelkerke R^2 =.067, p = .057

Child	lhood Abuse							
(Ref	group: No childhood abuse)							
	Physical abuse	.577	.578	.997	.318	1.780	.574	5.522
	Sexual abuse	.251	.731	.118	.731	1.286	.307	5.388
	Both physical & sexual	1.040	.498	4.368	.037*	2.829	1.067	7.500
	abuse							

Note. (N = 125), Nagelkerke R^2 =.052, p = .209

Appendix A

Detailed Descriptive Results of Table 1

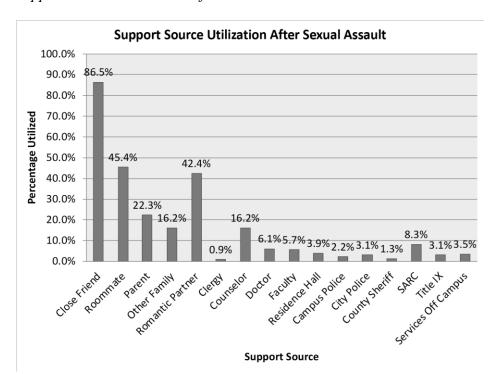
In concordance with the literature regarding rates of acquaintance assault versus stranger assault, 77.4% (n=233) of sexual assault victims were at least slightly acquainted with their perpetrator. The rate of sexual assault victims who experienced physical force was nearly split down the middle with 42.7% (n=129) participants who experienced physical force and 57.3% (n=173) who did not experience physical force. Over half of the participants (56.3%, n=170) indicated that they experienced at least one coercive tactic. The most prevalent coercive tactic was continual argument and pressure (52.5%, n=158). The other forms of coercive tactics included: misuse of authority (4.3%, n=13), threats of physical force (15%, n=45), threats of a weapon (1%, n=3), and threat to kill the victim (2%, n=6). Students who experienced sexual assault were asked if alcohol was involved, and the majority of students endorsed that alcohol was involved in the assault (53.8%, n=163). Victims of sexual assault perceived the perpetrator to be either very drunk (15.8%, n=26), drunk (29.7%, n=49), somewhat drunk (41.2%, n=68), or not at all drunk (13.3%, n=22). Victims endorsed their own intoxication to be very drunk (27.3%, n=45), drunk (29.1%, n=48), somewhat drunk (25.5%, n=42), or not at all drunk (18.2%, n=30). The presence of drugs was also screened, and a minority of participants endorsed that drugs were involved in their victimization experience (10.8%, n=33). Of the students who experienced sexual assault, the majority of them reported that they were at least somewhat afraid, afraid, or very afraid (82.8%, n=251). When asked to characterize their perception of their experience, 31% (n=94) of sexual assault victims said they were sure that a crime did not occur, 37% (n=112) were unsure whether or not a crime occurred, and 32% (n=97) were sure that a crime did occur.

For victims of IPV, the majority rated their acquaintance with the perpetrator as very acquainted (77.7%, n=80) or acquainted (13.6%, n=14). The majority also indicated that physical force was used (80.6%, n=83). For coercive tactics, 70.2% (n=73) endorsed that they experienced at least one coercive tactic. The most prevalent coercive tactic was continual argument and pressure (61.5%, n=64) followed by threats of physical force (36.9%, n=38), threats that the perpetrator would harm him/herself (23.1%, n=24), threats to kill the victim (8.8%, n=9), threat of a weapon (7.8%, n=8), and misuse of authority (4.9%, n=5). The majority of students reporting experiences of IPV indicated that alcohol was not involved (71.6%, n=73). A similar finding was found for drug involvement, of which only 7.8% (n=8) of victims of IPV endorsed drugs being involved in their experience. Most victims of IPV endorsed that they were at least somewhat afraid, afraid, or very afraid (82.4%, n=84) during their experience. When asked to characterize their perception of their experience, 47.6% (n=49) of IPV victims said they were sure that a crime did not occur, 31% (n=32) were unsure whether or not a crime occurred, and 21.4% (n=22) were sure that a crime did occur.

