Violence Against Women on the College Campus:

Evaluating Anti-violence Programming

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
BY

Roberta E. Gibbons

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Jean A. King, Adviser

March, 2010

Acknowledgments

I took my first course in evaluation studies in 2001. I worked for a violence prevention program that needed some guidance on how in the world to figure out whether or not it was doing what it intended. The course instructor, Professor Jean A. King, infused the class with both her knowledge and her enthusiasm. She was excited about the subject matter itself as well as its promise to assist programs, large and small, in their quest for effectiveness. She described herself as having "the unfortunate personality of a cheerleader." It turns out that was just what I needed. Through a maze of events, Jean ended up my adviser and with constant encouragement guided me to the completion of the program and this dissertation.

I had three other committee members who challenged me to both stretch my ideas and clarify the goals of my research. C. Cryss Brunner encouraged me to explore feminist literature as well as the epistemological tension of mixed methods research. David R. Johnson challenged my thinking on the policy implications of my findings and offered thoughtful comments on methodology. Jeff Edleson suggested a framework that includes not just evaluation, but definitions of success, and provided meaningful feedback and encouragement. I count myself lucky to have had a committee with such a depth and breadth of knowledge and experience, coupled with congeniality, to serve as my sounding board.

Academic support, of course, is only half of the story. This dissertation would not have seen the light of day if it were not for the support of the entire staff at The Aurora Center and especially my supervisor, Jamie Tiedemann. Jamie provided me with words of encouragement and backed up those words with the approval of time off so that I could concentrate on "just finishing."

I am truly indebted to the many staff members from programs across the country who participated in the focus groups and responded to the survey. These women and men gave freely of their time to assist me and the field of violence prevention. CALCASA campus director Dan Esparza provided much-needed logistical assistance.

Finally, my family tolerated less mom, tired mom, crabby mom, and "where's my wife?" All of my love and thanks to my children, Nations Tuck and Henry Lou, and especially to husband and life partner, Dyne Stephenson.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to all survivors of violence.

Abstract

Violence against women is a significant problem on America's college campuses. In response to this violence, many universities have developed direct service programs to assist the survivors of violence as well as educational programs to raise awareness about and/or reduce the likelihood of such violence. There has been no scholarly inquiry regarding the success of direct services for survivors of violence on the college campus, and only a small number of studies have ventured to investigate the effectiveness of anti-violence educational programming.

This study employed a three-phase sequential mixed methods design to explore the definition of success for these anti-violence direct services and educational programs, as well as to investigate how such programs conceptualize and use evaluation. Specifically, this study used document review, focus groups, and a self-administered survey. The population for this study was the group of institutions of higher education that were funded by the federal *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus in 2008* (N=54).

This exploratory study had numerous findings related to how program staff members define success and what they think about and how they use evaluation. Success for victim service programs seemed to be based primarily on process rather than outcomes, and there was very little expectation on the part of university administrators or the federal funding agency to demonstrate effectiveness. Staff members reported that outcomes were largely considered incommensurable with advocacy-based models of direct services on the college campus. There was more reported assessment of educational programming, with most universities employing local and informal approaches to evaluation. This study found evidence of instrumental and process use of evaluation and identified areas that may need clarification in the conceptualization of evaluation influence.

Table of Contents

iv

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM STATEMENT

Introduction

Sexual assault is a significant problem for women on America's college campuses. Research over the past twenty years has consistently shown that a significant portion of female students experiences sexual assault while attending college (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewske, 1987; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). Krebs and colleagues (2007) found that one in five women experiences sexual assault while in college, a finding that echoes the conclusions reached by Koss, Gidycz, and Wisnewski (1987) two decades ago. Indeed, rape has been called the most violent crime on American college campuses today (Sampson, 2002).

A large majority of these assaults, over ninety percent, are committed by someone known to the victim (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). These assaults, often called "date rapes" or "acquaintance rapes," have deleterious effects on their victims equal to or greater than that of stranger rape (Frazier & Seales, 1997). The negative physical, mental, and emotional effects of exposure to sexual assault are well documented (Frazier & Seales, 1997; Frazier, 1990; Ledray, 1986) and include nightmares, inability to sleep or concentrate, post-traumatic stress disorder, relationship and intimacy difficulties, sexual dysfunction, eating disorders, and depression. Additionally, on a college campus, effects of sexual assault can include increased likelihood of missing class, inability to complete coursework, and even dropping out of school (Gibbons, 2009; Vickio, Hoffman, & Yaris, 1999).

Although the incidence of sexual assault on campuses is high and its effects are significant, the rate of reporting such assaults is extremely low. Fisher et al. (2000) found that fewer than five percent of campus assaults are reported to the police. There are many reasons survivors do not report their experience, including fear of the assailant, shame, a desire to "forget

about it," and concern that they will not be believed. However, perhaps the most striking reason

that victims do not report is the fact that many of them do not classify their experience as rape.

Indeed, one nationwide study found that of those who had an experience that met the legal

definition of rape, only 46.5 percent described the event as rape (Fisher et al., 2000). Sochting,

Fairbrother, and Koch (2004) argue that this lack of awareness of the definition of rape can be

seen in females and males alike and is reflective of the rape supportive attitudes that are tacitly

condoned in U.S. culture.

Related to the problem of sexual assault on college campuses is the issue of intimate

partner violence (IPV). According to the National Violence Against Women Survey, twenty-five

percent of women in the U.S. have been physically assaulted or raped by an intimate partner, and

more than 500,000 women require medical attention for such assaults each year (Tjaden &

Thoennes, 2000). College-age women (20-29 years) have the highest risk of being killed by an

intimate partner (Paulozzi, Saltzman, Thompson, & Holmgreen, 2001). Similar to the risk factors

associated with sexual assault victimization, women who experience dating violence prior to

entering college are more likely to experience dating violence once enrolled in college (Smith,

White, & Holland, 2003). Finally, a recent American College Health Association study found

that 15 percent of women reported being in an emotionally abusive relationship within the last

school year (ACHA, 2004).

Campus Programming to Address Violence

In an effort to address the problems of sexual assault and IPV on the college campus,

some universities have created violence intervention and prevention programs (Bohmer & Parrot,

1993; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). Indeed, over the past nine years, the federal government

has allocated over $100 million to universities across the nation under the auspices of the *Grants*

to Reduce Violent Crimes Against Women on Campus, a competitive grant program funded through the Department of Justice by the Violence Against Women Act.

Campus programs generally focus on two approaches to reducing violence and its impact: the provision of crisis intervention/ direct services and the facilitation of violence awareness/prevention programs (Dupree, McEwen, Spence, & Wolff, 2003; Karjane 2005). *Crisis intervention/direct services* have various objectives, including providing crisis counseling, support, and information to survivors of sexual assault and IPV, aiding survivors in their search for resources, and also guiding them through the criminal and civil justice systems (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Dupree et al., 2003; Gibbons, 2009; Karjane et al., 2005; Riger, 2002; Sullivan, 1991). The goals of such programs often include satisfaction with services and improving the outcomes for survivors on measures of healthy recovery, including feelings of safety, a continuation of healthy social interactions, and maintaining an academic performance consistent with their pre-victimization efforts (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Gibbons, 2009; Vickio et al., 1999).

In addition to providing services for survivors of violence, many universities have instituted outreach efforts and non-formal educational programming in an attempt to stop the violence before it occurs (Anderson, 2005; Karjane et al., 2005; Lonsway, 1996). *Outreach efforts* include activities designed specifically to raise awareness, such as Take Back the Night marches, the Silent Witness display, and social norm campaigns (Berkowitz, 2000; Dupree et al., 2003). *Educational programs* seek to increase awareness of the issues and/or reduce the incidence of such crimes (Carr, 2005; Heppner, Humphrey, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; Karjane et al., 2005; Lonsway, 1996). This approach is based on the argument that sexual assault is culturally constructed and supported (Berkowitz, 2000; Brownmiller, 1975; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997; Katz, 2006) and the idea that because rape is a learned behavior, it can be unlearned as well. The objectives of awareness and prevention programs can include changing

3

attitudes, increasing knowledge, building empathy (Anderson, 2005; Heppner, Humphrey,

Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; Lonsway, 1996), and, more recently, increasing the

likelihood that participants will intervene in potentially abusive or violent situations (Banyard,

Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Banyard, Plante, Cohn, Moorhead, Ward, & Walsh, 2005; Banyard,

Plante, & Moynihan, 2004).

Evaluating Campus Programs

Despite the energy, academic attention, and financial resources that have been spent on

the issue of violence against women on campus, we know relatively little about the effectiveness

of such programs and even less about the impact that the evaluations of these violence prevention

efforts have on programming and policy. How such programs define success, whether it be in

relation to the victims they serve, the students they educate, or the institutions they call home, is

an area that has not been explored in either the evaluation or the higher education literature.

Published reports of the evaluation of campus-based programs have primarily focused on

educational efforts. That is, the evaluation of the effectiveness of anti-violence educational

programs has received far more scholarly attention than the evaluation of intervention and

advocacy services.

A search for articles published since 1985 using the Web of Science and JSTOR indexes

found twenty-one peer reviewed articles on the evaluation of campus-based rape prevention

(educational) programming, and zero peer-reviewed articles on the evaluation of campus-based

victim services programs. The different functionality of these indexes required that I use

different search strings in each of them. In the search on Web of Science, I used two search

strings: "Rape prevention AND campus OR university" and "Sexual assault AND campus OR

university." In the search on JSTOR, I used four search strings: "Rape prevention AND

campus," "Rape prevention AND university," "Sexual assault AND campus," and "Sexual assault

4

AND university." The searches resulted in many articles that, upon a reading of their abstracts, did not fit into the categories studied here. The total number of articles found in each index and the total number that fit the criteria of this study are listed in *Table 1*.

Table 1. Search Results for Articles of Interest Using Web of Science and JSTOR

Search String	Web of Science number of articles	Applicable Articles	JSTOR number of articles	Applicable Articles
Rape prevention AND campus OR university	55	11	NA	NA
Sexual assault AND campus OR university	49	9	NA	NA
Sexual assault AND campus	NA	NA	25	1
Rape prevention AND campus	NA	NA	20	0
Sexual assault AND university	NA	NA	3,996	0*
Rape prevention AND university	NA	NA	11,767	0*
Rape prevention AND university AND evaluation	NA	NA	3,126	0*

There were no articles on either the evaluation of campus-based rape prevention programs or campus-based victim-services programs in the first 200 articles listed by relevance.

Due to the dearth of information on campus-based victim services, it is worthwhile to consider that evaluations of community-based programs can serve as a proxy. However, although there are a few published reports and articles on the evaluation of community-based advocacy programs (Burt, Zweig, Andrews, Van Ness, Parikh, Uekert, & Harrell, 2001; Gordon, 1996; Riger et al., 2002; Sullivan et al., 1991, 1992, 1994) and such information can certainly inform our understanding of the possible successes and challenges of campus-based programs, the dynamics of victimization and recovery are different enough on the college campus to warrant separate consideration (Gibbons, 2008, 2009; Vickio et al., 1999). Thus, while we have some evaluative information regarding which factors affect the effectiveness of violence awareness/prevention programming, we know little to nothing about the effectiveness of campus advocacy services. Indeed, the definition of "success" itself is worth exploring because of the

unique position of campus-based programs relative to their stakeholders including victims, students, and the institutions that house them. Additionally, with as little as we know about the successes and challenges of campus-based programs, we know even less about how their staff make decisions about services and educational programming due to a real gap in the literature regarding the state and impact of evaluations with regard to campus programs. Indeed a recent article published in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* noted that despite the spread of rape prevention programs on campuses across the country, there is very little evidence as to their effectiveness (Fogg, 2009).

Evaluation Impact: Use and Influence

A framework for analysis is necessary to effectively explore the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs. Such a framework should provide guidance for (a) the formation of important questions; (b) the selection of appropriate participants; and (c) the relevance of variables. The literature on evaluation use can serve as a lens to focus an exploratory study because of its rich analysis of the various ways in which evaluation can affect people, programs, and policies. An introduction to the history and principal concepts of "evaluation use" as a field of scholarship is given below.

If there is one thing that the early literature (pre-1980) on evaluation use told us, it was this: The promise and potential of evaluation had not been fulfilled. Despite government mandates and funding for evaluation of large educational and social programs dating back to the 1960's, the use of evaluation findings had been minimal (see Patton, 2008 for review). During the educational reform movement and the Great Society under Presidents Kennedy and Johnson, federal programming dollars earmarked one to three percent of total funding to go to program evaluation (Patton, 2008). Regardless of this interest in evaluation, there was not a corresponding *impact* of evaluation. According to Williams and Evans (1969: 453 [cited in Patton, 2008:8]),

6

"the test of the effectiveness of outcome data is its impact on implemented policy. By this standard, there is a dearth of successful evaluation studies." Other evaluation scholars drew similar conclusions. Weiss reviewed the use of evaluation results by federal program decision makers and concluded that their impact had been insignificant; she also noted (1972) that evaluators themselves lamented the fact that "their findings are ignored" (1972: 319). King (1988) emphasized the practical significance of the apparent inability of evaluation to make a difference in policy and programs, pointing out that money spent for evaluation is money that is *not* spent on direct services, and "if the results of these evaluations are not used and do not, therefore, lead to appropriate changes, why waste the money and the time to conduct them in the first place?"(p. 285).

Thus, the reality of evaluation use fell far short of Campbell's (1971 [1991]) vision of an "experimenting society" in which decisions about programs would be made based on the results of well-conducted evaluations. This lack of use resulted in an ongoing movement within the community of evaluation scholars and practitioners to better understand the consequences of evaluation. One development within this movement has been the reconceptualization of the idea of "evaluation use" that includes broader connotations of use beyond instrumental. For example, current frameworks of use also include *conceptual use* or *enlightenment* (Weiss, 1988); *symbolic use* (for legitimating pre-evaluation positions), *process use*, that is, the impact of participating in the evaluation process (Amo & Cousins, 2007; Greene, 1988; Patton, 2008); and the recently added *imposed use* (Weiss, 2007) and *influence* (Kirkhart, 2000; Mark & Henry, 2004; Henry & Mark, 2003). Second, evaluation scholars have undertaken a research program to discover the determinants of use in its many manifestations. Such research seeks to answer the question: Are there characteristics of an evaluation or its context that make it more likely to have an impact?

The answer to this question seems to be a resounding "yes," although exactly what those characteristics are varies from study to study (Cousins, 2003; Johnson, 1998).

Weiss and Bucuvalas (1981) explore the factors that affect the perceived usefulness of research and note that its technical quality (design, measurement, analysis, objectivity, generalizability) ranks highest in predicting the usefulness of a study. Focusing specifically on evaluation, Leviton and Hughes (1981) identify relevance to users' needs, communication and dissemination, information processing (perceived relevance), perceived credibility of evaluator and evaluation information, and user involvement and advocacy were strong correlates of evaluation use. Patton et al. (1977) identifies the budget constraints and the "personal factor," that is, the presence of an intended user who is invested in the evaluation and its results, as the most important variables. Cousins and Leithwood (1986) identify twelve factors that affect use, the most important of which are evaluation quality and decision characteristics, followed by the consistency of the evaluation findings with respect to prior beliefs and knowledge, and the users' commitment to evaluation. Shula and Cousins' 1997 review of previous empirical studies notes that "use" is dependent upon relevance, evaluator credibility, user participation, communication effectiveness, potential for information processing, clients' need for information, anticipated degree of program change, perceived value of evaluation as a management tool, quality of evaluation implementation, and contextual characteristics of the decision or policy setting. The level of stakeholder participation in an evaluation has also been identified as an important factor that affects use (Cousins, 2003; Cousins & Whitmore, 1998; Greene, 1988; Johnson, 1998; King, 1998). A more recent study finds that "use" depends on communication quality, timeliness, commitment to evaluation, evaluator credibility, relevance, and findings (Bober & Bartlet, 2004).

Thus, the history of understanding evaluation use includes efforts to accurately define types of use as well as investigations into what factors affect the likelihood that an evaluation will

have an impact. Although it is obvious that "use" as a theoretical concept has received a significant amount of attention, disagreements in the literature remain. For example, several scholars argue that use is an outdated concept and thus should be replaced with the concept of influence (Henry & Mark, 2003; Kirkhart, 2000; Mark & Henry, 2004). Kirkhart (2000, p. 7) calls on evaluation scholars to embrace the notion of influence to study effects of evaluation that are "multidirectional, incremental, unintentional and noninstrumental." Mark and Henry (2004) build on Kirkhart's conceptualization of influence and argue that scholars should pay attention to change at the individual, interpersonal, and collective levels to better understand evaluation impact. Such attention would allow evaluators to make sense of different pathways of use within the various types. For example, instrumental use of information by a teacher that affects the delivery of his curriculum is no doubt different conceptually from the instrumental use of information by a legislator to tip her decision making on voting to significantly increase school funding (Henry & Mark, 2003, p. 311; see also Weiss, 1998).

The vote to abandon the concept of use, however, is hardly unanimous. Although the concept of influence and its varying levels of analysis have proven useful in some empirical work (Christie, 2007), other recent attempts to utilize this schema have been less successful (Weiss, 2005). Alkin and Taut (2003) argue that influence, as currently conceptualized, does not subsume the theoretical construct of evaluation use. Quite the contrary, they argue that influence includes only effects that are unintended and about which the principal users of the evaluation are unaware. Such an impact is beyond the control of the evaluator, and thus, as an explanatory construct, influence is probably less important to evaluators than use.

And so it remains true, twenty years after King's (1988, p.291) acknowledgment, that "evaluation use is difficult to conceptualize and … difficult to study." Despite the documented challenges, the development of the concept of evaluation use has been rich, dynamic, and

9

reflective. As such, the concept of "evaluation use" in all of its iterations can guide research on the state and impact of evaluation on campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs. In addition to revealing previously untapped information about how staff members in these programs of higher education define success and use evaluation, such research can help to clarify our understanding of the impact of evaluation, the variables that affect impact, and the levels of analysis necessary to track and understand it.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to explore the state of evaluation at campus-based violence intervention and prevention programs and the impact of evaluation on programming and policy. To accomplish such a task, this research pursues three general objectives. First, this study describes the state of program evaluation among universities that are the recipients of the federal *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus*. Second, this research investigated how these programs define success with respect to the victims they serve, the students they educate, and the institutions that house them. Finally, this research explored the impact that the findings and process of evaluation have had on a select group of programs. The issue of the impact of evaluation on campus anti-violence programming was framed using the literature on evaluation use and influence.

The research questions were:

1) What is the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs?

2) How do program personnel define their success?

3) To what extent has evaluation affected campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs?

Significance of study

Because the subjects of this study, university-based violence intervention and prevention programs, have not received significant attention in either the evaluation or the violence against women literature, this study will serve as an exploration of such programs and how they define success. Given the high incidence of violence against women on the college campus discussed in the previous section, secure and continued funding of programs that aim to reduce the impact and incidence of such violence is no small matter. Several scholars have discussed the importance of anti-violence service delivery agencies to engage in evaluation of their services and demonstrate effectiveness in order to secure funding (Gibbons, 2009; Riger et al., 2002). Through an investigation of the current evaluation practices of university-based programs, this study will lay the groundwork for understanding how campus programs use evaluation to inform decision making and create effective programming. In addition to informing an understanding of the impact of evaluation on campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs, this research will contribute to an understanding of the definition of success and the concepts of evaluation use and influence. It will thus contribute to the literature on evaluation use by providing additional empirical findings regarding how evaluation is conceptualized, carried out, and used by program personnel.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter examines the literature on the evaluation of advocacy/intervention programs, the evaluation of anti-violence educational programming, and the literature on evaluation use. It also includes a discussion of the unique characteristics of campus programs (as opposed to community-based programs) that warrant a separate consideration of such agencies with respect to the outcomes and use of evaluations. Because there a modicum of research on evaluating anti-violence educational programming at the college level, this literature will be discussed in detail as it is directly applicable to a project studying campus-based advocacy and education programs. However, due to the lack of published studies on campus-based advocacy/intervention programs, this literature review will begin with an examination of the evaluation of community-based advocacy/intervention programs. Although not a perfect proxy for understanding campus-based programs, this literature provides some insight into the challenges of evaluation of victim services. Finally, this review includes an examination of the types of evaluation use, the factors that affect use, and the methods that have been employed to study evaluation use and influence.

Evaluating Sexual Assault and Interpersonal Violence

Advocacy/ Intervention Programs

Although the literature on campus-based advocacy/intervention programs is sparse, we can learn more about successes and challenges of providing services for survivors of campus sexual assault and IPV by looking at the research on community-based programs. Admittedly, the amount of research in this area is also lacking (Garner & Fagan, 1997; Gordon, 1996; Zweig & Burt, 2002), but the quality and thoughtfulness of this body of literature can help to illuminate the complexities of evaluating victim services programs and may also help to make sense of the dearth of research at the campus level.

12

Evaluation findings: Sexual assault programs

Most research on services for survivors of sexual assault have found that victims face significant challenges when dealing with the criminal justice system (Campbell et al., 1999; Frazier & Haney, 1996**;** Madigan & Gamble, 1991, Ullman, 1996) and must overcome a host of psychological, psycho-social, and physical afflictions related to the assault (Frazier & Seales, 1997; Ledray, 1986). Helping the victim to overcome such obstacles is the primary purpose of community-based sexual assault advocacy programs (Campbell, 2002). According to Campbell (2002, p. 231), the three basic services of rape crisis centers are: 1) a 24-hour crisis line, 2) individual and group counseling; and 3) legal and medical advocacy. In general, crisis lines provide support and information to callers, counseling facilitates discussion, understanding, and exploration of the victimization as well as its impact on everyday functioning, and both legal and medical advocacy assist the survivor with understanding and participating in the criminal justice system (Gibbons, 2009).

The few published evaluations of community-based rape crisis centers have shown that advocates are generally successful in assisting survivors to maneuver the criminal justice system, including evidence collection, police interview(s) and investigation, and prosecution (Campbell, 1998; Campbell & Bybee, 1997; Campbell et al., 1999). In a study comparing those survivors who used the services of a rape crisis center to those who did not, Campbell et al. (1999) found that working with an anti-violence advocate was related to less personal distress for survivors. In the first and only statewide evaluation of hotline, advocacy, and counseling services, Wasco and colleagues (2004) found that each of these services had the desired effect, although about one quarter of those using the hotline or "brief advocacy services" were too upset to participate in any service evaluation efforts. More specifically, this evaluation found that survivors reported gaining information from and feeling supported by hotline and advocacy services. It also found

statistically significant changes (from pre- to post counseling) in the expected direction on scores

on the *Counseling Outcome Index* and the *Post Traumatic Stress Index* (Wasco, Campbell,

Howard, Mason, Staggs, Schewe, & Riger, 2005). Finally, a study of anti-rape advocacy efforts

in the military found that survivors reported that the program helped them to cope with the trauma

of their victimization and improved their quality of life and overall readiness to continue their

military duties (Kelley, Schwerin, Farrar, & Lane, 2005).

Evaluation findings: Domestic abuse programs

   The literature addressing the evaluations of services for survivors of IPV reports findings

similar to the literature discussed in the previous section. That is, survivors of IPV generally

benefit from the services provided by domestic abuse intervention projects and shelters (Gordon,

1996; Sullivan, 1991, 1992, 1994). Additionally, battered women who work with advocates are

more likely than those who do not work with advocates to search out and follow through with

legal solutions (Hart, 1993; Weisz, 1999; Weisz, Tolman, & Bennett, 1998). In an experimental

study comparing IPV survivors who worked with an advocate for ten weeks after leaving a

shelter to those who did not work with an advocate after leaving shelter, Sullivan (1992) found

that those who received advocacy services reported being more effective in accessing community

resources and having a higher level of social support and quality of life than those who did not

receive services. A six-month follow-up found that while there were improvements among both

groups for a host of measures, the women who received advocacy services reported higher

satisfaction with their overall quality of life (Sullivan, 1994).   In an evaluation of the

effectiveness of battered women's support groups, Trimpey (1989) found that participants

experienced a decrease in anxiety and an increase in coping skills, a finding echoed by Tutty,

Bidgood, and Rothery (1993) who reported that support group participants showed positive

14

change on several outcome measures including depression, anxiety, self esteem and attitude toward marriage and family.

Although measures of prosecutorial cooperation, feelings of support, access to resources, and quality of life are important, many evaluations of domestic violence intervention programs use cessation or reduction of the experience of interpersonal violence as their primary outcome measure (Gordon, 1996). Results have been mixed. Whereas Tutty et al. (1993) and Bowker (1988) report that participation in support groups or counseling led to a decrease in abuse, Sullivan (1994) found that the services of an advocate had no statistically significant impact on the post-intervention experience of IPV. At first glance, it appears that the difference in findings may be due to methodological differences in the evaluations – Sullivan's (1994) study is experimental and longitudinal, whereas neither the Bowker (1988) nor the Tutty et al. (1993) study used a comparison group, and the latter was short-term. However, in a more recent experimental study of a community intervention project, Sullivan and Bybee (1999) found that working with an advocate led to a lower incidence of violence for domestic abuse survivors who had recently exited a shelter, although a majority of them (76 percent in the experimental group and 89 percent in the control group) still experienced violence over the two years of the study.

Government-sponsored assessments

In addition to the peer reviewed studies discussed above, the U.S. Department of Justice has also commissioned large-scale evaluations of its major anti-violence grant programs (Burt et al., 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001; Dupree et al., 2003). More recently, the federal government has begun to collect data under the auspices of the "VAWA (Violence Against Women Act) Measuring Effectiveness Initiative." This initiative requires grant recipients to report on the number of clients served and their demographics, the number of people educated or trained and the content of that training, the type of victimization and kind of services provided,

15

the number of paid staff, and the disposition of criminal and university-adjudicated cases. The

data provided by this initiative, led by the Muskie School of Public Service at the University of

Southern Maine, are used by the Office on Violence against Women (U.S. Department of Justice)

as the basis for their biennial reports to Congress.

Evaluation approach and method: Challenge to the field

The challenges facing researchers in the evaluation of anti-violence service delivery

programs are many (Riger et al., 2002; Zweig & Burt, 2002; Sullivan & Bybee, 1999). Because

violence against women itself is in large part manifested in the controlling and manipulative

behaviors of those who commit abuse or sexual assault, agencies that provide services in this field

can be very wary of evaluators who approach them without any flexibility to share control of the

evaluation (Campbell et al., 1999; Campbell et al., 2004; Levin, 1999; Riger et al., 2002; Edleson

& Bible, 2001). According to Riger et al. (2002), there is often a tension between researchers and

advocates. Riger and colleagues note that issues of trust, power and control, differing time

perspectives, divergent expertise, and emotional stress can easily lead to miscommunication or

misunderstandings among evaluators and service providers or even an unwillingness on the part

of the advocates to wholeheartedly embrace and carry out the requirements of the evaluation.

Advocates are often concerned that the evaluation will interfere with service delivery, including

the promise of confidentiality, or may require too much emotional effort on the part of the

survivor (Riger et al., 2002; Sullivan 1998). Other scholars, too, have identified similar

challenges, including the control of the evaluation process (Levin, 1999; Riger, 1999), the lack of

trust between researchers and advocates (Edleson & Bible, 2001; Riger et al., 2002), and the

significant time requirement, usually with no pay for service providers and only small stipends

for participants (Campbell, Dienemann, Kub, Wurmser, & Loy, 1999; Edleson & Bible, 2001;

Levin, 1999). Rounding out this list of challenges is the fact that evaluators sometimes do not

possess the interpersonal skills necessary to carry out a successful evaluation of anti-violence

programs, and advocates may not have the skill set necessary to perform the data collection and

other evaluation-related duties required of them by researchers (Edleson & Bible, 2002).

Large scale evaluations of victim services have faced additional challenges. Burt and

colleagues have conducted evaluations of the *STOP* (Services, Training, Officers, Prosecutors)

Formula Grants Program sponsored by the U.S. Department of Justice/Office on Violence

against Women[1] for nearly a decade (Burt et al., 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001). One of

the principal goals of this program is to "develop and strengthen victim services in cases

involving violent crimes against women" (Zweig & Burt, 2002, p. 1). Approximately $531

million has been spent on 3,444 projects between 1995 and 2000. In a review of their 2001

Victim Impact Evaluation of this program, Zweig and Burt (2002) document several challenges

that stem from the grant program and others that are related to the nature of victim services

programs. For example, because STOP grants have not required a specific type of record

keeping, the data kept by programs have not been a consistently reliable source of information.

Furthermore, the size, management, structure, services and philosophies of funded programs vary

greatly. These complexities, combined with the fragility of many agencies (stemming from low

pay and high stress, vicarious traumatization, and high turnover), often lead to challenges with

recruitment (of victims) and record keeping (Zweig & Burt, 2002).

One additional federal evaluation is worth noting because it is the only large scale

evaluation of the grant program whose recipients are part of the population of this study. In 2000,

the National Institute of Justice (NIJ) contracted with the Institute on Law and Justice (ILJ) to

conduct an impact and process evaluation of the *Grants to Reduce Violence against Women on*

Campus (Dupree et al., 2003). The purpose of these grants is

---

[1] The Office on Violence against Women (OVW) was titled The Violence Against Women office (VAWO)
from its creation in 1995 until 2005.

to develop and strengthen effective security and investigation strategies to combat violent

crimes against women on campuses, and to develop and strengthen victim services in

cases involving violent crimes against women on campuses, which may include

partnerships with local criminal justice authorities, and community-based victim service

agencies (Dupree et al., 2003, p. 2).

The process evaluation, which was based on site visits to each of the 38 grant recipients,

found that the grantees were successfully implementing their planned programming, including

victim services, education for students, training police and university staff, and revising or

establishing policies pursuant to violence against women on campus.   However, two years after

awarding the grant, NIJ decided to eliminate the impact evaluation, noting "the difficulties of

devising a rigorous impact evaluation due to lack of baseline data and finding acceptable

comparison groups" (Dupree et al., 2003, p. 4).

Thus, it is clear that the evaluation of anti-violence victim services programs can be

complex and contentious. Such tension, however, does not necessarily signal the impossibility of

evaluation. Indeed, "[t]he varying perspectives of different stakeholders are not only sources of

tension, they are also reflections of the way people's position in a social system shapes their

consciousness. As such, they become useful indicators of underlying processes; that is, conflicts

themselves are data about the phenomenon of interest" (Riger et al., 2002, p. 39).   In part as a

response to the complexities of such research, many scholars have called for an examination of

the relationship between the evaluator and those being evaluated. Several reflection/review

articles on the evaluation of anti-violence service delivery programs argue that the best evaluation

efforts are based on a model of collaborative research (Campbell et al., 1999; Edleson & Bible,

2001; Levin, 1999; Riger, 1999; Riger et al., 2002). Collaborative research is a process in which

researchers engage program personnel and, in some cases, program recipients as partners in

question creation, tool development, and data analysis (Edleson & Bible, 2001; Levin, 1999; Riger et al., 2002).

Using a case study methodology, Edleson and Bible (2001) reviewed four successful collaborative evaluation projects and identified three assumptions of collaborative research: the use of advocacy as a metaphor for the research process (based on trust and shared decision making); a blurring of the line between the researcher and the subject of research, thus creating researchers and advocates as "coresearchers" who engage in "reciprocal learning" (p. 82); and an acceptance of value-based science in service to social change. Small (1995) argued that "[i]f our research is to be more than an intellectual exercise, we need to seriously consider who we hope will benefit as well as who may be harmed by our work" (Small, 1995, p. 952, as cited in Edleson & Bible, 2001, p. 83). Based on these assumptions, the authors propose several strategies for pursuing successful collaborative research and evaluation and identify numerous benefits of such collaboration, including more meaningful research questions, more successful implementation, and an increase in the use of results.

Taking collaborative research a step further, Campbell, Dorey, Naegeli, Grubstein, Bennett, and Bonter (2004) argue for the appropriateness and efficacy of empowerment evaluation. In one of the few articles on violence prevention and intervention programming that includes a review of the literature from the field of program evaluation, Campbell and colleagues describe their efforts to build the evaluation capacity of programs by empowering staff to carry out their own evaluations. This project brought together advocates, researchers, and evaluators in an attempt to train the staff of all state-funded rape prevention and victim services programs in Michigan. The authors found that the endeavor was successful based on the fact that 90 percent of the prevention programs and 75 percent of the victim-services programs initiated their own evaluations, and a majority of them also continued their evaluation efforts a year after the close of

the statewide initiative. Campbell et al. also reported that most local programs used the results of

their own evaluations to modify their curricula or improve services. It should be noted that

although the authors refer to their work as "empowerment evaluation," this term is usually

reserved for evaluative efforts that include the recipients of program services and not simply the

program staff (see Fetterman, 2000).

Limits of Evaluation of Victim Services Programs

Thus, while the ethics and potential benefits of collaborative research are clear, there are

currently several limits regarding the evaluation of victim services programs. First, the efforts to

establish a model approach should not be mistaken for attempts to create a method that works in

all circumstances. Riger and colleagues (2002, p. 38) warn against a rigid best practices model.

"Despite the recent push to identify 'best practices,' several factors mitigate against one 'best'

way to collaborate [on evaluation]," including differences in context from setting to setting and

differences in interpretations of events or research procedures. Second, evaluators, practitioners,

and policy makers must also use caution and not apply the results of specific evaluations too

broadly. For example, Sherman (1992) conducted an evaluation of a mandatory arrest policy

whereby perpetrators of domestic abuse were automatically arrested if probable cause existed.

The evaluation found the policy to be successful, and this single study was used to fuel a

movement toward mandatory arrest laws. But the effectiveness of these laws to deter future

abuse and improve victim safety was soon found to be questionable. Many officers arrested both

the perpetrator and the victim in order to avoid having to identify a primary aggressor.

Additionally, the employment status of abusers also affected the deterrent effect of mandatory

arrests. Those who were employed were less likely to be violent after a mandatory arrest, but

those unemployed were more likely to commit acts of violence after an arrest as compared to just

receiving a warning (for further discussion, see Riger et al., 2002).

Finally, with the exception of the process evaluation of the *Grants to Reduce Violent Crimes Against Women on Campus*, none of the evaluations reviewed in this section had as their subject campus-based programs. Thus, while an examination of the research and evaluation of community-based programs can illuminate the potential findings, challenges, and complexities of campus-based evaluations, the dynamics of sexual assault and IPV on the college campus, as well as the services provided for victims in response to these crimes, differ enough from the cases considered thus far to warrant this study of the evaluation of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs. It is to these differences that I now turn.

Unique Characteristics of Campus Programs

The experience of sexual assault victims on a college campus can be different from the experience of a victim not affiliated with a college or university (Gibbons, 2008, 2009; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2002, 2005). The concerns of and options available to victims of sexual assault on a college campus are shaped by factors unique to a university setting. Advocacy on the college campus is designed to address the specific concerns that arise from these factors in addition to the more general concerns of survivors (Gibbons, 2009; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen 2002, 2005; Vickio et al., 1999).

Gibbons (2008, 2009) identifies several situational factors on a college campus that can complicate a victim's recovery. The first of these situational factors is a shared social group. An overwhelming majority of sexual assaults and, of course, all dating /relationship violence occur between two people who know each other (Fisher et al., 2001). In a campus environment, the victim and perpetrator often will share the same group of friends. Additionally, many students on campus who experience interpersonal violence share a co-curricular activity in a student group (such as band, dance, athletics, or Pan-Hellenic membership) with their perpetrator. This common network of friends and support people complicates a victim's decision to report the crime to

police or even to tell any of her/his friends about the experience. Victims fear that they will not be believed and that they will be "dropped" by their group of friends if they accuse someone within that group of hurting them. Attending college away from their hometown and traditional support network can exacerbate this problem even further.

If victims previously had a close relationship with the perpetrator, they are often concerned that they will "ruin the perpetrator's life" if they tell anyone, especially the police. Many victims do not want to force their friends to take sides, and they fear that this is what would happen if their experience became public. When victims share a co-curricular activity with their perpetrator, they are often forced to face that perpetrator everyday as they pursue their interest in that group/activity. This can affect a victim's ability to classify her/his experience as "violence" because the offensive act was committed by someone whom not only the victim, but many of her/his friends, have interactions with on a regular basis. A shared social group is one of the many reasons why victims of interpersonal violence on campus have an astonishingly low rate of reporting the crimes against them to the police.

A second complicating factor of campus sexual assaults is shared living space (Gibbons 2008, 2009; Vickio et al., 1999). Some victims of sexual assault or IPV on campus share a residence hall or other living quarters with their perpetrator. This fact can increase their danger, fear, and confusion about the violence. If the student is a victim of relationship violence, all of the dangers associated with cohabitating with the abuser apply. More unique to colleges is the likelihood that victims of *sexual assault* will share living space with their perpetrator. In both cases, the victim may have concerns about seeing the perpetrator in the dining hall, the stairway, or the lounge area. Shared living quarters can increase a feeling of vulnerability and can have real implications for the safety of victims of campus violence.

Third, Gibbons (2008) discusses the fact that many, although certainly not all, undergraduate students are financially dependent on their parents. For many students, this includes subscribing to their parents' health insurance. If students need to access medical care due to a sexual assault or injury relating from a violent relationship, they may have concerns about a parent finding out about what happened. They view their victimization as a failure on their own part and are concerned that they may worry, disappoint, or be blamed by their parents. For this reason, some victims of interpersonal violence on campus do not seek medical attention nor, for cases of sexual assault, do they seek to have an evidentiary exam performed. Again, the unique circumstances of campus violence negatively affect the likelihood of reporting and prosecution of interpersonal violence.

Fourth, excessive alcohol consumption is generally considered a risk factor for perpetrating sexual assault, and it can also be a risk factor for becoming a victim of sexual assault (Abbey et al., 2001). Alcohol is often used by perpetrators to render their victims more vulnerable through intoxication and to excuse their own behavior (Abbey et al., 2001). Those victims who were drinking or using other drugs prior to their assault are often reticent to make a police report because they fear they will be cited (if they are underage or the drug use is otherwise illegal), or they blame themselves for their assault because they were too under the influence to deter their assault (Karjane et al., 2002).

Gibbons (2009, 2008) also cites numerous institutional factors that are unique to violence against women on campus. Universities have an interest in appearing to be safe. They must recruit students, please parents, and garner donations. However, the reality of campus violence can lead potential stakeholders to question the safety of the campus. Some universities unintentionally discourage reporting and help-seeking by victims. For example, they may distribute materials about self defense and other risk reduction measures without balancing them

23

with a message to perpetrators regarding their sole responsibility for committing the crime. Such materials can influence victims to blame themselves because they did not stop the crime from happening, and victims who blame themselves are much less likely to make a report. In an effort to show a visible concern for safety, some universities have also invested in "blue lights" and safety call boxes that do not address the fact that most sexual assaults occur in the home of either the victim or perpetrator.