For victims of stalking, 22.9% (n=40) of participants indicated that they did not know the perpetrator at all, 33.1% (n=58) were slightly acquainted, 17.7% (n=31) were acquainted, and 26.3% (n=46) were very acquainted. The majority of stalking victims experienced one or more coercive tactics (57.1%, n=100) with continual arguments and pressure being the most prevalent coercive tactic (49.1%, n=86) followed by perpetrator threatening to harm him/herself (21.3%, n=37), threats of physical force (12.7%, n=22), misuse of authority (9.2%, n=16), threats to kill the victim (5.8%, n=10), and threat of a weapon (5.2%, n=9). Regarding substance use, 5.1% (n=9) of stalking victims endorsed that alcohol was involved in their experience, and 5.1% (n=9) endorsed that drugs were involved in their experience. As described in the introduction,

definitions of stalking differ depending on state law. For the purposes of this study, stalking was defined as repeated, unwanted contact that causes fear. The majority of participants indicated that they were somewhat afraid (65.1%, n=114), 20.6% (n=36) indicated that they were afraid, and 14.3% (n=25) indicated that they were very afraid. When asked about their perception of their experience, 45.1% (n=79) of participants stated that they were sure a crime did not occur, 40% (n=70) were unsure whether or not a crime occurred, and 14.9% (n=26) were sure that a crime occurred.

Appendix B
Support Source Utilization After Sexual Assault

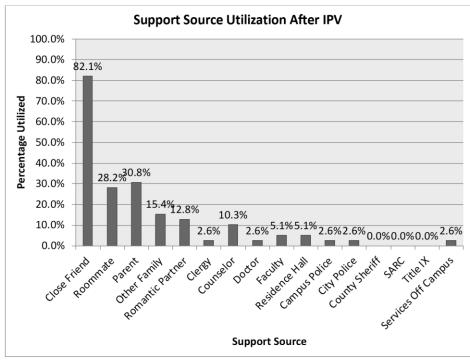


Note: (N = 229)

Perceived Helpfulness After Sexual Assault by Specific Support Source

Support Source	"Helpful" (n)	"Unhelpful" (n)
Close friend	161	21
Roommate	84	15
Parent	37	8
Other Family	28	8
Romantic Partner	69	18
Clergy	NA	NA
Counselor	32	1
Doctor/Nurse	9	2
Faculty	9	2
Residence Hall Staff	6	2
Campus Police	3	1
City Police	6	1
County Sheriff	2	1
SARC	19	1
Title IX	4	3
Services Off-Campus	7	1

Support Source Utilization After IPV

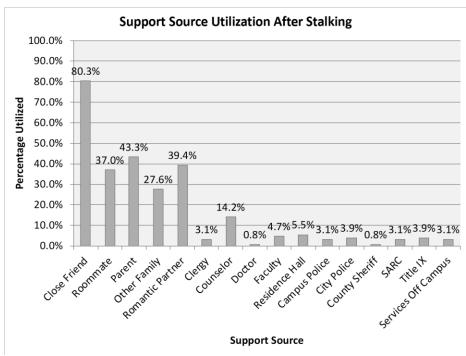


Note: (N = 39)

Perceived Helpfulness After IPV by Specific Support Source

Support Source	"Helpful" (n)	"Unhelpful" (n)
Close friend	27	0
Roommate	10	0
Parent	9	1
Other Family	5	1
Romantic Partner	4	0
Clergy	1	0
Counselor	3	0
Doctor/Nurse	1	0
Faculty	1	1
Residence Hall Staff	2	0
Campus Police	1	0
City Police	1	0
County Sheriff	NA	NA
SARC	NA	NA
Title IX	NA	NA
Services Off-Campus	1	0

Support Source Utilization After Stalking



Note: (N = 127)

Perceived Helpfulness After Stalking by Specific Support Source

Support Source	"Helpful" (n)	"Unhelpful" (n)
Close friend	76	7
Roommate	36	4
Parent	43	5
Other Family	27	4
Romantic Partner	37	3
Clergy	3	2
Counselor	2	0
Doctor/Nurse	9	2
Faculty	6	0
Residence Hall Staff	7	0
Campus Police	3	1
City Police	5	2
County Sheriff	2	0
SARC	4	0
Title IX	4	1
Services Off-Campus	5	0

Appendix C

Safe Campus Survey Instructions and Consent Form

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey! There are four sections contained within the survey:

- (1) Tell us about you
- (2) Tell us what you know
- (3) Tell us what you believe and feel
- (4) Tell us your experiences

Who is invited to complete this survey? The survey can be completed by University of Montana students who attend classes at UM- Mountain Campus, Missoula College, and Bitterroot College, either full or part time in the current academic year (2018) and are at least 18 years of age or older. During the questionnaire, we may ask about your experiences on either campus; however, both will be referred to collectively as UM. Please note: this refers to either campus. To ensure the results accurately represent all students at UM, it is important that the survey be completed by ONLY YOU! The survey is completely voluntary and anonymous. If you took this survey previously, you can still take it this year!

How do I complete this survey? The survey can be found on the Moodle home page. The survey will only be available on Moodle until the end of semester in Fall 2018. Generally, you will be asked questions about your experiences on campus and about your beliefs and knowledge of relationship violence issues. The survey contains two types of questions--questions that require you to check a box associated with the response that best describes your experience and questions where you are asked to type your answers in a text presented beneath the question. For the questions that ask you to type your answers, please be sure to give as complete a response as you can. Please answer as honestly and openly as you can. Remember that this survey is completely anonymous.

How long does it take to complete the survey? Answering the survey should take approximately twenty-five to forty-five (25-45) minutes to complete all the questions. However, the total completion time will vary depending on your individual experiences. Please take your time and answer the questions. To assist us in fully understanding your experiences, feelings, and ideas, we ask that you try and complete as much as much of the survey as you can without skipping sections. Although, please keep in mind that completion of the questionnaires is completely voluntary, and you may discontinue the survey at any time.

What will happen with your survey responses? Your questionnaire responses and the information that you share will be kept confidential. Neither your name nor any other piece of information that might identify you will accompany your survey responses.

Are there any risks associated with taking this survey? We believe that the likely risks of completing this survey are minimal. However, because we are asking about sexual experiences some of the questions may make you uncomfortable or be distressing to you. If you become

distressed or desire assistance during or after taking the survey, you should contact either or both
the following numbers:
Counseling Services
Student Advocacy Resource Center
Please also note that you may exit out of the survey at any time. There will be an option at the end of every page that allows you to discontinue the survey.
end of every page that allows you to discontinue the survey.
Are there any benefits for me in completing this survey? There are no direct benefits anticipated for you from answering questions on this survey. However, this survey will provide the campus with needed information about knowledge, attitudes, program use and satisfaction information, and experiences of our students. This can be very helpful to the campus community, and may help with the development of effective programs, and in creating positive change in sexual and interpersonal violence. The summary findings will also be made available to the Department of Justice and Office of Civil Rights and may help other schools learn from us as well. There are also two potential ways in which you may be compensated for your time. First, students who complete this survey have the opportunity to enter a drawing to win one of two \$500 Amazon gift cards, one of three \$100 Amazon gift cards, one of two \$50 Amazon gift cards, or one of twenty \$5 campus coffee cards. If you are interested in being entered into the drawing, please follow the link at the end of this survey. This link will take you to a separate page where you can enter your contact information. Your contact information will in no way be connected to your responses. Second, some faculty members are offering extra credit/research credit to students who complete the survey. Please check with your professor in order to see if this is a possibility in your class. In order to receive credit, please follow the instructions at the end of the survey. At the end, there will be an option to print off a confirmation of your participation. This confirmation page will in no way be connected to your responses.
To request more information about this questionnaire or the study, please email Christine Fiore at christine.fiore@umontana.edu.
Clicking below and continuing this survey indicates that I have read the description of the study and I agree to participate in this study. I certify that I am 18 years of age or older.
○ I agree
O I disagree
Demographic Questionnaire Please read the following questions and answer in a manner that best describes you.
How many semesters have you attended UM?
Which campus is your primary registration? a. UM Main b. Missoula College