In response to these unique factors, many universities have created advocacy services specifically designed to deal with campus-related problems including (a) academic advocacy; (b) financial aid advocacy; (c) housing/residential life advocacy; (d) student judicial affairs advocacy; (e) on-campus support groups; (f) on-campus legal advocacy; and (g) systems advocacy (Dupree et al., 2002; Karjane et al., 2002; Gibbons, 2009).

Gibbons (2009) explains the process of each type of service. Academic advocacy involves working with survivors and their professors/instructors to ensure that the effects of the assault do not detrimentally affect their status as students in good standing. Academic advocacy involves talking with the survivor about what she needs to successfully complete her classes and then contacting her professors on her behalf (and only with her permission) to request accommodation. Financial aid advocacy involves working with the financial aid office and the survivor to make sure that the student has a clear understanding of what the financial consequences will be if there is any change in her student status (i.e., from full time to part time) and, if possible, to work with the loan or grant making authority directly to request that the survivor not incur a penalty for dropping below the credit minimum. Housing/residential life advocacy involves securing a quick and quiet on-campus address change for a survivor if she should request one (if, for example, she was assaulted in her residence hall apartment and no longer wishes to remain there). Student Judicial Affairs advocacy involves explaining the

24

university's adjudicative system to the survivor, accompanying the survivor to the judicial affairs office, giving support to the survivor throughout the process, including at a hearing if necessary, and serving as a liaison between the office and the survivor if the survivor so requests. On-campus support groups give college survivors both convenience and the knowledge that the others in the group will share some basic similarity to them. For those with a primary focus on recovery rather than accountability for the perpetrator, on-campus support groups can create a circle of understanding and affirmation. On-campus civil court legal advocacy includes writing and filing restraining orders for survivors and accompanying survivors to court. By providing the writing of orders on campus (rather than at a county court house), civil court legal advocates are able to meet with the survivor in a safe, non-intimidating environment and take the time necessary to explain the process and possible consequences of applying for an order.

Finally, university systems advocacy refers to the work of advocates on behalf of survivors at the policy and protocol level. For example, if a campus decides to allocate money for sexual assault prevention, sexual violence advocates would work to ensure that the money is directed to effective services and/or outreach. In other words, advocates would request that financial backing be given to primary prevention programs or direct victims' services rather than "blue lights" or self defense courses for women, both of which address stranger rape much more than acquaintance rape. Systems advocacy can be tricky, especially on a college campus where sexual assault programs are often funded by the very institution that advocates are trying to change or improve.

On a college campus, the advocacy services described above are often offered to survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, and, sometimes, stalking (Dupree et al., 2002; Gibbons, 2009; Karjane et al., 2002). The response to multiple types of victimization is another factor that sets campus-based programs apart from many community-based agencies and a further

reason to study these programs. In fact, the Department of Justice's *Grants to Reduce Violence against Women on Campus* provides funding to universities to offer services for survivors for each of these types of crimes. This grant program also funds anti-violence outreach and educational programming education. The literature on the evaluation of such campus antiviolence educational programs is discussed below.

Evaluating Rape Awareness/ Violence Prevention Programs on the College Campus

Types of Anti-Violence Educational Programs

In an effort to address the problem of sexual assault on the college campus, some universities have created non-formal educational programming (Karjane et al., 2002; Karjane et al., 2005). This approach is based on an understanding of sexual assault as being culturally constructed and supported (Brownmiller, 1972; Katz, 2006; Kilbourne, 1999) and the idea that, because rape is a learned behavior, it can be unlearned as well. There are essentially three types of anti-violence programming, differentiated by their philosophies and goals[2]: 1) risk reduction: Programs targeted at women that provide tools for the identification of risky situations (Gidycz, Lynn, Rich, Marioni, Loh, Blackwell, Stafford, & Fite, 2001) as well as for physical self-protection (Gidycz, Rich, Orchowski, King, & Miller, 2006); 2) rape awareness: Programs for both men and women that seek to increase the awareness that rape is a problem on campus, increase levels of empathy, and/or decrease levels of rape supportive attitudes (Lonsway, 1996; Lonsway & Kothari, 2000) and 3) violence prevention/bystander model: Programs for women and men that include the goals of rape awareness education and expand the purpose to include the role that men and women can play as bystanders to violence in its many forms (verbal, attitudinal, physical, etc.) (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004; Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Katz,

---

[2] Within each of these categories there may be differences as well, for example, with regard to program delivery (peer or professional; didactic or participatory) or target audience (female only, male only or mixed; audience size).

26

2005; Lonsway et al., 2009). The evaluation of each of these types of programs is discussed below.

<p align="center">***Evaluating Anti-Violence Educational Programming on the College Campus***</p>

There are at least two significant differences between the evaluation of rape prevention programs and the evaluation of victim services previously discussed. First, unlike the research on victim services, most published articles on the evaluation of educational programming use an experimental or quasi-experimental design (see Foubert, 2000; Gidycz et al., 2001; Gidycz et al., 2006). Second, and perhaps related to the first, the measurement tools used in the evaluations of program effectiveness have been relatively consistent and have received a significant amount of scholarly attention in and of themselves (see Burt, 1980; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). These differences are due, at least in part, to the very different subject matters of the evaluations, that is, whereas the recipients of intervention services are, by definition, survivors of sexual assault or IPV, the recipients of educational programs are "regular" college students, often paid for their participation.

Although experimental design has been the gold standard for assessing the effectiveness of anti-violence educational programming, this approach is not without its critics. For example, Ward (2002) questions whether the presentation of violence prevention programming without any qualitative discussion of its contents with participants may actually serve to harm some of the participants, especially victims, rather than help them. She also faults this approach for excluding participant input in the evaluation process. The current state of the evaluation of the three types of campus anti-violence education is discussed below. The critique raised by Ward (2002) will be considered in *Chapter Three* as an influence on the frame of the research design.

Evaluation: Risk reduction/ Self-defense programs

For the past fifteen years, Gidycz and colleagues (Gidyzc et al. 2001; Gidycz & Laymen et al., 2001; Gidycz et al., 2006; Hanson & Gidycz, 1993) have developed and evaluated sexual violence risk reduction programming. The most salient goal of such programming has been to reduce the incidence of sexual assault victimization experienced by women (Gidycz et al., 2001; Gidyzc et al., 2006; Hanson & Gidycz, 1993). Other goals that function to support the principal goal of decreased victimization include increased confidence in and willingness to use assertiveness to resist sexually threatening advances, increased clarity in sexual communication, decreased self-blame, and increased knowledge of sexual assault statistics and dynamics (Gidycz et al., 2006). Gidycz and colleagues have consistently used a random assignment model and have included measures of both immediate and long-term changes in attitudes and behaviors.

The evaluations of the effectiveness of risk reduction programs in decreasing the incidence of sexual assault have been mixed. An early evaluation of the first iteration of the program found that while the program had an effect on the incidence of sexual assault experienced by women who had not previously experienced sexual assault, there was not a similar positive effect for women who had been previously assaulted (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993). When the program was modified to specifically address survivors of sexual assault, no positive effects were found for either such survivors or for women who had not been previously victimized (Breitenbecher & Gidycz, 1998). Gidycz and colleagues further modified the program, and although there have been some positive findings with respect to the secondary goals of the program (discussed above), there has been no conclusive evidence that participation in the program decreases the rate of victimization (Gidycz et al., 2001; Gidycz et al., 2006).

Evaluation: Rape Awareness Programming

Traditional rape awareness programs focus on men as potential perpetrators and women as potential victims. Some programs have been criticized for focusing too much on the responsibility of the victim to prevent an attack (Schewe & O'Donohue, 1993). Despite the criticism of some programs, a significant portion of colleges and universities has committed resources to delivering rape awareness programs (Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). These efforts have most often focused on attitude change, assuming that changing rape supportive attitudes will eventually lead to a decrease in sexual assaults (Anderson & Whiston, 2005; Lonsway, 1996). The limited number of evaluations of such programming has generally concluded that while these programs do result in some short term decreases in rape supportive attitudes, they do not result in long-term significant changes of knowledge and attitudes (Anderson et al., 1998; Sochting et al., 2004; Breitenbecher, 2000).

Evaluation of anti-violence educational programs: Methods and challenges

Evaluation of risk reduction and awareness raising programs. The notable influence of measurement tools on the evaluation of anti-violence programming warrants a discussion of the evolution of these tools. The most common construct used in evaluations of rape awareness programs is *rape myth acceptance* (Anderson & Whiston, 2005; Breitenbacher 2000). Burt (1980, p. 217) was the first to define rape myths as "prejudicial, stereotyped or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists." Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) argue that the best definition of rape myth should be based on the similarities in the function and nature of myths found in various literatures (philosophy, sociology, psychology) as well as the cultural theory of rape. They propose that rape myths are "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p. 134). Regardless of its definition, rape myth acceptance is an attitudinal variable that has been

shown to be positively correlated with a plethora of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors including self-reported likelihood to commit rape (Hamilton & Yee, 1990), adversarial sexual beliefs and acceptance of interpersonal violence (Burt, 1980), self-reported sexually aggressive behavior among men (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Malamuth, 1989; Koss, Leonard, Beezly, & Oros, 1985), and the likelihood to label a rape scenario as something less serious than rape (Norris & Cubbins, 1992; Fischer, 1986).

Burt (1980) used the construct of rape myth acceptance to develop the *Rape Myth Acceptance Scale* (RMAS), and this scale has been the most widely used measurement tool in the evaluations of rape awareness programming (Anderson & Whiston, 2005; Breitenbecher, 2000). This 14 item scale includes statements such as "If a girl engages in necking or petting and she lets things get out of hand, it's her own fault if her partner forces sex on her" and "In the majority of rapes, the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation" and asks participants to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree using a Likert scale. Despite the popularity of the scale and the construct of rape myth acceptance – Burt's 1980 article has been cited 461 times in peer reviewed journals since its publication[3] – the use of these instruments is not without criticism. Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) identify several problems with the literature on rape myths including 1) definitional problems (not all studies use the same definition of rape myth); 2) domain problems (although rape myth acceptance is multidimensional, there should be more consistent overlap between studies of the factors or domains from which measurement items are drawn); 3) psychometric considerations, including problems with content validity (based primarily on the previous two shortcomings) and problems with criterion- and construct-related validity; and 4) more concrete problems such as the clarity of items (i.e., some items include more than one idea,

---

[3] These data are from a citation search on the Web of Science Index on 12/02/2007.

or they may be too specific/complex) and the fact that colloquial phrases may be outdated or not

be effective at crossing cultural boundaries.

Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) answered these criticisms with the development

of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS). This tool is based on an earlier

reconceptualization of the rape myth construct (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, 1995), which

theorizes that the concept of a myth constitutes "1) false or apocryphal beliefs that 2) explain

some cultural phenomenon and 3) whose importance lies in maintaining existing cultural

arrangements" (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999, p. 28). The IRMAS, a 45 item scale

(including five filler items), includes at least five questions/statements based on each of seven

components: (a) She asked for it; (b) It wasn't really rape; (c) He didn't mean to; (d) She wanted

it; (e) She lied; (f) Rape is a trivial event; and (g) Rape is a deviant event. Examples of items from

this scale include: "A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape," "Rape happens when a

man's sex drive gets out of control," and "If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least

somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control."

Despite both the improved accuracy of measurement and increased validity of findings

afforded by the IRMAS, it is insufficient as a tool for the evaluation of programming that focuses

on violence prevention, rather than rape awareness or risk reduction. This prevention education,

most commonly referred to as the "bystander model" (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007;

Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004), requires an assessment tool that fits with its goals, which

are quite distinct from the goals of rape awareness and risk reduction strategies. It is to this third

type of anti-violence education that I now turn.

Evaluation of prevention programming. Violence prevention programs are different from

rape awareness programs in that they focus on the responsibility of the perpetrator for committing

violence. The bystander model of violence prevention (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007;

Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004; Katz, 1995) differs from traditional sexual assault

awareness programs in several ways.

A review of the limited literature on these programs reveals five significant differences

(see Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2004; Berkowitz, 2002;

Hakstian & Fitzgerald, 2007; Katz, 1995; Schwartz & Dekeseredy, 1997; Ward, 2001, 2002).

First, violence prevention programs address men and women as possible bystanders to sexual

assault and less extreme forms of sexist violence, rather than as potential perpetrators and victims.

Second, as bystanders, men and women are encouraged to act as allies, that is, to do something,

rather than nothing, in situations where any type of sexist violence (including jokes and unwanted

comments) occurs. Third, participants are encouraged to view sexual assault and other gender-

based violence as a men's issue as well as a women's issue. Fourth, participants are encouraged

to deconstruct and challenge culture (movies, music, and advertising) as a place where

stereotypes of men and women create a climate that encourages men's violence against women.

Finally, the bystander model includes tools and ideas for participants to use as allies and strongly

encourages each person to make a difference. Indeed, the bystander approach focuses not just on

awareness raising and knowledge development, but also challenges students to do something

about violence and proposes a list of tools to and ideas that students can use to do just that.

Certainly, not all educational programs based on the bystander model are the same, but many

include the elements limits listed above.

Because the bystander approach to violence is so new, it is difficult to find published

reports on its effectiveness. In an unpublished report, Stefanski (2005) used the IRMAS to assess

the effectiveness of a bystander educational program on a college campus, thus missing any

impact that the program might have had on bystander attitudes or behaviors. Another

unpublished evaluation used a pre-post test as well as focus groups, both of which included items

specific to the goals of the bystander approach (Hakistan & Fitzgerald, 2007). This evaluation

included assessment of a 90-minute "one-shot" program and a longer-term "train the trainer"

program. Due to a low response rate, no conclusions could be drawn from the survey, but the

focus groups resulted in several recommendations including the elimination of the "one shot"

program due to its ineffectiveness. In her unpublished dissertation, Ward (2001) found that the

program she evaluated had positive effects on creating pro-social attitudes. Finally, in 2002, the

U.S. Department of Justice commissioned a longitudinal study of a university-level bystander

education program. The authors of this study developed the program curriculum as well as the

set of measures used to assess changes in bystander attitudes, bystander efficacy, sense of

community, intended behavior, and actual behavior (Banyard, Plante, & Moynihan, 2005). Using

an experimental pre-post model as well as focus groups, the study demonstrated the utility of the

bystander approach and, perhaps most significantly, directly correlated changes in attitude with

changes in behavior. This finding addresses the common critique of earlier studies that measuring

changes in attitude reveals little about future behavior.

This review of the literature on evaluating community-based victim services programs

and campus anti-violence educational programming and the previous discussion of the unique

dynamics of on-campus violence against women demonstrate that there remain a plethora of

questions regarding assessing the success of campus-based violence prevention programs and the

impact that such assessment can have on decision making and thinking about such programs. For

example, to what extent have programs changed their educational approach or curriculum based

on evaluations of their anti-violence educational programming? Or, to what extent do programs

engage in formal evaluation of their victim services and how has such evaluation affected

decisions about programming? Finally, how do program staffs define their success in an

environment as distinct and varied as college campus anti-violence programs? These are but

three salient questions that remain unexplored; and each of them can be subsumed under the previously discussed research questions that focus on the state and impact of evaluation on campus-based programs. To answer them, a framework for investigating the relevance of evaluation must be employed. I discuss this frame in the following section.

Understanding Evaluation Use and Influence

This section defines the various types of evaluation use and considers the arguments for broadening or replacing the term *use* with the concept of evaluation *influence*. It also presents the empirical research on the factors that have been found to influence use. Finally, this section reviews methods researchers have used or propose should be used to track and understand the use and influence of evaluations. Evaluation use can serve as a lens to focus this exploratory study because of its rich and dynamic conceptualization and its amenability to various contexts and levels of analysis.

Evaluation scholars have given a significant amount of attention to the theoretical construct of evaluation use (Alkin, & Christie, 2003; Amo & Cousins, 2007; Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991). The typology of evaluation use most commonly includes instrumental, conceptual, symbolic, and process use (Leviton & Hughes, 1981; Worthen, Sanders, & Fitzpatrick, 1997; Weiss, Murphy-Graham, & Birkland, 2005). Evaluation use was first conceptualized as the direct and immediate use of evaluation information and results to make decisions (Preskill & Torres, 2000; Shadish, Cook, & Leviton, 1991; Weiss, 1981). The idea that the very purpose of evaluations is their eventual use is one embraced by many in the field. Patton (2008) argues that all evaluations should focus on use. He notes that the goal of his work on utilization-focused evaluation is to narrow "the gap between generating evaluation findings and actually using those findings for program decision making and improvement" (p. 6). Alkin (1990) agrees: "Meeting the information needs of intended users is the raison d'être of evaluation" (p.

34

19). Suchman (1967; cited in Alkin & Christie, 2004) is also clear on this matter: "The success of an evaluation…will be largely dependent upon its usefulness to the administrator in improving services" (p. 21). Finally, the *Program Evaluation Standards* (1994) give a significant nod to use by listing "utility" as the first category of standards.

Despite this enthusiasm for direct use of evaluation results, early studies of such *instrumental use* of evaluation findings found that the results of evaluations had little significance for decision making (Alkin, Daillak, & White, 1979; Patton, Grimes, Guthrie, Brennan, French, & Blyth, 1977; Weiss, 1972). This "nonuse" of evaluation findings (Patton, 2008, pp. 7-8) led researchers to consider alternative conceptualizations of use.

Conceptual use occurs when an evaluation influences how a decision maker thinks about an issue. This type of use, also called enlightenment, recognizes that evaluation results are just one of many information sources, and, additionally, there are often political considerations that may inhibit direct use of evaluation results (Alkin et al., 1979; Leviton & Hughes, 1981; Weiss, 1981). Because evaluations can be used in cumulative and integrative ways, Weiss (1980) argued that ideas from the evaluation can influence a decision maker's processing and understanding of information from other sources and may ultimately become a part of that decision maker's bank of knowledge. This "knowledge creep" (Weiss, 1980) can affect attitudes, problem construction, and long-term decision making.

Symbolic use is the use of evaluation findings for political self interest (Johnson, 1998; Leviton & Hughes, 1981). Such use may be manifested through the justification of decisions previously made about a program or policy (Johnson, 1998), the reliance on evaluation results to deter attack on a program or policy (Alkin & Taut, 2003; Leviton & Hughes, 1981), or the use of the evaluation to improve an organization's reputation for accountability (Alkin & Taut, 2003).

Although not regarded as a typical domain of use, "imposed use" has been identified as a potentially significant type of instrumental use in an era of increasing standards for accountability and rising demand for experimental models of evaluation (Weiss, Murphy-Graham, & Birkeland, 2005). *Imposed use* occurs when "stakeholders are obliged to pay attention to evaluation results. In this case, they would lose their funding if they did not agree to adopt a program that had been proved effective through scientific inquiry" (p. 16). Weiss et al. (2005) argue that we will probably be seeing more of this imposed use – which is not an entirely new concept (i.e., federal regulation tying transportation funding to state-set speed limits) - as our government becomes more focused on accountability.

An earlier distinction within the instrumental use category is that of "charged use" versus compliance or signaling (King, 1988). "Charged use of information…depends upon an individual who wants to use information to solve a problem. Its essential characteristic is the intentional and serious consideration of evaluation information" (King, 1988, p. 286). Signaling on the other hand is simply to show compliance with the requirements of funders or other administrative bodies. This distinction is important in an exploration of the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs because of the data collection requirements of the federal funding agency.

In addition to these types of use that focus on the use of findings, an alternative conception of use, *process use*, focuses on how participation in an evaluation affects individual beliefs, attitudes, and actions. In her analysis of process use, Greene (1988) argues that evaluation participants may experience cognitive, affective, or political impacts as they engage in the evaluation process. Cognitive use is closely linked to conceptual use, with the difference being in the *source* of the change in cognition (the process vs. the findings). Affective use refers to personal changes in a participant's feelings of worth and value based on his or her participation in

36

an evaluation. Finally, political use refers to an evaluation process that includes less powerful

stakeholders and grants them power in decision making about the evaluation.

Patton (2008) has also analyzed process use. He argues that "the process of engaging in

evaluation can have as much or more impact than the findings generated" (p. 99). He defines

process use as "individual changes in thinking and behavior, and program or organizational

changes in procedures and culture, that occur among those involved in evaluation as a result of

the learning that occurs during the evaluation process" (p. 90). Patton (1999) discusses four

distinct uses of evaluation processes and logic: the enhancement of shared understandings; the

support of the program through data collection systems that meet the needs of the evaluation

while also contributing to program outcomes, also termed "intervention-oriented evaluation" (p.

91); the increase of participants' engagement and sense of ownership (i.e., through participatory

and empowerment evaluation); and, finally, the use of the evaluation process to improve

organizational development (i.e., through an evaluability assessment or engaging in evaluation to

help an organization determine if its practices match its mission).

More recent research and reflections on process use have found that as opposed to being

an incidental positive consequence of evaluation, process use can also be considered a

specifically intentional outcome (Amo & Cousins, 2007; King, 2007). King (2007) argues that

process use is an independent variable in and of itself and that such use can be employed as a

vehicle to build evaluation capacity. The idea that process use is something that should be

studied apart from other types of use is echoed by Amo and Cousins (2007), who conducted a

review of the literature that measured process use. In this review, they found that process use as

an independent variable has been evidenced by learning, changes in action or behaviors, changes

in affect or attitude, and other impacts such as social justice, opportunity, and networking (Amo

& Cousins, 2007, p. 21).

37

Not all evaluation scholars agree that process use constitutes an entirely different

category of use. Johnson (1998) subsumes process use under conceptual use, which he terms

"cognitive use" (p. 105). Alkin and Taut (2003) clarify that process use signifies an alternative

source for use, but not an alternative *type* of use, as it ultimately leads to instrumental,

conceptual, or symbolic use.

Kirkhart (2000) would agree, noting that the source of use (process or results) is an

important variable in understanding the impact(s) of evaluation. Kirkhart goes on to argue that

the source of use is only one of three principal constructs that must be considered to understand

how evaluations may affect people, programs, and policies. The other two meaningful variables

are intention and time. When considered together, these three dimensions contribute to an

understanding of evaluation impact that Kirkhart terms "influence" rather than use. Kirkhart

defines influence as "the capacity or power of persons or things to produce effects on others by

intangible or indirect means" (2000, p. 7) and argues that her framework is better able to capture

the broad range of evaluation consequences that are often overlooked by the traditional

conceptualization of use. *Figure 1* shows Kirkhart's framework of influence. She represents this

framework with a cube that contains the three dimensions: intention (intended or unintended),

source (process or results), and time (immediate, end of cycle, long term). Kirkhart argues that

use is too narrow a concept because it includes only those consequences of evaluation that are

unidirectional, episodic, intended, and instrumental. Influence, on the other hand, includes

consequences that are multidirectional, incremental, unintentional, and non-instrumental in

addition to the more traditional demarcations of use.

Henry and Mark (2003) build on Kirkhart's (2000) model of evaluation influence and

seek to explore the change processes through which evaluation affects attitudes, beliefs, and

actions. They propose studying the "pathways" of evaluation use on the individual, interpersonal, and collective levels, arguing that "one key gap is that the literature on use has generally failed to give adequate attention to the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and societal change process through
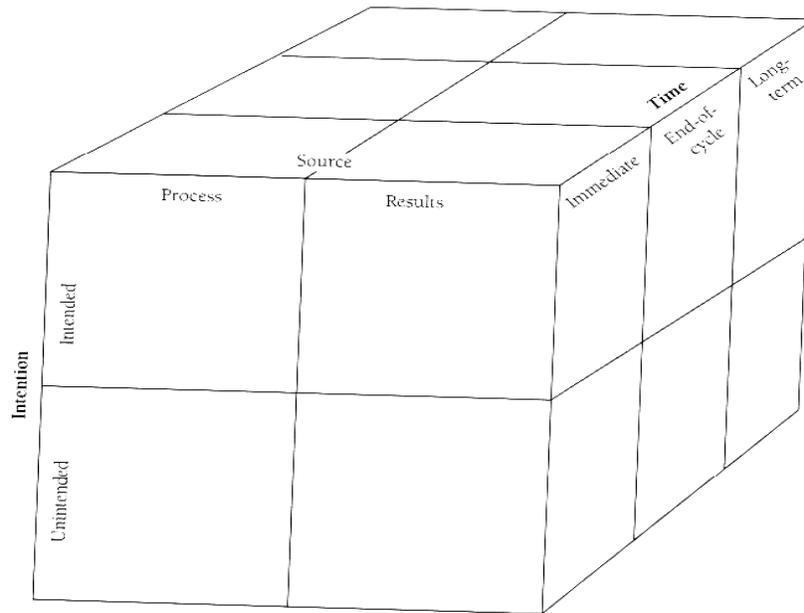
Figure 1: Kirkhart's (2000) Integrated Theory of Influence

which evaluation findings and process may translate into steps toward social betterment" (p. 294). They suggest thinking of evaluation as an intervention that allows for the development of an evaluation logic model that shows "the movement of evaluation outcomes, identifying the potential linkages between [sic] immediate, intermediate, and long-range outcomes that are indicators or precursors of the specific long-range social goals that motivate evaluation" (p. 296). Mark and Henry (2004) also draw heavily from the work of Cousins (2003) and detail the logic model of evaluation influence as they conceptualize it. The goal of their framework is to "capture the mechanisms through which evaluation may have its effects" (p. 35). They propose four types

39

of processes (general influence, attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral) within each of the levels of analysis (individual, interpersonal, and collective). Examples of mechanisms include elaboration, priming, and salience at the individual level; persuasion, justification, and social reward at the interpersonal level; and legislative hearings, agenda setting, and policy change at the collective level. They argue that their model clearly identifies pathways at various levels of analysis - something that literature on use does not do. *Figure 2* shows Mark and Henry's framework.
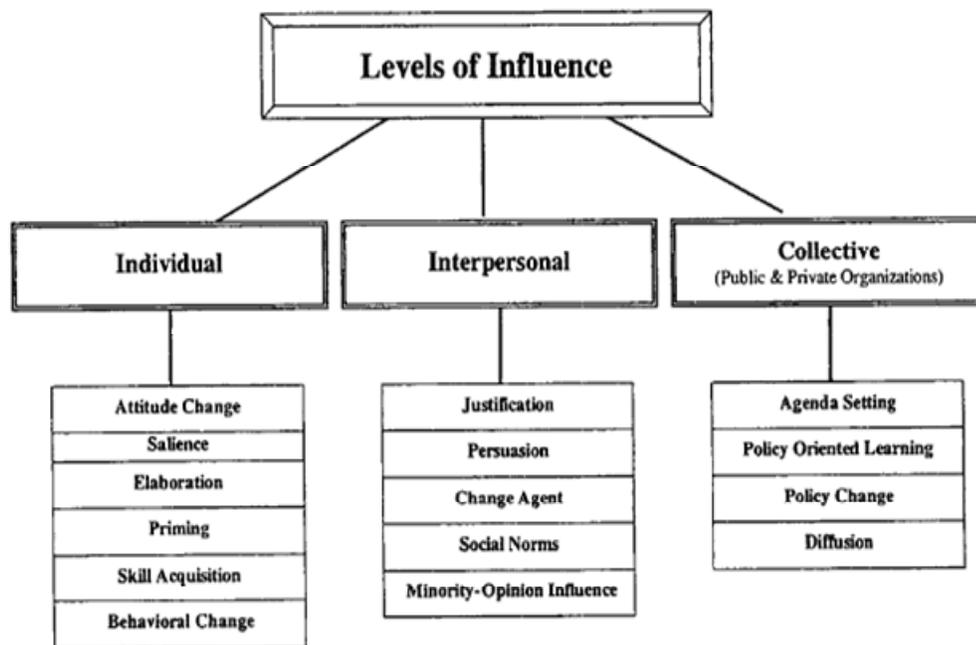
Figure 2: Mark and Henry's (2003) Framework of Influence

Although several scholars see promise in the work on influence (Christie, 2007; Henry & Mark, 2003; Kirkhart, 2000; Leviton, 2003; Mark & Henry 2004), there remains a good deal of confusion and disagreement about how the concept of influence contributes to the field. Alkin and Taut (2003) suggest replacing Kirkhart's (2000) variable of intention with that of awareness, thus resulting in a schema that defines influence as something about which evaluators and

40

primary stakeholders are unaware. Because such influence is out of the control of evaluators, it is

not something that evaluators should be concerned about; rather, they should concentrate on use.

Weiss, Murphy-Graham, and Birkeland (2005) tried to trace the "pathways to influence" as

conceptualized by Henry and Mark (2003) and Mark and Henry (2004). They were unable to

accomplish this and suggest that part of the difficulty was an inability to focus on the processes

that intervene between the evaluation and the audience (influence) while simultaneously focusing

on instrumental use, which was the primary focus of their study. Additionally, Lawrenz, King,

and Greenseid (2005) point out that while evaluations can have indirect influence on people and

programs, so, too, can people who are involved in the evaluation process have an influence on the

evaluation. They propose a new definition of use: The purposeful application of evaluation

processes, findings, or knowledge to produce an effect.

Thus, there remains debate about the conceptualization of evaluation influence, the levels

of analysis that are most appropriate for tracking and understanding influence, and whether or not

it should replace the concept of use, be used in tandem with the concept of use, or be regarded as

a concept that is unable to add anything to the field. An understanding of the history,

conceptualization, and debate about use is helpful to an exploration of the state of evaluation at

campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs because it can provide a lens for

focusing the questions that are asked about program evaluation and ideas about program success.

There are several ways that "evaluation use" can guide this research. For example, Patton et al.

(1977) treated use an emergent concept so that all nuances of use would be included in their

analysis. Previously discussed is the distinction between evaluation for decision making and

evaluation for compliance. Process use may be an important concept in discussion about the

possible impact that collecting data for the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative had on

programming and organizational learning. Finally, the concept of influence serves as a reminder that evaluation may affect people, programs, and policies in unforeseen ways.

In addition to the debate regarding the definition and conceptualization of evaluation use and influence, there has also been a significant amount of attention given to the factors that influence the use of evaluation. Because influence is a new concept, there is far less empirical research on the variables that affect influence. This literature is important because it can help to delineate the variables that may be significant in an examination of evaluation impact on campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs.

Factors that Affect Use and Influence

In the search for the tipping point for evaluation use, that is, for the factor or set of factors that increase the likelihood that for evaluation will have an impact, one of the earliest concepts to emerge from the literature is that of "the personal factor." This variable emerged from a 1977 empirical study conducted by Patton et al. wherein the researchers identified twenty federal health evaluations and questioned the decision makers and evaluators about what factors affected use. The personal factor led to later arguments about the need for the evaluator to identify a *primary intended user* of the evaluation – someone who is invested in the evaluation and who is planning to use the results. Three decades later, Patton (2008) argues that "the personal factor" continues to be relevant:

> Although the specifics vary from case to case, the pattern is markedly clear: Where the personal factor emerges, where some individuals take direct, personal responsibility for getting findings to the right people, evaluations have an impact. Where the personal factor is absent, there is a marked absence of impact. Use is not simply determined by some configuration of abstract factors; it is determined in large part by real, live human beings. (2008, p. 47)

42

Patton (2008, pp. 49-50) goes on to cite twenty-four additional studies that confirm the importance of the personal factor in the pursuit of evaluation impact.

A second set of factors identified by Patton and colleagues (1977) are political constraints, especially "budgetary battles." Many who study evaluation use echo this recognition of the importance of political context (see reviews by Alkin, 1985; Cousins & Leithwood, 1986; and Shula & Cousins, 1997). Noting the political constraints that policy and decision makers face, Weiss and Bucuvalas (1980) conducted a study of "evaluation research" that focused on the characteristics of both the research and the decision maker in order to track which factors lend themselves to use of research. Their results indicate that "research quality" (design, measurement, analysis, objectivity, generalizability) ranked the highest in predicting the usefulness of a study. They also found, contrary to their hypothesis, that studies that challenged the status quo also ranked positively. The study found no distinct decision-maker characteristics that affected the use of research. Finally, Weiss and Bucuvalas (1980) argue that when planning research one should not simply use the criteria suggested by a primary user because it will not necessarily aid in producing a useful study "due to the inability to express their intentions and needs in accurate terms" (p. 196).

Alkin, Daillak, and White (1979) explored the use of evaluations through "mainstream channels" (i.e., immediate instrumental use) and "alternative" channels (i.e., indirect, longitudinal effects). Although they did find instrumental use in one case, all of the cases included multiple instances of "alternative" use. Based on their findings, they propose an evaluation utilization framework that includes eight categories that can also be considered independent variables to explain use: 1) the pre-existing boundaries of the evaluation; 2) the orientation of the users; 3) the evaluator's approach to evaluation; 4) the credibility of the evaluator; 5) factors related to the

43

organization; 6) extra-organizational factors; 7) the content of the evaluation and the reporting mechanism and style; and 8) the administrator's approach to the evaluation.

King and Thompson (1983) analyze factors that influence use in terms of those that can be controlled by an evaluator and those that are outside of the evaluator's reach. Controllable factors include methodological quality, report features and report timeliness; uncontrollable factors reflect the context of the evaluation and the setting in which use may or may not take place. They argue that the controllable factors are not sufficient to guarantee use. Rather, it is the interaction between the evaluators and users, combined with the context in which the evaluation takes place, that can affect the extent to which the evaluation is used.

In a review of sixty-five empirical studies on evaluation use, Cousins and Leithwood (1986) identify twelve factors that influence use. Six of these factors are related to the evaluation implementation (evaluation quality, credibility of evaluator and/or process, relevance, communication quality, findings, timeliness), and six are related to the decision making or policy setting (information needs, decision characteristics, political climate, competing information, personal characteristics, commitment/receptiveness to evaluation). The studies included use as decision making (i.e., about funding, the operation of a program, or program management), use as education, and use as the processing of information, and potential for use, although the authors note that "potential for use" might be more correctly identified as an antecedent variable in relation to the other three (p. 359). The most important factors were evaluation quality and decision characteristics, followed by evaluation findings and the users' commitment to evaluation. Finally, relevance and a limited amount of competing information were also important. In general, those evaluations that focused on program process or implementation were found to be more useful than those dealing strictly with outcomes.

Bober and Bartlett (2004) employ the meta-analytic framework proposed by Cousins and

Leithwood (1986) to understand the use of training program evaluations at corporate universities.

They found that seven of the twelve factors identified by Cousins and Leithwood affected the use

of training evaluations at all four of the sites that they studied. The seven factors present, in order

of rank importance, were communication quality, timeliness, commitment/receptiveness to

evaluation, evaluation quality, credibility, relevance, and findings. Bober and Bartlett also note

that the factors which emerged as most important are related to the evaluation implementation as

opposed to the decision context.

In another review, Shula and Cousins (1997) identify nine independent variables that

emerge from the literature: 1) evaluation relevance and credibility, 2) user involvement, 3)

communication effectiveness, 4) potential for information processing, 5) clients' needs for

information, 6) anticipated degree of program change, 7) perceived value of evaluation as a

management tool, 8) quality of evaluation implementation, and 9) contextual characteristics of the

decision or policy making setting. Focusing on context, Leviton (2003) and Patton et al. (1977)

add that it is through the reduction of uncertainty that evaluation can make one of its strongest

impacts. The most recent review of the use literature suggests that engagement, interaction, and

communication between the evaluator and her clients are paramount to meaningful evaluation use

(Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz, & Volkov, 2009).

Over the past two decades, several scholars have argued that the participation of

stakeholders in the evaluation process is a factor that is important to use (Cousins & Whitmore,

1998; Greene, 1988; Johnson et al., 2009; King, 1998; Patton, 2008; Preskill & Torres, 2001).

Stakeholder participation in an evaluation can take several forms and may be present in varying

degrees (Cousins & Whitmore, 1998; Greene, 1998). Cousins and Whitmore (1998) note that

"For some [participatory evaluation] implies a practical approach to broadening decision making

45

and problem solving through systematic inquiry; for others, reallocating power in the production of knowledge and promoting social change are the root issues" (p. 5). Typically, participatory evaluation would include stakeholder involvement in the planning, conducting, and analysis of the evaluation (Preskill & Torres, 2001). Participatory evaluation has been shown to increase buy-in, understanding, and, eventually, use (Cousins, 2003; Greene, 1988; King, 1988; Patton, 2008**;** Preskill & Torres, 2001).

Johnson (1998) also recognizes the significance of stakeholder participation in his meta-model of evaluation utilization that includes background variables (such as characteristics of organizations, stakeholders and evaluators), interactional/social psychological variables (such as type and level of evaluation participation, communication and politics), and evaluation utilization variables (such as expectations, competing information and interest). He notes that the variable of evaluation participation has consistently emerged as an important factor affecting use. Integrating ideas and process models from the literature on evaluation utilization, Johnson depicts evaluation use as occurring in an internal system situated within an external system. Thus, in addition to the many factors that can influence use internally, there is input from and output to the external environment, which provides feedback to the internal system. Johnson's findings are echoed by Weiss (1998) in her text on evaluation in which she argues that evaluation interacts with an individual's ideology, interests, and pre-existing information, as well as with the institutional setting and political context.

Similar to Johnson's integrative model of evaluation utilization, Henry and Mark (2003) and Mark & Henry (2004) argue that the factors that affect evaluation influence occur at various stages of the evaluation. In their evaluation-as-intervention logic model, the authors suggest that influence is affected by evaluation inputs (such as the evaluation context and policy/decision-making setting), evaluation activities (such as the evaluation implementation and stakeholder

46

participation), and evaluation outputs (such as knowledge) and, finally, intermediate and long-term outcomes (such as the cognitive, motivational or behavioral impact of evaluation) (Mark & Henry, 2004, p. 46).

Finally, several scholars have noted that the variables that affect evaluation impact may be different at different levels of decision making. For example, Shula and Cousins (1997) argue that use is understood differently in pluralistic, non-rational policy making contexts (such as high level governmental decision making) than in rational, decision-making contexts (such as programs). Henry (2003) argues that evaluations of high technical quality are expected and necessary in large scale government-sponsored research, but he also notes that such technical quality may not be necessary in the case of smaller, responsive, user-focused evaluations. As a practitioner, King (1988) echoes this distinction. She argues that at the local level if an evaluator can build interest around the evaluation, it will probably get used, even if the methodology does not reach the gold standard. Leviton (2002) agrees, noting that while well conducted evaluations with technical merit are sometimes the only type of evaluation that will suffice, there are some cases when having some information, even if it is flawed, is much better than having no information at all.

Thus, the understanding of the factors that affect evaluation utilization and influence has progressed from a list of factors about the evaluations and decision makers to a collection of models (whether implicit or explicit) that include individual, organizational, and contextual variables that interact with evaluation implementation and give output to and receive feedback from the external environment. Given the complexity of understanding use and influence, the question of how to study these phenomena is surely an important one. The next section reviews the methods of inquiry used to examine evaluation use and influence.