c. Bitterroot

3. What is your current class standing?

	a.	Freshman
	b.	Sophomore
	c.	Junior
	d.	Senior
	e.	Graduate (Master Degree)
		Graduate (Ph.D.)
		Graduate (EdD)
	_	UM Law Student
		I am not a student
4.	with th a. b. c. d. e. f. g. h. i. j. k.	would you describe your gender identity? (Cisgender means that you self-identify he gender that corresponds with your sex assigned at birth) Cisgender Man Cisgender Woman Transgender Woman Transgender Man Non-binary Gender Fluid Gender Neutral/Agender Gender Queer Gender Non-conforming/Gender Variant Two-Spirit Questioning Other
5.		old are you?
6	How v	vould you describe your racial/ethnic background?
•		White/non-Hispanic
		Black/African-American
		Hispanic/Latino
		Asian or Pacific Islander
		American Indian/Native American/Indigenous/First Nation
	f.	Biracial (Please describe in the blank)
	g.	Multiracial (Please describe in the blank)
	h.	Other
7.	abuse? someo you; he forced	o the age of 18, did you have any experiences with sexual abuse or physical Child sexual abuse includes any sexual activity with a minor which may include ne having performed any of these behaviors: exposed themselves to you; fondled ad intercourse (vaginal, oral, or anal) with you; masturbated in the presence of you you to masturbate; made obscene phone calls or text messages; and obscene phone calls or text messages; are downed/shared pornographic images or movies of children. Physical abuse is

defined as a parent, stepparent, or guardian (such as a teacher, sibling, grandparent, etc.) ever throwing something at you that could hurt; push, grab, or shove you; pull your hair; slap or hit you; kick or bite you; strangle or attempt to drown you; hit you with an object; beat you up; threaten you with (or using on you) a gun, a knife, or another object.

- a. Yes, physical abuse only
- b. Yes, sexual abuse only
- c. Yes, both physical and sexual abuse
- d. No

Abbreviated Sexual Experiences Survey

The following questions concern sexual experiences you may have had while attending UM. Some of the questions may look similar, so please be sure to read all of them carefully. Please respond how many times each of the following incidents have occurred within the time period of September 1, 2017 to the present.

- 1. Has anyone ever made sexual contact with you (sexual contact meaning kissing, touching, grabbing, fondling of the breasts, buttocks, or genitals) without your consent? Check all that apply.
 - a. Yes, in the past year
 - b. Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)
 - c. No
- 2. Has anyone ever attempted to have sexual intercourse with you (sexual intercourse meaning oral, anal, or vaginal penetration with the penis) without your consent, but penetration did not occur? Check all that apply.
 - a. Yes, in the past year
 - b. Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)
 - c. No
- 3. Has anyone ever had sexual intercourse with you without your consent, and penetration did occur? Check all that apply.
 - a. Yes, in the past year
 - b. Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)
 - c. No
- 4. Has anyone ever attempted to have invasive sexual contact with you (invasive sexual contact meaning penetration of the vagina or anus with a tongue, finger, or object) without your consent, but penetration did not occur? Check all that apply.
 - a. Yes, in the past year
 - b. Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)
 - c. No

- 5. Has anyone ever had invasive sexual contact with you (invasive sexual contact meaning penetration of the vagina or anus with a tongue, finger, or object) without your consent, and penetration did occur? Check all that apply.
 - a. Yes, in the past year
 - b. Yes, since I've been at UM (not including this past year)
 - c. No

Specific Unwanted Sexual Experiences Questionnaire

(If "yes" to questions 1-6 above) You answered "yes" to one or more of the following items:

- 1. Has anyone ever made unwelcome sexual advances or requests for sexual favors toward you?
- 2. Has anyone ever made unwelcome sexual contact with you (sexual contact meaning kissing, touching, grabbing, fondling of the breasts, buttocks, or genitals) without your consent?
- 3. Has anyone ever attempted to have sexual intercourse with you (sexual intercourse meaning oral, anal, or vaginal penetration with the penis) without your consent, but penetration did not occur?
- 4. Has anyone ever had sexual intercourse with you without your consent, and penetration did occur?
- 5. Has anyone ever attempted to have invasive sexual contact with you (invasive sexual contact meaning penetration of the vagina or anus with a tongue, finger, or object) without your consent, but penetration did not occur?
- 6. Has anyone ever had invasive sexual contact with you without your consent, and penetration did occur?

Please focus on the single event that you consider to be the **most significant**. Please answer the following questions about that single event.

- 1. To which of the above items will you be referring to?
 - a. Item 1
 - b. Item 2
 - c. Item 3
 - d. Item 4
 - e. Item 5
 - f. Item 6
- 2. How well did you know the other person(s)?
 - a. Did not know at all
 - b. Slightly acquainted
 - c. Acquainted
 - d. Very acquainted
- 3. How afraid were you?
 - a. Not at all afraid
 - b. Somewhat afraid

- c. Afraid
- d. Very afraid
- 4. Was physical force used?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 5. Was alcohol involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 6. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk was the other person?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 7. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk were you?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 8. Were drugs involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 9. (If "yes" to question 8) How high was the other person?
 - a. Not at all
 - b. Somewhat high
 - c. High
 - d. Very high
- 10. (If "yes" to question 8) How high were you?
 - a. Not at all
 - b. Somewhat high
 - c. High
 - d. Very high
- 11. This question refers to coercive tactics that may have been used. Would you say that the event involved: (Yes or No)
 - a. Continual arguments and pressure
 - b. Misuse of authority (boss, teacher, supervisor)
 - c. Threats of physical force
 - d. Threat of a weapon

- e. Threat to kill you
- 12. Have you told anyone about the incident?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 13. (If "yes" to question 12) The following are people who you may have told about the incident. Please select all that apply.
 - a. Roommate
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - b. Close friend other than roommate
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - c. Parent or guardian
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - d. Other family member
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - e. Romantic partner (other than the one who did this to you)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - f. Counselor
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - g. Clergy or religious leader
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?

- 1. Not at all helpful
- 2. Somewhat helpful
- 3. Helpful
- 4. Very helpful
- h. Medical doctor or nurse
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- i. Faculty or staff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- j. Residence hall staff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- k. Campus police
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- 1. City police
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- m. County sheriff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- n. Campus sexual assault advocate (SARC)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful

- o. Title IX/EO Office
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- p. Confidential counseling services or services off campus
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- q. Other (specify)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- 14. Looking back on the incident, which of the following best characterizes your perception of what happened?
 - a. I am sure that a crime did not occur
 - b. I am unsure whether or not a crime occurred
 - c. I am sure that a crime did occur

Unwanted IPV Experiences Survey

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree, get annoyed with the other person, want different things from each other, or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or for some other reasons. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. This is a list of things that might happen when you have differences. How many times has a casual, steady, or serious dating or intimate partner done these <u>UNWANTED BEHAVIORS</u> to you during this past year (since the start of the Fall 2017 semester)?

- 1. Scratched me?
 - a. 0 times
 - b. 1 time
 - c. 2 times
 - d. 3 times
 - e. 4 times
 - f. 5 times
 - g. 6 times
 - h. 7 times
 - i. 8 times
 - i. 9 times

- k. 10+ times
- 2. Slapped me?
- 3. Physically twisted my arm?
- 4. Slammed or held me against a wall?
- 5. Kicked me?
- 6. Bent my fingers?
- 7. Bit me?
- 8. Tried to choke me?
- 9. Pushed, grabbed, or shoved me?
- 10. Dumped me out of a car?
- 11. Threw something at me that hit me?
- 12. Burned me?
- 13. Hit me with a fist?
- 14. Hit me with something hard besides a fist?
- 15. Beat me up?
- 16. Assaulted me with a knife or gun?

Specific Unwanted IPV Experiences Questionnaire

Thinking about your answers to 1-16 above, focus on the single event that you consider to be the **most significant.** Please answer the following questions about that single event.

- 1. To which of the items will you be referring to?
 - a. I did not experience items 1-16, Not applicable
 - b. Item 1
 - c. Item 2
 - d. Item 3
 - e. Item 4
 - f. Item 5
 - g. Item 6
 - h. Item 7
 - i. Item 8
 - j. Item 9
 - k. Item 10
 - 1. Item 11
 - m. Item 12
 - n. Item 13
 - o. Item 14
 - p. Item 15
 - q. Item 16
- 2. How well did you know the other person(s)?
 - a. Did not know at all
 - b. Slightly acquainted
 - c. Acquainted
 - d. Very acquainted