Evaluation Use: Measurement and Methods of Inquiry

The previous discussions of the history, definitions, and factors that affect evaluation use and influence have been based on a number of empirical studies and reviews of studies. The methods of inquiry used in these studies has varied. While some studies have used a case study approach (Alkin, Daillak, & White, 1979; Greene, 1988; Patton et al., 1977; Weiss et al., 2005), others have been simulation studies wherein participants are asked to judge the likelihood of using a simulated evaluation (Weiss & Bucuvalas, 1980; Christie, 2007), and still others have taken a longitudinal approach (see Alkin, Daillak, & White, 1979; Cousins & Leithwood, 1986). In a review of 65 empirical studies on use that were conducted between 1971 and 1985, Cousins and Leithwood (1986) found that 54 percent used surveys and/or interviews (and some of these were case studies), 32 percent were simulation studies, and 14 percent were longitudinal studies. Building on the work of Cousins and Leithwood, Johnson et al. (2009) reviewed 41 empirical studies conducted between 1986 and 2005

How one studies evaluation use will depend somewhat on the conceptualization of use under examination. Patton et al. (1977) interviewed 60 government decision makers using open-ended questions and allowed the decision makers to define their own conceptualization of evaluation use. They were interested in learning how evaluations affected decision makers' beliefs and actions. This study found that many decision makers use evaluation results to reduce uncertainty in their decision making. Weiss has conducted several types of studies including simulation studies and case studies (Weiss & Bucuvalas, 1980; Weiss et al., 2005) and agrees with Patton that reduction of uncertainty is a significant contribution made by research and evaluation. To understand the full impact of evaluations, Alkin (1980) suggests a naturalist mode of inquiry wherein evaluations can unfold in real time before the eyes of the researcher. King and Pechman (1982) answered Alkin's call for naturalistic case studies in their work in New Orleans

public schools where they spent a full year reviewing documents, interviewing, and observing school district members and evaluation staff, and taking part in conversations about evaluation events.

Each of these examples of empirical studies (or reviews of studies) on evaluation use has to struggle with many of the same challenges including determining an acceptable way to measure use. It is upon the argued failure of the concept of use and the difficulty in measuring use that Mark and Henry (2003, 2004) build their case for a shift to the study of influence. Mark and Henry's schema is discussed in the previous section. The focus here is on the two empirical studies that have been conducted to investigate influence. Weiss et al. (2005) employed a case study approach in her examination of the impact of evaluations on D.A.R.E. anti-drug programs. Weiss found evidence of instrumental, conceptual, and symbolic use. Upon the suggestion of an anonymous reviewer, Weiss then tried to trace the mechanisms of influence as describe by Mark and Henry (2003, 2004), but was unable to do so. In the second empirical study on influence, Christie (2007) conducted a simulation study to determine what *type* of evaluation data is most likely to result in use: large scale evaluation study data, case study evaluation data, or anecdotes. Because the data were often used to confirm the beliefs of decision makers, Christie recommends that Henry and Mark add "beliefs" to their framework under the "individual" level of analysis. Christie does not address why she used the concept of influence rather than use in her study.

This review of the history of evaluation use, the various factors that affect use, and the methods to study evaluation use demonstrates that use as a concept is both difficult to study and dynamic in its operation. Nevertheless, the concept of evaluation use provides an appropriate framework with which to focus an exploratory study of the state and impact of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs. The rich history and complex characterizations of evaluation use can guide research on campus programming by providing direction for question

49

creation, participant selection, and variable relevance. The challenge posed by the literature on evaluation influence may also be helpful because it serves as a reminder that evaluations can have an impact at various levels of analysis, whether intended or unintended. Finally, the methods of inquiry used to study evaluation use over the past three decades can provide a model of exploration for understanding evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs.

This review of the literature on the evaluation of campus anti-violence programming (both educational and direct service) as well as the literature on evaluation use and influence reveals several gaps that this study seeks to fill. First, very little is known about the definition of success and the evaluation of campus-based victim services programs. Second, there is a gap in our knowledge about how the evaluation of campus-based violence prevention educational programming affects the content and delivery of these programs. Third, the impact of the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative on program thinking, delivery and decision making has not been studied. Finally, this study will contribute to the understanding of evaluation use by exploring both variables previously identified as affecting the use of evaluations and by considering additional variables that are unique to campus violence prevention programming.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

As the research design "is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's original research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions" (Yin, 2003, p. 20), it is important that the methods employed in any study make sense in terms of its questions, contexts, and constraints. This research used a mixed-method design and thus employed both qualitative and quantitative methods for collecting data. Mixed method designs "are useful to capture the best of both quantitative and qualitative approaches" (Creswell, 2003, p. 22). They are appropriate when there is a need to both explore the topic in depth and understand relationships among variables (Creswell, 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997). A mixed-method approach was used in this study to better understand the assessment of success and the state of evaluation by campus-based violence intervention and prevention programs by converging and triangulating the detail of qualitative data gathered from focus groups and document review with the breadth of quantitative information gained from a survey.

Although mixed-method designs are gaining in popularity among social science researchers (Greene, 2007; Creswell, 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997), the appropriateness of mixing methods from paradigms with differing ontologies and epistemologies is not readily accepted by all. Guba and Lincoln (1989) argue that the vast differences, for example, in the knowledge claims of positivism as compared to interpretivism result in research questions and approaches that are anathema to one another. This incompatibility of epistemologies results in an incommensurability of methods. Simply put, from this perspective, one should not mix methods across paradigms. This purist view is questioned by Greene and Caracelli (1997), who believe that there is a distinct place for mixed-method research designs. They argue that the "underlying

51

rationale for mixed-methods inquiry is to understand more fully, to generate deeper and broader insights, [and] to develop important knowledge claims that respect a wider range of knowledge and interests and perspectives," (p.7). Pragmatists such as Patton (1988) support the idea of mixing methods because such an approach can be more situationally responsive and thus lead to a more comprehensive understanding than a single-method approach. There is also support for mixing methods from a dialectical perspective. Greene and Caracelli (1997) explain that this "synergistic approach" is generative of new insights through the tensions and inconsistencies that are expected to emerge from the use of pluralistic methods. Indeed, support for mixing qualitative and quantitative methods in general, and for combining focus groups with surveys in particular, is echoed by many (Creswell, 2003; Krueger & Casey, 1990; Morgan, 1996). Even Campbell, who is most well known for his argument for the use of quasi-experimental designs in the social sciences, noted that "qualitative knowing is absolutely essential as a prerequisite for foundation for quantification in any science" (Campbell, 1984, p. 34). Finally, the advantages of a multiple method study are convincingly summarized by Greene and Caracelli: "Compared with knowledge claims produced in a single-method study, [a] multiplistic, mixed-method set of knowledge claims is likely to be more pragmatically relevant and useful, and more dialectically insightful and generative, even if accompanied by unresolved tensions" (1997, p.13).

House (1994) explains that although an interest in counteracting the shortcomings of one method with the strength of another is an important reason to pursue a mixed-method design, adopting a mix method design does not excuse the researcher from making explicit her own ontological and epistemological assumptions. Furthermore, because "research is an interactive process shaped by [the researcher's] personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 3), it is important to include in any discussion of research design the assumptions and role of the researcher. Feminist scholars add that a researcher's

52

positionality, that is, her social and political position *vis-à-vis* her subject matter and respondents, can have a significant impact on her research and thus should be addressed (see Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2007). It is to this topic that I now turn.

Researcher Assumptions, Role and Positionality

I am a professional, college-educated, straight Caucasian woman who has worked in the field of violence against women for 19 years. During this time, I have worked directly with hundreds of victims of sexual assault, domestic violence, and/or stalking. I have also worked on policy at the level of the state and the university to address such crimes. Currently I hold the position of Project Director and Principal Investigator for the University of Minnesota's $1.6 million award from the Department of Justice to implement programming under the auspices of the *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on the College Campus*. In this role I have met other project directors from all over the country and have personal friendships with some of them. I have held this position for ten years and thus have developed my own assumptions and opinions about the success of programming funded by this grant. Three assumptions based on my experience in this role are: 1) Assessing the success of direct services is challenging; 2) Programs vary widely in the extent to which formal evaluations are conducted; and 3) Program staff members hold important insights about success and how to measure it.

I am aware of the privileged position that that this position affords to me, including access to people whom I might not otherwise have been able to reach for the purposes of this study. I am also aware that the 19 years I have spent working in the movement to reduce violence against women will color my interpretation of what I experience during this study on the effectiveness of anti-violence programs. My choice of research topic and methods reflects a conscious decision neither to study victims directly nor to employ an empowerment approach that invites the voices of victims into my current research. My focus on the effectiveness of current

53

programming for victims is based on my belief, rooted in my experience, that direct support services for victims can have a positive effect on many of those who use them and that such services are necessary in a socio-political climate that continues to hold victims of these crimes responsible for the crimes against them. This being said, I recognize that many who work in the field of violence against women are survivors of violence themselves.

I approached this research without a complete commitment to any one research paradigm. Greene and Caracelli (1997, p. 9) remind us that paradigms themselves are social constructions of ideal types "that contrast opposing ends of what are actually methodological continua, for example, objectivity-subjectivity." Patton (2002) echoes this sentiment, rejecting the list of dichotomies that have characterized the "paradigm wars" such as relativism vs. truth, research vs. praxis, and quantitative vs. qualitative. I concur with these scholars, situating myself on the continuum in a place that is nearer to constructivism and critical theory than to structuralism or positivism, but in a place with permeable and expandable boundaries, thus allowing for the use of reasoning, insight, and methods from various schools of thought.

Stake (1995) notes that the researcher can take on various roles including that of teacher, advocate, evaluator, biographer, or interpreter. In this study I viewed my role as that of an interpreter, that is, one who "studies a problem or puzzle with the intent to connect it to known things, to find new connections and make them comprehensible to others" (Stake, 1995, p. 97). I believe this role is compatible with the assumptions and role described above because it acknowledges both the experience I bring to this study as well as the challenge of the project to a person who has spent much more time as a manager, trainer, and advocate than in any type of researcher role.

54

Considerations of a Mixed Methods Design

The purpose of this three-phase sequential mixed methods study was to obtain both qualitative and quantitative information about the assessment of success and the state and use of evaluation by programs that have received funding under the auspices of the *Grants to Reduce Violence against Women on Campus*. When using a mixed method design, it is important to explicate the sequence of the implementation, the priority given to the methods and information gained, the timing of the integration of the data, and whether the theoretical perspective is implicit or explicit (Creswell, 2003; Greene, 2008). Table 2 shows the decision choices that must be made within a mixed-methods research design.

I conducted this study in three sequential phases, beginning with document review, moving to focus groups and a brief follow-up, and concluding with the administration of a survey. Although not done concurrently, the phases of data collection were not entirely separate as each built upon the other, and analysis was practiced by moving back and forth among the results of each phase. Neither the qualitative nor the quantitative methods took precedence, thus, there was an "equal" priority between both methods. The data were integrated during both interpretation and analysis, although it should be noted that the qualitative results were used to inform the data collection instrument for the quantitative phase. This research design followed the "sequential exploratory study" explicated by Creswell (2003) and others (Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991). Such a design fits the research questions of this study because "the primary focus of this model is to explore a phenomenon" (Creswell, 2003, p. 215). This research sought to explore the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs and to understand how such programs define success relative to their various stakeholders. These questions and the programs they investigate are complex and yet unexamined, thus an exploratory study that uses multiple and triangulating methods was the best way to approach the subject.

55

A sequential exploratory study can be used with or without an explicit guiding theoretical framework (Creswell, 2003). This research drew from models of evaluation use, but it did not subscribe to a single theory to guide it in question creation, data collection and interpretation, and analysis. That being said, the assumptions of the researcher (discussed in the previous section) and context of the subject portended a need for an explicit lens that served not so much as a bracket for the research - delineating that which should be excluded as insignificant - but rather as a string tied around the researcher's finger to remind her of the social, political, and historical context in which the research takes place.

**Table 2: Decision Choices for Determining a Mixed Methods Strategy of Inquiry.
Creswell (2003, p. 211)**

Implementation	Priority	Integration	Theoretical Perspective
No sequence-Concurrent	Equal	At data collection	Explicit
		At data analysis	
Sequential-Qualitative first	Qualitative	At data interpretation	Implicit
Sequential-Quantitative first	Quantitative	With some combination	

A Feminist Perspective

The first safe houses for abused women and the earliest rape crisis centers for survivors of sexual violence grew out of grassroots feminist efforts to find ways to address the problems of domestic abuse and rape (Bevacqua, 2000; Campbell & Yancey-Martin, 2001; Riger et al., 2002). Federal funding for such programs was secured only after significant work by women's groups to make public these issues that were previously considered private matters (Bevacqua, 2000; Campbell & Yancey- Martin, 2001; Riger et al., 2002; Ward, 2002). The complexity of evaluating services for survivors of rape and IPV is well documented (Campbell, 1999; Edleson

& Bible, 2001; Riger et al., 2002; Zweig, & Burt, 2002). Due to the history and complexity of the issues addressed in this study, two special considerations were warranted. First, care was taken to study evaluation impact from a feminist perspective. Such a perspective is not prescriptive, but rather requires that research includes the voices and perspectives of women (Harding, 1991; Renzetti, 1997; Ward, 2002). Indeed, "[o]ne of the primary tools of the oppression of women is the maintenance of silence about their experiences and perspectives" (Tolman & Szalacha, 1999, p. 13). Second, this study included as a part of its analysis a consideration of the extent to which evaluations of campus-based anti-violence advocacy and education programs have themselves reflected a feminist approach.

A feminist lens can be used within any research paradigm (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2007), and mixed- methods approaches have been recognized as appropriate for understanding the lives of women from a feminist perspective (Leckenby & Hesse-Biber, 2007; Sprague & Zimmerman, 2004). Leckenby and Hesse-Biber (2007, p. 276) write that "reasons to break down and avoid the false dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative methods include feminist disciplinary goals that aim to avoid hierarchies and unearned privileging of quantitative methodologies." It should be noted that although some feminist scholars argue that quantitative methods have no place in feminist research, others are committed to the value of well-conducted quantitative research to the goal of social change, especially in the policy arena (Miner-Rubino & Jayaratne, 2007).

In this mixed-methods study, I used a feminist lens in several phases of the research. First, the selection of research topic recognized the significant problem of violence against women on college campuses. Second, the previous statement of positionality reflected an acknowledgment that my social and political position as a researcher had an impact on the knowledge gained through this research. Third, as women comprise the large majority of staff at campus-based violence-prevention and intervention programs, the voices of women informed

57

both the qualitative and quantitative phases of this research. Fourth, using focus groups to inform the content and language of the survey instrument adhered to the feminist practice of using the language of those whom you study (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2007; Miner-Rubino & Jayaratne, 2007). Fifth, the analysis and interpretation of data were conducted in such a matter as to question how the methods of data collection may have affected the results obtained. Finally, despite the differences among researchers who use a feminist approach, one commonality is a commitment to social change. This research and my long-term research agenda fit within such a framework. The programs I studied work for social change and my goal was to understand how they knew when they had been successful.

Methods

This mixed methods sequential exploratory study included three phases of data collection: document review, focus groups, and an on-line survey. Each of these phases is described in detail following a discussion of the population used in this study.

Population

The population for this research was the collection of post-secondary schools that were funded by the federal government's *Grants to Reduce Violent Crimes Against Women on Campus* during the 2008 calendar year. Currently, there is no exhaustive list of universities that have on-campus violence prevention and intervention programs. Using the population of grant recipients in this research study made sense for several reasons. First, each of the funded schools had at least a minimum number of programs in common due to grant requirements that include, for example, the education of incoming students, the provision of direct services for survivors, a coordinated community response to violence, training for police officers, and training for judicial officers and hearing boards. These commonalities allowed data collection efforts to focus on what was known to be occurring on the campus regarding anti-violence programs. Second, since 2001,

58

each school has been required to submit semi-annual progress reports under the auspices of the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative[4]. This shared requirement forms the foundation on which to inquire about how participation in these data collection and "effectiveness" processes have shaped how program participants deliver services, create curriculum, and/or think about their programs. In other words, the concept of process use, discussed in Chapter 2, was able to be applied to the schools in this study because of the requirement for schools to participate in these data collection efforts. Third, the federal government was required by statute to fund a set of schools that was diverse in terms of geography, size, public vs. private, and school type (for example, historically Black colleges, colleges on Native American lands). Thus, the population of grantees had several programming elements in common while also being very diverse across colleges. Such a group provided an ideal population for an exploratory study because it guaranteed the programs had several common elements and at the same time ensured a variety of represented institutions.

Phase 1: Document Review

The first phase of this study was a review of documents related to the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative (VAWAMEI). Document review, in combination with other data collection methods, is a recognized practice of data source triangulation in qualitative research (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Stake, 1995). With regard to the grantees that make up the population for this study, VAWAMEI began in 2001 when all schools were mandated to participate in a data collection system and submit semi-annual progress reports containing the required data to the contracted evaluator. That evaluator, The Muskie School of Public Service at the University of Southern Maine, used the data as the basis for reports made to the funder and Congress. According to the Muskie School's website:

---

[4] Prior to this requirement, each recipient was mandated to perform or contract for its own evaluations of programming.

The work…consists of a multi-method, multi-source data collection strategy to measure

the effectiveness of VAWA grants administered by the Office on Violence Against

Women (OVW). Current data collection methods include reporting forms submitted by

all grantees, semi-annually or annually, analysis of that and site visits to states or

territories…Data submitted by grantees…will be disseminated in various ways, including

OVW's Reports to Congress; information provided to OVW and Congressional members

on an as-needed basis; and reports made available to grantees and the public on our

website[5].

The document review for this study included a review of all of the reports submitted by

the Muskie School to OVW. There were three primary reasons for such a review. First, a review

of these documents informed the language and content of the subsequent focus groups and

survey. Second, the review provided a landscape on which to build an understanding of what

campus-based anti-violence programs are doing in terms of programming. The final reason for a

review of these documents was a commitment to triangulating the data sources. Denzin and

Lincoln (1994) explain that "the use of multimethods or triangulation reflects an attempt to secure

an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question" (p. 2). Furthermore, the use of

primary documents to triangulate data from other sources can improve the validity of a study that

includes qualitative inquiry (Creswell & Miller, 2000), as is discussed in greater detail below.

Phase 2: Focus Groups

The goal of qualitative research is to gain an in-depth understanding of purposively

selected participants from their perspective (Patten, 2005). Krueger and Casey (1990, p. 10) note

that focus groups can assist in reaching this goal based on their five characteristic features: "a)

they involve people, b) who possess certain characteristics, c) and provide qualitative data, d) in a

---

[5] Retrieved from www. muskie.usm.maine.edu/vawamei/aboutus.htm on April 2, 2008.

focused discussion, e) to help understand the topic of interest." Focus groups are designed to promote self disclosure among individuals and create a dynamic interaction between individuals (Hollander, 2004; Krueger & Casey, 1990). The use of focus groups as a method of data collection allowed for a multiplicity of voices from campus-based anti-violence programs around the country to speak to the research questions of this study.

According to Krueger and Casey (1990, p. 24), focus groups are an ideal method of data collection when:

1) The researcher is looking for a range of ideas or feelings that people have about something;

2) The purpose is to uncover factors that influence opinions, behavior, or motivation;

3) The researcher wants ideas to emerge from the group;

4) The researcher needs information to inform a large-scale quantitative study.

Each of these reasons resonated with the purpose of the present study. Focus groups enabled the exploration of the state of evaluation and meaning of success among campus-based anti-violence programs in a naturalistic environment where participants were able to build off of one another's expressed thoughts and provide a range of ideas about how to conceptualize and evaluate the success of violence prevention and intervention programming. The groups also informed the language, content, and administration of the survey conducted in *Phase 3* of this research. The hope in undertaking this method was that each focus group would fulfill the promise to possess "the capacity to become more than the sum of its parts, to exhibit a synergy that individuals alone don't possess" (Krueger & Casey, 1990, p. 24).

There are several advantages to using focus groups as a method of qualitative data collection (Hollander, 2004; Krueger & Casey, 1990; Morgan, 1996). In a review of the focus group literature, Hollander (2004) finds that focus groups reduce experimental demand because

the researcher can fade into the background and let the participants control the discussion and that they elicit stories and in-depth explanations of people's thoughts and experiences. Hollander (2004) also explains that focus groups are high in external validity because they mirror the kinds of conversations that people may have in their everyday lives, an argument that is echoed by Morgan (1996) and Krueger and Casey (1990). Finally, "Feminist researchers have noted the appeal of focus groups because they allow participants to exercise a fair degree of control over their own interactions" (Morgan, 1996, p. 133).

Despite these advantages, focus groups are not without criticism. Hollander (2004) argues that the dynamics of focus groups can sometimes lead to two significant concerns that she terms *problematic silences* and *problematic speech*. "Problematic silences occur when participants do not share their relevant thoughts or experiences with the group. Problematic speech, in contrast, occurs when participants offer opinions or information that do not represent their underlying beliefs or experiences" (Hollander, 2004, p. 608). These issues are best addressed not by the claim that competent facilitation can render them unlikely (Morgan & Krueger, 1993) nor by the lamentation that such dynamics obscure the data, but rather by the realization that these dynamics are a part of the data (Hollander, 2004). The prescription is not an abandonment of the method, but rather a more nuanced approach to focus groups and the data they produce. Hollander suggests that researchers should report on the dynamic of the group, use a follow–up procedure to allow participants to extend and/or clarify their thoughts, and use triangulation to buttress their findings. Morgan (1996) concurs with the call for the use of a second data collection method with focus groups and suggests that in-depth interviews or surveys are the methods most commonly and successfully paired with focus groups. Morgan also makes an appeal for researchers to talk specifically about their research design when using focus groups.

This has not been a standard in the past when not much more than the statement that "focus groups were used" was accepted as an explanation of the method for data collection.

Although the primary purpose of the focus groups was to answer the research questions, the design of this study was structured according to the guidelines set forth by Morgan (1990, p. 147) with the secondary goal of contributing to knowledge about the specifics of focus group research. Morgan argues that any report of focus group research findings should include discussion of the following: 1) standardization of questions; 2) number and size of groups conducted; 3) group composition; 4) sampling strategy; 5) recruitment procedures; 6) summary of questions; 7) descriptions of moderator; 8) structure of group; and 9) ethics.

Thus, heeding this call for a more detailed approach to conducting and reporting on focus groups, this research employs member checks with focus group participants, includes reports on the dynamics of each focus group, and, by definition as a mixed- methods study, clarifies and contrasts the findings of the groups with findings from a population-wide survey. With the details of the method in mind, I discuss the design of the focus groups for this study in the following sections.

Focus Group Participants

Three focus groups were conducted on July 2 and July 3, 2008 in San Diego, CA. They were held during a conference sponsored by the U.S. Department of Justice/Office on Violence Against Women[6]. The conference was one of two technical training institutes held each year. This was an ideal place to hold the focus groups because each school that receives funding was required to send four representatives to the institutes. Thus, holding focus groups during a national conference gave me access to the population of this study and the opinions of people

---

[6] Although DOJ/OVW sponsored this conference, they are not sponsors of or in any way affiliated with this research. The event of the conference was used as a convenient way to access the population of this study in one place.

working in anti-violence programs from a variety of schools across the country. My goal was to have a group of participants who represented as diverse a group of grantee schools as possible. That being said, the participants themselves all had a required commonality – they work for a campus-based violence prevention program and they believe they have something to add to a discussion about the definition and evaluation of the success of direct service programs for survivors of violence and/ or educational programs for the campus community.

Focus Group Recruitment and Procedures

Standard operating procedure for the planning of the technical training institutes included an email sent by the technical assistance provider to the project directors of all participating schools approximately ten weeks before the conference that included a conference announcement and tentative agenda. With the approval of this study by the University of Minnesota's Institutional Review Board and the assistance of the technical assistance provider coordinating the conference, the planning email for the San Diego conference included an announcement of the opportunity to participate in a focus group and an explanation of the goals of the groups. This invitation to register for a group clearly stated that participation was voluntary (see *Appendix A*). Interested parties were instructed to contact me directly, and my email address was hyperlinked in the announcement. Schools were asked to limit their participation to one participant per university, but two schools were represented twice in the actual focus groups.

Two of the focus groups consisted of seven participants and one of them had eleven participants. Krueger and Casey (2000) recommend that focus groups consist of six to twelve, with an ideal of six to eight for non-market research. The group with eleven participants was outside of this ideal, but this group included one participant who missed the group she was assigned to but still wanted to participate, and one participant who did not pre-register but who

64

accompanied another staff member from her school who had registered to participate. In part due to my personal relationship with the grantees who attend these conferences, I chose to allow these two additional persons to participate, even though they tipped the total number of participants from nine to eleven. As is demonstrated in the discussion of focus group dynamics in the next section, the equality of participation and content of discussion in this larger group did not differ significantly from the other two groups.

   Focus group planning and procedure. Twenty-six people, representing twenty-four universities, responded with an interest in participating in the focus groups.[7] If the respondent expressed an interest in attending a specific group time, I assigned her to the group of her choice; otherwise, participants were randomly assigned to one of the three focus groups. Two weeks prior to the conference, each of the respondents received an email with a one-page summary of the purpose of the group and some primer questions for them to consider before participating. This email also included a link to a pre-focus group survey, which asked general demographic questions as well as some questions about participants' thoughts on the effectiveness of their program as well as their knowledge of current evaluation efforts. In addition to gathering information that would describe the focus group participants and inform some of the questions to be asked, the goal of this contact was to prepare group members for active and efficacious participation in the ninety-minute groups (see *Appendix B* for the pre-focus group survey). Although Krueger and Casey (2000) recommend groups that are two hours in length, they also note that focus groups must be planned within the constraints of context and structure. In this case, the timing of the focus groups had to mirror the conference workshop sessions, which were 1.5 hours in length. Participants also received an email reminder of the focus groups three days prior to the conference as well as a written reminder located within their conference registration

---

[7] The project directors from two schools specifically requested that both they and another staff member be able to participate, and I granted this request.

materials. With the exception of two people, all of those who registered to attend a focus group actually participated. Incentives to participate included: Participating in a project that may benefit their colleagues across the country, a chance to learn what other schools are doing, and recognition in the final report. A $5 gift-card to a nationally-franchised coffee house was given as a thank you to participants at the conclusion of each group.

In addition to the reminders and notices of research intent mentioned above, each of the groups received the identical pre-group introduction to set the tone and rules for the group. Once again, participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that their comments would be anonymous (see *Appendix C* for the focus group instructions). I moderated the groups and as I am a single author, I took only cursory notes which allowed for the notation of group dynamics (Hollander, 2004; Morgan 1996) and a summary of the group's ideas and themes near the close of the group (Hollander, 2004; Krueger & Casey, 2000). The groups were audio-taped, and a note taker was present as well to ensure that detailed notes would be available in the event of a technical malfunction of the recording equipment. I followed a semi-structured question format (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1996).

The level of standardization across groups – for example, of questions and procedures - is dependent on the goals of the research. In an exploratory study, it made sense to allow for some emergence of questions within each individual group and from one group to the next (Morgan, 1996). I thus used a set of core questions standardized from one group to the next while also allowing for the emergence of unique ideas from the discussion within each group (see *Appendix D* for focus group questions). The standardized questions allowed for cross-group comparisons, and the emergent ideas allowed for variation based on the verbalized interests of the group. I used a semi-structured moderation style that guided the discussion through question-asking and summarization of key points (Krueger, 1990; Morgan, 1996).

66

The focus groups were transcribed verbatim by a professional transcription service. To insure their accuracy, I read the transcripts while listening to the recording and made corrections. Transcripts were then sent to participants several weeks after the groups were conducted with an invitation to respond with any additional comments or clarifications. Such member checking is recommended to ensure the accuracy of the transcription and to solicit additional input from participants (Hollander, 2004; Morgan, 1996; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). None of the participants responded with clarifications or additions.

Focus Group Analysis

I began analysis of the focus group transcripts with seventy-three pages of single-spaced focus group content. I read the transcripts five times each and used an iterative process to create a preliminary coding scheme prior to uploading them into NVivo, a database program used for organizing the analysis of qualitative data. These manual read-throughs were also the starting point for making connections among the ideas within and between focus groups. This iterative process of analysis strengthens both the depth and the quality of the analysis in mixed method research (Greene, 2007). As Bazely (2007) notes, "Raw field notes and verbatim transcripts…need classification to make sense of them, to bring order out of chaos. Coding in qualitative research, in its simplest sense, is a way of classifying and then 'tagging' test with codes…in order to facilitate later retrieval" (p. 66). NVivo enables the researcher flexibility in coding and improves the capability to test connections and to recombine data. Coding data is a way to organize it by themes and threads, which is necessary to make sense of the text both within and across groups (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1996). In addition to uploading the transcripts of each focus group, I input my preliminary coding scheme (developed through my manual read-throughs) into NVivo and used it as a starting point for the computer-assisted analysis. Again, this process was iterative, as I moved between the focus groups and among the

67

participants and then back to the coding scheme in order to construct ideas, make connections and develop themes. NVivo allows the researcher to create *parent nodes*, which are main themes that develop from the text, as well as *child nodes*, which are essentially subgroups within a main theme. Text that contains various ideas can be coded in more than one node. The program enables the researcher to gather and query for all of the data that are coded under the same node.

Several scholars have made a call for the transparency of inquiry in qualitative research (Merriam, 1998; Morgan, 1996). Morgan (1996) and Hollander (2004) suggest that reporting on group dynamics adds context and authenticity to the research, and Huberman and Miles (1994) suggest the use of a data display to draw connections between the raw data and the results. NVivo assists the researcher in showing the distribution of participation within each focus group by creating a graph based on the percentage of words shared in a focus group attributable to each participant in the group. Figures 3, 4, and 5 display the coverage of words spoken in each focus group by participant[8]. Each of these graphs shows that while all members participated, the distribution of commentary was certainly not equal within the groups. Given the difference in background, personality, and knowledge of the group members, the unequal distribution of "speaking time" is not surprising. The most significant contribution of these graphs is their clear demonstration that the distribution of speaking time was relatively equal *between* the groups and that no participants were silenced *within* the groups.

---

[8] The names of the participants are changed to protect anonymity.
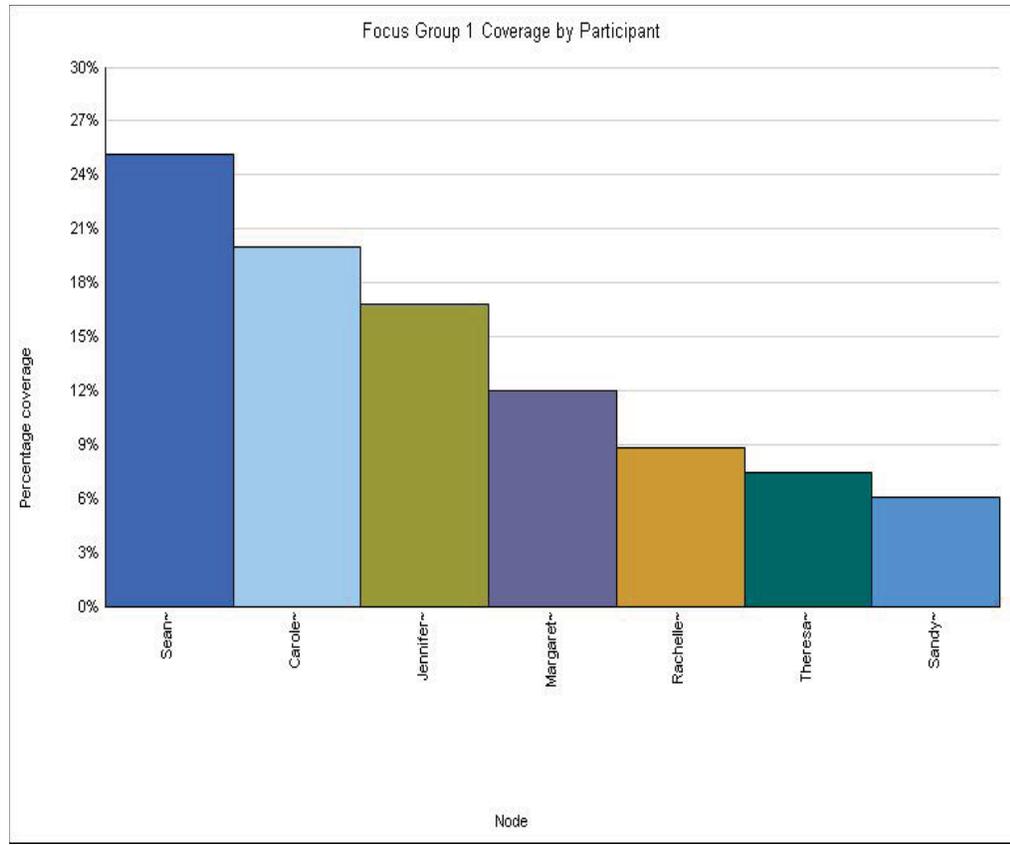
Figure 3: Distribution of Speaking Time, Focus Group 1

The equality of speaking time distribution between groups suggests that, at least according to speaking time, the dynamics of the groups were relatively the same. None of the groups had a single dominant participant, nor a constant dialogue between two members silencing the rest of the group. In each group there was a handful of participants who shared more than the others and a remainder of participants who spoke up when they had something to add. Not shown in these graphs is the fact that the groups were congenial and there was a significant amount of head nodding and "mmm-hmms" during the conversation. These indications of agreement are not shown anywhere in the transcript or the data display, but they were recorded by both the moderator and the note taker and were taken into account in the writing of the results of the focus groups.
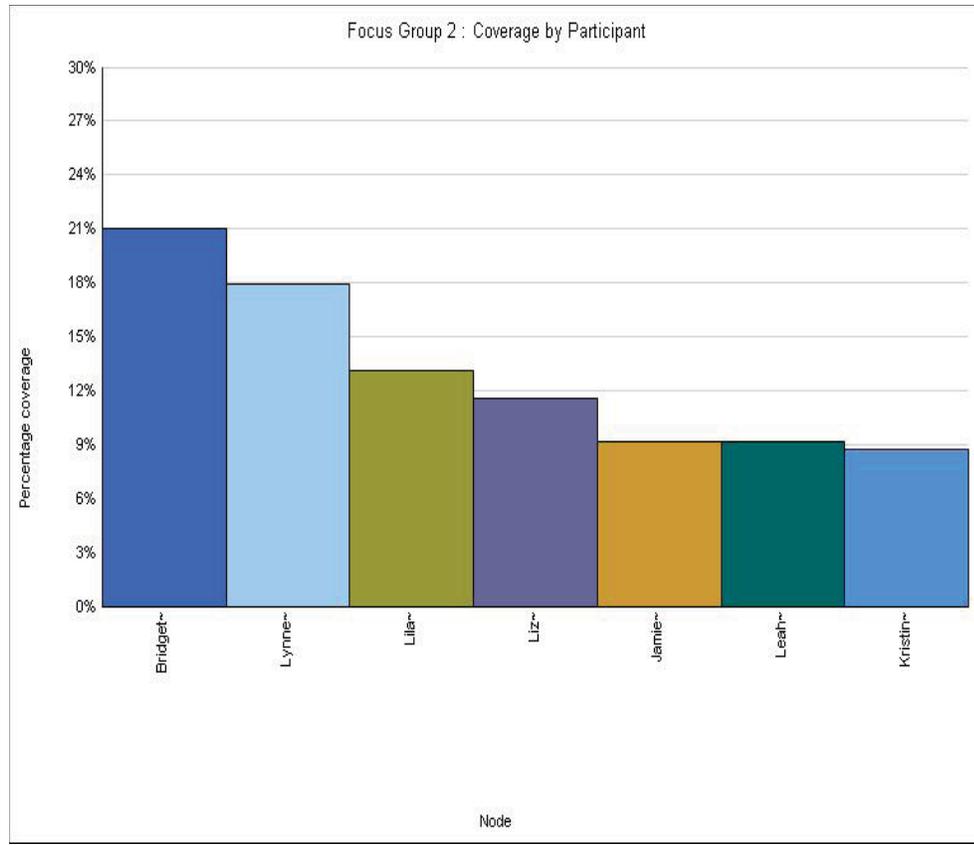
Figure 4: Distribution of Speaking Time, Focus Group 2

The facts that each person spoke several times within each of the groups and that none of the participants had anything to add during the member checks suggests the challenge of problematic silences (Hollader, 2004), as described above, was at least somewhat overcome in these focus groups. The relative equal position of power of the group members may have added to the congeniality of the groups and the willingness of all members to participate. All participants were either project directors or assigned by their project director to represent the university in the focus groups. The one exception was the unregistered participant who accompanied someone else from her university to the group as described above.

70
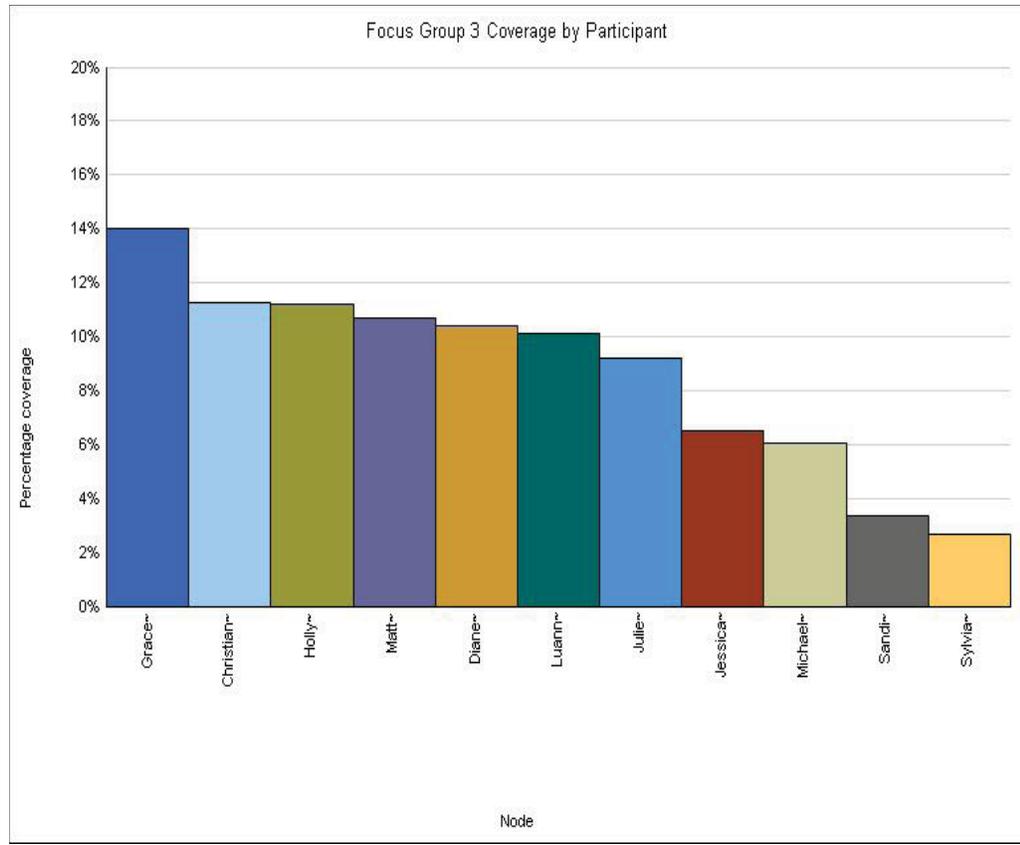
Figure 5: Distribution of Speaking Time, Focus Group 3

After using the iterative process described above to code for themes and connections, in which I determined classifications, returned to the literature, consulted the notations regarding group dynamics, and made changes according to emerging ideas, I began to write my results sections. This method of "constant comparison" and "multiple iterations" is recommended by Merriam (1998) to increase the reliability of qualitative data analysis. Not surprisingly, the writing of my results required me to go back to the data several times to re-work connections and clarify themes. I used the language and the findings of the focus groups to inform the third phase of my research, a population-wide survey, which is discussed below.

Phase 3: Survey

"A survey is a system for collecting information to describe, compare, or explain

knowledge, attitudes and behavior" (Fink, 1995, p. 1). Surveys are a comparatively economical

and efficient means of collecting data from a large number of respondents in a short period of

time (Creswell, 2003). There is general consensus among those who support mixed-method

research that a survey is an appropriate data collection tool to partner with focus groups when

using a mixed method research design (Creswell, 2003; Greene, 2007; Tashakori & Teddlie,

1998). A survey made sense in this exploratory study because it allowed for an expansion of the

insights gained through the focus groups and the establishment of a baseline understanding of the

current state of evaluation at campus based anti-violence programs. Fowler (1993) argues that the

principal considerations in designing a survey are question design, respondent sample, and mode

of data collection. Each of these issues is discussed below in the explanation of how the survey

method was used for this study.

Survey population

The survey was administered in January 2009, six months after the focus groups were

conducted. I used SurveyMonkey to create a web-based, self-administered survey. The survey

was sent to all project directors at schools that were funded in 2008 under the auspices of the

Grants to Reduce Violent Crimes Against Women on Campus (N=54[9]). The focus group

participants were included as potential respondents to the survey. This choice is discussed in

detail in Chapter 4. The letter that accompanied the survey instructed the project director to

forward the email containing the survey to someone else if the director was not the most

appropriate respondent. Following Dillman's (2007, 2000) tailored design method (discussed

---

[9] Although fifty-five schools were funded in 2008, my own university, where I serve as the project director
for this grant, was removed from the population for this study, resulting in N=54.

below), a total of five contacts were made with the population resulting in a return rate of 79.6 percent.

Survey development

In his seminal texts on survey design, Dillman (2000, 2007) argues that a social contract exists between the researcher and the subjects of her research and further that the response rate of a survey is increased to the extent that the participant feels (a) the survey is worthwhile, (b) his/her responses will be valued, and (c) there is a level of trust established by the researcher. Dillman (2007) recommends that the researcher employ the "tailored design method" in order to reduce measurement error and obtain the most meaningful results possible. Tailored design "is a set of procedures for conducting successful self-administered surveys that produce both high quality information and high response rates" (Dillman, 2007, p. 29). It is an approach to survey design and administration based on the theory of social exchange. According to Dillman:

> Social exchange is a theory of human behavior used to explain the development and continuation of human interaction. The theory asserts that the actions of individuals are motivated by the return these actions are expected to bring…Three elements are critical for predicting particular action: rewards, costs, and trust. Simply stated, rewards are what one expects to gain from a particular activity, costs are what one gives up or expends to obtain the rewards, and trust is the expectation that in the long run the rewards of doing something will outweigh the cost (2007, p. 14).

I designed and implemented the survey with the concepts of rewards, cost, and trust in mind. Rewards for taking the survey included the knowledge that the respondent was contributing to research that might benefit her own and other programs, the knowledge that the results of the research would be presented at a conference that she was likely to attend, and a charitable financial incentive (the donation of money to an international organization that works to prevent violence against women in war affected countries). The costs of taking this survey were the time and effort necessary to answer the questions. To address these costs, I designed the survey to be as brief and user-friendly as possible. Respondents were told in both the pre-survey letter and in

the letter accompanying the survey that it would take no more than fifteen minutes to fill out.

Questions were created to tap into pre-existing knowledge, and "think alouds" were used to test

the survey to increase its ease of use. The concept of trust was addressed through the incentive,

which included a $100 donation to the non-profit described above *before* any surveys were

answered and the promise to make an additional two dollar donation per completed survey[10].

Related to this, respondents were taken to the website of the nonprofit agency upon completion of

the survey. Trust was also pre-established with some of the respondents whom I know

professionally and/or who participated in a focus group. Finally, as is recommended by Dillman

(2007, 2000), none of the questions on the survey required an answer.

The goals of the tailored design method include reducing the error and increasing the

utility of the survey by designing meaningful questions, supplying accurate and interpretable

choices, and securing a high response rate. The questions and answer choices for this survey

were constructed based on the language and findings of the focus groups. This assured that the

survey asked questions that were meaningful to the respondents and supplied answers that would

resonate with them. The survey instrument and the letters of introduction were reviewed by my

advisor and tested through "think alouds" with four individuals, three of whom work for a

campus-based violence prevention program not included in this study and one who has no

connection to this field of work. Think alouds employ a small number of respondents to take the

survey with the researcher present and to speak (aloud) their thoughts as they read and answer the

survey questions. The researcher can then make necessary adjustments to the questions based on

the respondents' comments and questions. The think alouds, which are recommended in lieu of

pilot testing by Dillman (2007, 2000) and Rodriguez (2008), especially when the researcher

---

[10] In total, one-hundred and sixty-eight dollars were donated to the International Rescue Committee.

desires to gather information from as much of the population as possible, resulted in several changes to the content and layout of the survey.

The survey, which can be found in *Appendix E*, utilized "skip logic," which enabled respondents to automatically skip over portions of the survey depending on how they answered certain questions. For example, if a respondent answered "no" to a question inquiring whether or not their program provides services for survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, or stalking, they would automatically be taken to the next section of the survey on educational programming and automatically skip over all of the pages that include questions about services for survivors[11].

Although Dillman (2007) raises concerns about the capacity of computer resources required by web-based surveys and the level of computer-related sophistication required of the respondents, these did not pose challenges to my survey because all of the potential respondents are professionals working at universities where the capacity of a computer to run a web survey can be assumed. It should be noted, however, that the survey I administered did break with Dillman's (2007) principles in one significant way. Dillman recommends that "check all that apply boxes" never be used because they may contribute to measurement error due to the possibility of satisficing behavior on the part of the respondent. This means that a respondent may check only enough boxes to satisfy themselves that they have answered the question, rather than reading each response. Despite Dillman's warning, I used "check all that apply" boxes in two questions on my survey. The questions asked the respondent to indicate what kind of activities his university conducted with respect to either advocacy services or educational programming. A relatively brief list of likely activities (informed by the focus groups) was provided as well as an "other" text box, and the respondent was asked to check all that applied.

---

[11] This skip-logic functions on-line only and cannot be seen in a printed survey such as the one included in the appendix.

The purpose of the question was to facilitate the respondent's thinking about some of the activities his school conducts. If there was an activity that his school participated in, but he did not check it due to satisficing behavior, it would not significantly affect the results of the survey because these questions functioned as primers rather than as questions that addressed the focus of the inquiry. That being said, the "check all that apply" format was recommended for these questions during the think alouds because they are familiar, easy to answer, and quickly completed. Finally, none of those who tested the survey during the think alouds gave any indication that they would not read all of the possible responses to these questions.

Survey administration. The survey was introduced to the respondents through a postal letter that explained the purpose of the survey, gave notice of the date they would receive the survey link by email, and supplied information regarding the charitable financial incentive. It also explained that the survey was anonymous and that their participation was voluntary. Finally, because the population for this survey was a group of federal grantees and there is a non-profit financial beneficiary, the letter clearly stated that this research was not sponsored by or in any way affiliated with the granting office or the charitable organization to which the donation had been made. (See *Appendix F* for a copy of the postal letter).

An email with a link to the survey was sent to potential respondents one week after the postal letter was delivered. This email included a brief introduction to the survey and a reminder about the voluntary nature of the survey and the charitable financial incentive. It also included the password necessary to access the survey. A response rate of 48.1 percent was obtained with the initial email (see *Appendix G* for a copy of the email). Two weeks later, the first reminder was sent to those who had not responded. This reminder email contained both a link to the survey and the required password. A response rate of 68.5 percent was obtained with the first reminder (see *Appendix H* for a copy of the first reminder email text).

76

The fourth and fifth contacts were made nearly simultaneously. Ten days after sending the first reminder, I contacted people by phone alerting them that the final email reminder would be sent the next day. Dillman (2007) recommends that various modes of contact be used when possible and this survey employed postal letters, emails and phone calls. I also employed a technique suggested by Dillman (2007) wherein I explained that many of their colleagues had already completed the survey and informed them of the survey's closing date. A final response rate of 79.6 percent was obtained (see *Appendix I* for the text of the final email).

Analysis of the survey results included descriptive statistics such as frequencies, range, and cross tabulations. As the survey employed nominal and ordinal variables, no measures of central tendency were reported. Chapter 4 includes a presentation of the overall results as well as three comparisons of groups based on: 1) whether or they participated in a focus group; 2) the length of time the program had been in operation; and 3) the budget of the program.

Research Quality

In quantitative studies, the quality of research is most often judged by the concepts of validity and reliability. Validity addresses the question of the accuracy of the data in measuring that which it intends to measure, and reliability addresses the question of consistency of results (Fink, 1995; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). There are three primary types of validity in quantitative research: construct, criterion, and content. Messick (1995b) proposes a Unified Theory of Validity that is based on a comprehensive conceptualization of construct validity. According to Messick (1995a), construct validity, properly conceptualized, subsumes both criterion and content related validities. His comprehensive definition of construct validity is "an evaluative summary of both the evidence for and actual -as well as potential- consequences of score interpretation and use…[It] integrates considerations of content, criteria and consequences

77

into a construct framework for empirically testing rational hypotheses about score meaning and utility" (1995a, p. 742).

In qualitative studies, the concepts of validity and reliability are often replaced with notions of authenticity, trustworthiness, and credibility (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Greene, 2007; Patton, 2002). Techniques for assuring the "validity" of qualitative research include member checking, researcher credibility and reflexivity, chains of evidence, transparency of method, audit trails, and triangulation of sources (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Huberman & Miles, 1994; Patton, 2002). In terms of focus group research, Krueger and Casey (1993, p. 203) argue that "we are coming to the conclusion that validity is overemphasized in qualitative research. Instead, one should concentrate on good practice."

These varying views on how to judge the quality of a study stem from the differences in the epistemological bases of qualitative and quantitative research, and these differences are not easily reconciled in a mixed-methods study (Greene, 2007). Greene (2007) credits the work of Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) for informing her suggestion that the mixed-method researcher should approach this tension by addressing both the quality of the method and the quality of the inferences, interpretations, and conclusion made. The quality of the method is assessed by "using the criteria and procedures of the tradition in which the method is being implemented" (Greene, 2007, p. 166). The quality of inferences made is warranted by adopting "a multiplistic stance" that includes making inferences based on data from sources across paradigms and considering the persuasive value of the data (in addition to its validity, however defined). Such a procedure is used to realize a better understanding of the phenomenon in question, which is the promise of mixed methods deigns (Greene, 2007, p. 167). I used the suggestions for judging the quality of inferences made by Greene (2007) during the analysis and interpretation stages of this research.

78

The procedures used to warrant the quality of the methods used in this research study are summarized in *Table 3*.

Quality of qualitative research

This study included several steps that were taken to assure the quality of the focus groups. First, as the researcher, I have been clear about my assumptions, experiences and assumed role, as well as my qualifications to undertake a study of this sort (reflexivity and credibility). Patton (2002, p. 566) advises that "the principle is to report any personal and professional information that may have affected data collection, analysis and interpretation…" Second, the sharing of focus group transcripts with participants assured that they had the opportunity to reflect on their own participation. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 314) call member checking "the most crucial technique for establishing credibility." Third, I carefully tracked and organized all data sources, which enabled a transparent research process. Fourth, the analysis of the focus group data was conducted prior to conducting the survey, to inform its construction, as well as after the survey, to confirm or disconfirm themes that arise from the survey findings. Finally, the focus group questions were informed by both the literature review and the review of documents described earlier in this chapter.

Table 3: Procedures Used to Ensure Quality of Research

Qualitative Inquiry: Focus Groups	Quantitative Analysis: Survey
Researcher reflexivity and credibility	Content, concepts and language informed by focus groups
Member-checking with participants	Content, concepts and language informed by literature
Chain or evidence/audit trail	Content, concepts and language informed by document review
Iterative analysis	Think alouds to address construct validity
Questions informed by literature review	Use of "tailored design method" (Dillman, 2008) to assure high response rate/ representativeness
Questions informed by document analysis	Expert review of questions, content, and format

Quality of quantitative research

One way to increase the validity of quantitative measures is to construct them with information gained from qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 2003). The sequential design of this research study employed such a procedure by using concepts and themes that emerged from focus groups to inform the survey instrument. The survey instrument was also informed by the literature review. Construct validity was addressed through the use of "think alouds," described above. Finally, the survey instrument was reviewed by my dissertation advisor.

In addition to these within-paradigm procedures, this study benefited from the natural triangulation of methods that occurs with a mixed-methods design. "Triangulation is a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Because I view contextualization and standardization as continuous rather than dichotomous variables (Patton, 2002) and because I recognize paradigms as social constructs (Greene & Caracelli, 1997), the findings of my research do not necessarily fit neatly into either the traditional qualitative or quantitative epistemologies. It is the case, however, that the knowledge claims were informed by the persuasiveness of the data, regardless of the source, and were tempered by the limitations of this study, described below.

Research Limitations

The findings of study are limited by several considerations. First, the population of this study, N=54, is small. Although the focus groups included participants from 44 percent of the population of the universities represented in the study (a respectable population representation for focus groups), and the response rate to the survey was quite high (79.6 percent), the small population size itself limits the generalizability of the findings. Second, the population of this study was specialized. That is, all of the member institutions were funded by the same federal

grant that included requirements for programming by which all schools had to abide. Thus although the universities were quite varied, the funded programs that are the subject of this research were in some ways quite similar. It may be the case the campus-based programs that are not funded by the Grants to Reduce Violent Crimes against Women on Campus have different definitions of success and different experiences with evaluation than the programs in this study.

This population was also required by the grant to attend conferences and participate in webinars that have included a significant amount of information on primary prevention. It is probable that the population in this study is more informed about this best-practices research than are campus-based programs that are not funded by this program as well as community-based agencies that may not have immediate access to academic journals. This population also had funding that included stipulations of attending to some minimum program requirements, but there were not requirements for evaluation. Thus, this population may have been less attentive to evaluation because their funding was not tied to outcomes, and such a fact may make the population even more distinct. These unique features of the population limit the meaning of the quantitative results of this study.

A third limitation was that this mixed-method design included some members of the population (n=14) in both the focus groups and the survey. This choice and its consequences are explained in detail in Chapter 4, and results for the focus group participants are presented separately from results for the non-members. Despite this explanation and the separate analysis, this overlap of research subjects limits the findings of the survey because focus group participants may display an intervention effect, responding differently to the survey because of their prior participation in the focus groups.

Fourth, this research allowed survey respondents to self-define terms such as "evaluate" and "measurement." The findings of this study reflect the probability that some respondents used

81

these terms very loosely. For example, some staff members said that they measured the incidence of violence against women on campus, but in their reports of how such measurement was accomplished they did not report methods that would allow for an accounting of such incidence. Thus, this research was limited by the different levels of knowledge of the survey respondents regarding terms related to evaluation. A fifth limitation to this research was that it did not take into account responses as they varied by personal demographic variables such as race, ethnicity, SES, or gender[12]. These variables may have important implications for how an individual may define and access program success. However, due to the nature of an exploratory study and to the small population size, an analysis based on these factors was not included in this study. It is also the case that although individuals shared their voices and opinions in the focus groups, the unit of analysis for the survey was the school itself, and as such there was diversity across the population.

Finally, this research was limited by the positionality of its author. Because I am directly connected to a campus anti-violence program, my experience has no doubt colored my interpretation of the findings. To address this limitation, I attempted to make my analysis as transparent as possible.

Given these limitations, the results and discussion in the following chapters should be understood for what they are: findings from an exploratory study with a small, somewhat specialized population. The qualitative data were gathered over a period of only two days, and thus represent a snapshot of people's perceptions of their experience. The quantitative data were drawn from the entire population and were based on nominal or ordinal categories, and cannot be

---

[12] Twenty-four of twenty-six focus group participants were female and fifty-one of the fifty-four project directors who received the survey were female. These populations do not allow for an analysis based on gender.

subjected to the rigor of inferential statistics nor analyzed with tools beyond descriptive statistics.

With these limitations in mind, Chapter 4 presents the results of this research.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

In this section I briefly review the focus group format and report on the pre-focus group survey. I then present the results of the focus groups. In the discussion of results, I identify six themes that emerged from the focus groups: 1) program goals and the definition and measurement of success for their victim services programs, including the expectations of university administrators; 2) the goals and definition and measurement of success for educational programming, again, including the expectations of university administrators; 3) the participants' plans for evaluation in the future; 4) the use of published evaluation reports to inform local decision making; 5) the conceptual and practical overlap between providing services for victims and educating the university community; 6) the results as they relate to the political context of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs; and 7) the participants' thoughts on and use of the mandatory progress reports they complete for their federal funder under the auspices of the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative. Following this discussion of focus group findings, I present the results of the self-administered survey.

Focus Groups

I conducted three focus groups with a total of twenty-six participants on July 2 and 3, 2008. There were twenty-six participants representing twenty-three schools, a little less than half of the population of this study. The groups were held during a conference in San Diego, California, which all project directors of campus-based programs funded by the Department of Justice were required to attend. The focus groups were not sponsored by or in any way affiliated with the U.S. Department of Justice. Each was ninety minutes in length. Based on the results of a

survey sent to participants two weeks prior to the focus groups[13], two-thirds of the participants

(67 percent) had been working in the field of violence against women prevention and intervention

for more than five years, with nearly half of them (48 percent) working in the field for nine years

or more. Generally speaking there was less experience at the university than in the field, with

fifty-seven percent of participants having five years or less of experience at the institution and

forty-three percent reporting more than five years of experience. *Figure 7* shows the percentage

of focus group participants who had experience in the field and in their current jobs according to

number of years worked in each.
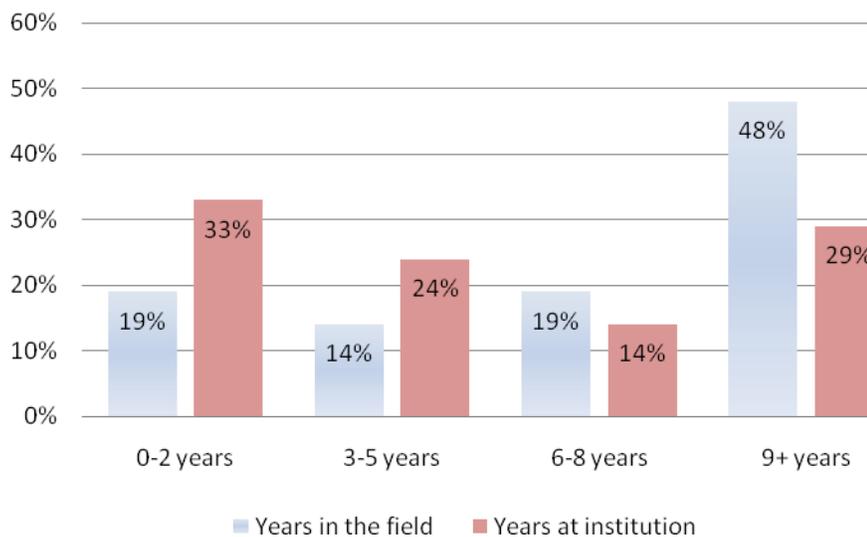
Figure 6. Experience of focus group participants: Years in the field and years at institution

The schools that were represented by these staff members included a variety of types of

institutions, including public research universities, public state schools, technical schools, private

religiously-affiliated schools, Ivy League schools, and schools on tribal lands. The enrollment of

---

[13] Eighty-one percent of the focus group participants completed the pre-focus group survey. The participants who filled out the survey represent eighty-seven percent of the institutions that were represented in the focus group. Two schools had more than one person attend the focus groups, and only two institutions had participants in the focus groups but did not participate in the survey.

the institutions represented ranged from 1,675 to 46,000 students. *Table 4* details the institutional

enrollment reported by focus group participants.

Table 4: Enrollment of Schools Represented in Focus Groups (N=20)

Approximate number of students	Number of Schools	Percent of Total
> 5,000	5	25%
5,000 -10,000	7	35%
10,001-20,000	4	20%
20,001 -30,000	2	10%
>30,000	2	10%

A large majority (eighty percent) of the campus-based violence intervention and

prevention programs reported that they received most of their funding from the federal

government. All of the schools that responded to the survey reported that at least half of their

funding came from the federal government. Eighty-five percent of the programs reported

operating budgets of $75,000-$150,000 per year, while fifteen percent had annual budgets of

over $200,000.

The participants reported a range in the number of years the campus-based violence

prevention programs had been in existence. Twenty-nine percent reported that their program had

been established for more than five years, while another twenty-nine percent said that their

programs had existed for more than three but fewer than five years. One third of programs (33

percent) were more than one but fewer than three years old, and ten percent of programs were

very new, having been in existence for fewer than a year at the time of the focus groups. *Table 5*

shows the length of time the programs had been operational at the various institutions represented

in the focus groups.

86

Table 5. Length of Time Programs Had Been Operational (n=20)

Tenure	Number of schools	Percent of total
Less than one year	2	10%
More than one year, but less than three	7	33%
More than three years, but less than five	6	29%
Five or more years	6	29%

Four questions that were unrelated to the demographics of the participants or the institutions they represented were included in the survey sent to participants prior to the focus groups. Rather, these four questions asked about whether or not the programs at which participants were employed evaluated their victim services programs and their educational programs (one question each) and also asked how certain participants were about the effectiveness of their victim services and educational programming. Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the results of this question, contrasting the percent of participants who reported that programs are evaluated (or not) with the degree of certainty that participants reported that their respective programs were effective.
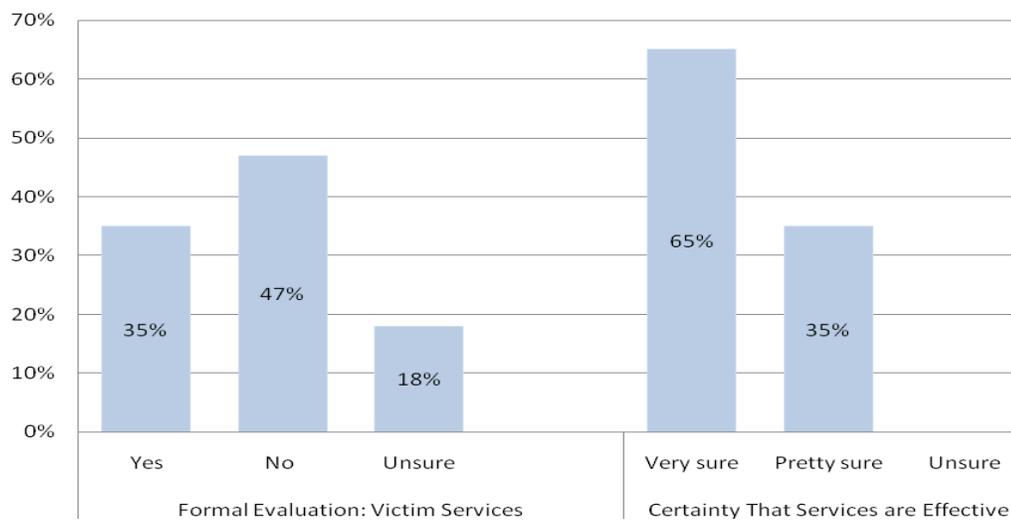
Figure 7. Evaluation effort vs. certainty of effectiveness: Victim services

Figure 7 demonstrates that although two-thirds (65 percent) of the focus group participants reported either that they did not evaluate or that they did not know whether or not

there was evaluation of their victim services program, all of the participants stated that they were "very sure" or "pretty sure" that their services were effective. Indeed, sixty-five percent of the respondents indicated that they were "very sure" their program was effective, and thirty-five percent indicated that they were "pretty sure" that their services were effective. With regard to educational programming, Figure 8 shows that 42 percent of participants reported either that they did not evaluate or that they did not know whether or not there was evaluation of their educational programming, yet 95 percent of the participants stated that they were "very sure" or "pretty sure" that their programming was effective.
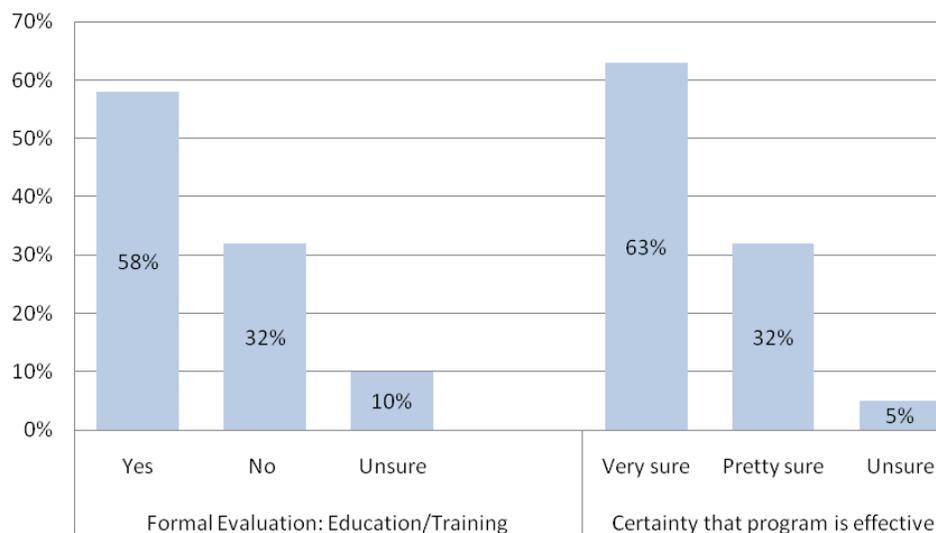
Figure 8. Evaluation effort vs. certainty of effectiveness: Educational

Focus Group Themes

Program Goals and the Definition and Measurement of Success: Victim Services

Many of the goals at campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs mirrored the goals of similar agencies in the community. The first victim-services related goal identified by the groups was supporting and fulfilling the needs of survivors. Consider the

following statements, each from a participant of a different focus group. These statements reflect

the importance of giving support and information to a survivor, depending on her needs.

> I want to empower the survivors to take charge of their life and to move forward with their life. That's one of the main things. I want to be able to see them look at themselves as survivors rather than as a victim and be able to say, you know, "This is something that shouldn't have happen to me. It wasn't my fault." And they are able to take charge and finish up what they're doing and move forward in their life. (*Participant, FG1*)

> I would say that our first goal is to stabilize the situation and the next goal would be, similarly but slightly differently, to educate and empower every survivor in terms of explaining that there are all different pathways, and to clearly articulate what each advantage is and disadvantage is of those various pathways so that every survivor can make the best informed choice for herself or himself. The third part would be to match the best resources to that survivor's needs to help them navigate through whichever pathway they choose to go to. (*Participant, FG2*)

> I think from a victim point of view one of our biggest goals is to provide a place for them to feel comfortable that they can come and unload and they can come and report without feeling like they have to go further if they don't want to. Get the services they need and be available for them. (*Participant, FG3*)

In addition to the idea of victim support, these statements also reflected what many

participants shared: that their goals included informing victims of their options and allowing

victims to make their own choices; the staff members consistently reported that they focused on

the individual needs of each person they served. When one participant seemed to boil it down to

something very basic, there were several nodding heads in the group:

> I think if I had to articulate our goals, the first would be to do no harm, to not re-victimize, and the second would be to provide whatever resources are needed to assist that person in succeeding in whatever way they identify that… I guess for me the number one goal, if I had to name just one, would be to do no harm. To not harm them further.

A second goal that emerged as a theme from each group was "systems advocacy."

Participants explained that survivors often needed help navigating the various systems that they

might encounter such as the state's criminal justice system or the university's student judicial

affairs system. In each of the focus groups the challenge of these systems to survivors was

discussed, and the role of victim-services programs as advocates for survivors in these systems

was affirmed. Each of the following statements speaks to these ideas, and each is drawn from a

different focus group.

> I think that one of the goals was sort of transforming our judicial system so that it was - I don't even want to say more victim-friendly - I'd like to say less victim- adverse. (*Participant, FG1)*

> Making sure they know what their rights are and what their resources are. Our program provides a lot of advocacy because victims are not treated well. So helping them navigate all the systems within the campus and in the community. (*Participant, FG2*)

> I think this has really been said by someone, but I just want to say it again, is we really advocate for survivors of violence. We are very fierce about advocating for the survivor, so I just want to stress that. And people get upset with us, they really get upset with us and they don't often want to hear it, you know. (*Participant, FG3*)

> Third, it was common in the groups for program staff members to identify retention of

survivors as students as one of their principal goals. By definition, student survivors have a

relationship with the institution that houses, and most often times funds, the program. The

complex political environment in which these programs function is discussed below. Suffice it to

say here that there is an expectation by the administration at many of the universities represented

in the focus groups that a victim-services program will work to retain the students whom it

assists. Retention was discussed as a goal in two of the three focus groups.

> One of the huge things on our campus now is retention. Retention, retention, retention. So this is one way and I know that when we've come to administration in the past saying, "Look this is one way,..This is what we're doing to retain students." (*Participant, FG1*)

> I would have to agree that retention is a major issue and beyond that not just keeping them there but actually graduating them, then sending them away...That's become a real focus is how can we show that we're working to fit in and we're working to do our part for the university mission which is obviously get them in, get them educated, get them out of there, get them out on their way. So that is a big thing for us. (*Participant, FG3*)

It should be noted that one participant in the first focus group made a point to deny retention as a

goal. She argued that some students may need to leave school in order to pursue a healthy

recovery, and she questioned why retention would be a goal if it did not make sense for some

students.

Despite this argument from a participant, retention emerged as a theme from the focus group transcripts. At least part of the reason for this focus on retention was the existence of the "university administration" as a stakeholder. In general, it was reported that the network of stakeholders was complicated for campus programs. Many participants noted that in addition to the "usual suspects" that would be stakeholders with regard to any program serving victims of intimate violence, for example, the police, the sexual assault nurse examiners, the prosecutor's office, and the private and government funders, campus programs had additional invested parties including the administration, the student conduct office, and any faculty, academic departments, or organizations with whom the victim or accused perpetrator (or both) had a relationship. A final complication reported was the fact that some schools subcontracted with a community-based agency to provide services for survivors. For these schools there was an interest in connecting with survivors, but due to confidentiality agreements, many schools did not receive any information about their students who were served by the community-based program.

An understanding of the complexity of stakeholder interests is important because in each of the focus groups, several participants also pointed out that the goals of the program were stakeholder-dependent. Thus the fourth goal, or set of goals really, reported by the program staff members were those that changed depending on whom you asked. One participant summarized the situation as follows:

> It's beginning to get better, but their [the community-based agency that provides services] goals for victims services are trying to get the victim whatever she wants and trying to get the victim to prosecute, and not necessarily connecting the victim with campus services. On the other hand, for instance our administration, their main goal for victim services is to avoid liability, and my main goal for victim services is to get the victim whatever she or he chooses to do, and all of those things. Those are just three examples; all of those things are not necessarily always cooperative and collaborative goals.

Several other participants echoed these sentiments, including the recognition that their program existed at least in part to help the university avoid liability. Indeed, the issue of reducing the

91

university's liability or "keeping the university out of court" came up in each focus group as we discussed the expectations of university administrations regarding demonstrating program success. These expectations are further discussed later in this chapter, but for now I turn to how program staff defined, determined, and measured the success of their services for survivors.

Defining and Measuring Success: Victim Services

In each focus group, the discussion of defining success expanded beyond the boundaries of the goals discussed in the previous section. In other words, the focus group participants did not necessarily always relate "success" directly to the attainment of goals listed above. Indeed, within the discussion of defining program success, two additional program goals emerged: program recognition, and the timely involvement of program staff in the university's response to cases of violence against women on campus. Especially for the newer programs, several participants reported that being recognized, referred to, and involved in cases as a sign of success. Each focus group included comments similar to this one made by a person who described herself as "relatively new" to her position:

> Success for me at my campus is getting this conversation started… It's very small steps and on a larger campus it might not mean anything and my numbers aren't huge, but to me that's a success, where I can walk on the campus and people know who I am, what I'm about and if they came from a smaller community, which many of the students do, when something like this happens to them, they can now talk about it and they feel like it's okay.

Another participant identified a functional, victim-centered process as indicative of his/her success in "systems advocacy."

> So I guess maybe one of the goals, and I didn't say this [before during the discussion of goals], that I see in terms of direct services is to change the system so that it's more coherent and more supportive of victims. I think one sign to me that we've succeeded in doing that is our involvement in cases more regularly, more consistently and earlier in the case.

Even some well-established programs noted that success was measured by early involvement in a case. Participants said that such involvement indicated that the system was responding as it should, and thus it was reported as an indicator of success.

> I think one of our measures and one of our goals has really been to get various campus agencies to stop trying to handle the situations themselves. Particularly for us, it's Residence Life. I mean, when they hear the words sexual assault, I want them to stop talking and call me. [I want to have] law enforcement calling me, 'We need an advocate…" As opposed to calling us at the end of the [forensic evidence collection] kit and saying, 'Hey, do you want to come down and give her your card?'

For some participants, the program was successful because there had been a perceived shift in the climate with regard to serving victims of sexual assault, relationship violence, and stalking. This is related to the idea presented above, but the discussion of climate was less focused on the functioning of the system and more focused on people's attitudes. One participant summarized this sentiment by explaining that success is in part measured by a quieting of discontent:

> I think one of the indicators…for our campus is the campus climate. When I first came on campus, there were five different student groups who were all pretty aggressively dissatisfied with things and how they were handled on campus. Now almost all of those student groups have settled down. So…even though you don't have a great deal of evidence or information, at least the effort is there, and the campus climate can reflect that. I think that's a measure.

Another participant noted a more specific example of how a change in campus climate was a sign of program success:

> [It's] a huge measure of success to know that you have male coaches who understand and are willing to work with a female athlete because you called them and said, "They've asked me to give you a call because they're having some issues right now and they'll be back at class or they'll be back at practice tomorrow," or something like that.

As was the case with describing the goals, the definition of success was reported to sometimes be dependent on whom you asked. The following comment elicited nearly unanimous head nodding in the focus group in which it was made:

93

…[I]t's an interesting question because at least in my head, and I've been doing this work since '79, what victims see as success vs. what administration and law enforcement and student judicial affairs or housing see as success are really different, so while our law enforcement really thinks we should increase the number of people who report to the police, that's not success for victims. To have to be the spot that balances all of that and honors the fact that we truly respect victims and their choices is sort of difficult sometimes.

With regard to working with individual survivors, victim progress and anecdotal survivor feedback were the two most commonly cited ways to gauge the success of victim services. Although a handful of schools did report using formal evaluation, most did not. Each of the focus groups included a discussion that centered on the idea that programs knew they were providing helpful services because some of the people they serve said that they were:

> I really noticed we're still seeing students four and five years later who are still coming in to touch base, who are still coming in to bring a friend to talk to someone. It's not a quantifiable research-based whatever, but I think [it's useful]. (*Participant, FG1*)

> We don't have a formal evaluation for victim services on our campus …but getting the victims that come back and also getting referrals from prior victims, that's a great indication of success. (*Participant, FG*)

A few of the participants noted that they used survivor feedback as their way gauge success, but they also recognized that such a method of assessment was incomplete.

> The victims that we see and have an ongoing relationship with…, and you can't know that for sure without formal evaluation, which we don't do, but I feel like you can have some sense when they come back and talk to you that you've been helpful to that person. I think I have more concern about people that we maybe just hear from once and there are lots of reasons why someone doesn't ever show up again, but we have never evaluated why that is.

Others described unsuccessful previous attempts to measure success or difficulty in conceptualizing just what such a measurement would like:

> But I don't know how we measure success. Is it that they stay in school? I don't know. Is it that they... for me, maybe I'm just old school. We didn't screw them over, and they got the help they needed or said they wanted. I don't know. *(Participant, FG1)*

> We have a data report sheet that we ask them to fill out. We may have gotten one of those in the six years that we've had the sheet. …so I have struggled with this quantitative vs.

qualitative kind of question for some time, and haven't come to a really good conclusion. (*Participant, FG2*)

I was sitting here thinking about how we would measure success with the survivors that we've served, and I'm not sure. We made a conscious decision in '00 and '01 we sent them a survey. That was okay, but it felt really intrusive … So I'm not sure. (*Participant, FG3)*

One participant elicited several nearly inaudible comments of "that's right" and "mmm-hmm," and nearly unanimous head nodding when she said:

I think for us process evaluations are much more valuable, the story evaluations. Because [a survivor's success is] not a single event. Nor is that rape or that domestic violence just a single event. To say that she got a restraining order or got a safety plan is a very limited sense of success. How has she changed her internal frame to say that 'I can be safe and I can make better choices?' That kind of attitude and behavior shift takes a long time to figure out. And you don't do a pre-test on a survivor that's raped, you know, you don't. You build a relationship and how do you measure those relationships?

When asked specifically about program evaluation, many participants used the term "evaluation" very loosely to refer to any feedback they received or any assessment (formal or informal) that was conducted. For example:

I think in services we have a three-fold way of evaluating. One, with the stakeholders, we can evaluate other stakeholders…it's easy to say the police failed in this or the hospital failed in this, because of the feedback we get from victims. …We also have the small group once a month, "Let's talk about all the open cases right now and see where they're going"… Another way that we find it is through our education. We like to get a census: "What have you heard?"

However, a handful of schools described either current or previous program evaluation efforts

that were designed specifically to assess the merit and worth of their victim-services programs.

One participant gave a thorough explanation of why, based on past evaluation efforts, she had

confidence in the effectiveness of her program with respect to serving survivors. She explained

that in the past they had conducted a very comprehensive evaluation of their victim services and

they relied on the results of that evaluation to make their current services even better:

At that time, we really had good feedback from survivors. We were meeting their needs. We were dealing with safety planning, and we