- 3. How afraid were you?
 - a. Not at all afraid
 - b. Somewhat afraid
 - c. Afraid
 - d. Very afraid
- 4. Was physical force used?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 5. Was alcohol involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 6. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk was the other person?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 7. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk were you?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 8. Were drugs involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 9. (If "yes" to question 8) How high was the other person?
 - a. Not at all
 - b. Somewhat high
 - c. High
 - d. Very high
- 10. (If "yes" to question 8) How high were you?
 - a. Not at all
 - b. Somewhat high
 - c. High
 - d. Very high
- 11. This question refers to coercive tactics that may have been used. Would you say that the event involved: (Yes or No)
 - a. Continual arguments and pressure

- b. Misuse of authority (boss, teacher, supervisor)
- c. Threats of physical force
- d. Threat of a weapon
- e. Threat to kill you
- 12. Have you told anyone about the incident?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 13. (If "yes" to question 12) The following are people who you may have told about the incident. Please select all that apply.
 - a. Roommate
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - b. Close friend other than roommate
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - c. Parent or guardian
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - d. Other family member
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - e. Romantic partner (other than the one who did this to you)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - f. Counselor
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful

- 4. Very helpful
- g. Clergy or religious leader
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- h. Medical doctor or nurse
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
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- i. Faculty or staff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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- j. Residence hall staff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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- k. Campus police
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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- 1. City police
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- m. County sheriff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- n. Campus sexual assault advocate (SARC)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful

- 2. Somewhat helpful
- 3. Helpful
- 4. Very helpful
- o. Title IX/EO Office
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- p. Confidential counseling services or services off campus
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- q. Other (specify)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- 14. Looking back on the incident, which of the following best characterizes your perception of what happened?
 - a. I am sure that a crime did not occur
 - b. I am unsure whether or not a crime occurred
 - c. I am sure that a crime did occur

Unwanted Stalking Experiences Survey

The following questions will ask about experiences of <u>UNWANTED BEHAVIORS</u> that you may have experienced on one or more occasions by strangers, friends, relatives, or partners, male or female. Not including spam phone calls or e-mails, bill collectors, telephone solicitors, or other sales people, click how many times during this past year (since the start of the Fall 2017 semester) has someone:

- 1. Sent you unwanted emails?
 - a. 0 times
 - b. 1-10 times
 - c. 11-50 times
 - d. 51-100 times
 - e. 101-500 times
 - f. 501-2000 times
 - g. 2001-5000 times
 - h. 5001+ times
- 2. Sent you unwanted messages through Facebook, Snapchat, Instagram, Twitter, etc.?
- 3. Posted unwanted comments, pictures, etc. on a social networking wall such as Facebook, etc.?

- 4. Made unsolicited phone calls to you?
- 5. Sent unsolicited text messages to your phone?
- 6. Left unsolicited voicemails on your phone?
- 7. Sent you unsolicited letters or written correspondence?
- 8. Followed or spied on you?
- 9. Stood outside your home, school, or workplace?
- 10. Showed up at places you were even though he or she had not business being there?
- 11. Sent unwanted gifts or left unwanted items for you to find?
- 12. Tried to communicate in other ways against your will?
- 13. Vandalized your property or destroyed something you loved?
- 14. Approached your friend(s) to get information about you or to find you?

Specific Unwanted Stalking Experiences Questionnaire

Thinking about your answers to questions 1-14, focus on the single event that you consider to be the **most significant**. Please answer the following questions about that single event.

- 1. To which of the items will you be referring to?
 - a. I did not experience items 1-14, Not applicable
 - b. Item 1
 - c. Item 2
 - d. Item 3
 - e. Item 4
 - f. Item 5
 - g. Item 6
 - h. Item 7
 - i. Item 8
 - j. Item 9
 - k. Item 10
 - 1. Item 11
 - m. Item 12
 - n. Item 13
 - o. Item 14
- 2. How well did you know the other person(s)?
 - a. Did not know at all
 - b. Slightly acquainted
 - c. Acquainted
 - d. Very acquainted
- 3. How afraid were you?
 - a. Not at all afraid
 - b. Somewhat afraid
 - c. Afraid
 - d. Very afraid
- 4. Was physical force used?

- a. Yes
- b. No
- 5. Was alcohol involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 6. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk was the other person?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 7. (If "yes" to question 5) How drunk were you?
 - a. Not at all drunk
 - b. Somewhat drunk
 - c. Drunk
 - d. Very drunk
- 8. Were drugs involved?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
- 9. (If "yes" to question 8) How high was the other person?
 - a. Not at all
 - b. Somewhat high
 - c. High
 - d. Very high
- 10. (If "yes" to question 8) How high were you?
 - a. Not at all
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- 11. This question refers to coercive tactics that may have been used. Would you say that the event involved: (Yes or No)
 - a. Continual arguments and pressure
 - b. Misuse of authority (boss, teacher, supervisor)
 - c. Threats of physical force
 - d. Threat of a weapon
 - e. Threat to kill you
- 12. Have you told anyone about the incident?
 - a. Yes

- b. No
- 13. (If "yes" to question 12) The following are people who you may have told about the incident. Please select all that apply.
 - a. Roommate
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
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 - c. Parent or guardian
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 - d. Other family member
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
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 - e. Romantic partner (other than the one who did this to you)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
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 - 3. Helpful
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 - f. Counselor
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
 - g. Clergy or religious leader
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
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- h. Medical doctor or nurse
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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- i. Faculty or staff
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
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 - 4. Very helpful
- o. Title IX/EO Office
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful

- 3. Helpful
- 4. Very helpful
- p. Confidential counseling services or services off campus
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- q. Other (specify)
 - i. (IF selected) How helpful was/were this/these individual(s)?
 - 1. Not at all helpful
 - 2. Somewhat helpful
 - 3. Helpful
 - 4. Very helpful
- 14. Looking back on the incident, which of the following best characterizes your perception of what happened?
 - a. I am sure that a crime did not occur
 - b. I am unsure whether or not a crime occurred
 - c. I am sure that a crime did occur

PTSD checklist for DSM-5 (PCL-5)

(If "yes" to sexual assault, IPV, or stalking) You qualify to answer a few additional questions. This will take approximately 5 minutes of your time and your responses will be kept confidential.

The following questions ask about how your experiences have impacted your emotional and psychological well-being. If you feel uncomfortable answering these questions, you can stop at any time without penalty by clicking the "next" arrow.

While there are no anticipated risks in completing these questions, if you become distressed or desire assistance during or after completing the questions, you should contact either or both of the following numbers:

Instructions: Below is a list of problems that people sometimes have in response to a very stressful experience, such as a physical or sexual attack or abuse. Please read each problem carefully and then select a choice to the right to indicate how much you have been bothered by that problem **in the past month.**

In the past month, how much were you bothered by:

1. Repeated, disturbing, and unwanted memories of the stressful experience?

- a. Not at all
- b. A little bit
- c. Moderately
- d. Quite a bit
- e. Extremely
- 2. Repeated, disturbing dreams of the stressful experience?
- 3. Suddenly feeling or acting as if the stressful experience were actually happening again (as if you were actually back there reliving it)?
- 4. Feeling very upset when something reminded you of the stressful experience?
- 5. Having strong physical reactions when something reminded you of the stressful experience (for example, heart pounding, trouble breathing, sweating)?
- 6. Avoiding memories, thoughts, or feelings related to the stressful experience?
- 7. Avoiding external reminders of the stressful experience (for example, people, places, conversations, activities, objects, or situations)?
- 8. Trouble remembering important parts of the stressful experience?
- 9. Having strong negative beliefs about yourself, other people, or the world (for example, having thoughts such as: I am bad, there is something seriously wrong with me, no one can be trusted, the world is completely dangerous)?
- 10. Blaming yourself or someone else for the stressful experience or what happened after it?
- 11. Having strong negative feelings such as fear, horror, anger, guilt, or shame?
- 12. Loss of interest in activities that you used to enjoy?
- 13. Feeling distant or cut off from other people?
- 14. Trouble experiencing positive feelings (for example, being unable to feel happiness or have loving feelings for people close to you)?
- 15. Irritable behavior, angry outbursts, or acting aggressively?
- 16. Taking too many risks or doing things that could cause you harm?
- 17. Being "superalert" or watchful or on guard?
- 18. Feeling jumpy or easily startled?
- 19. Having difficulty concentrating?
- 20. Trouble falling or staying asleep?

If in the course of completing the survey any concerns or negative feelings arose, please contact either or both of the agencies listed below: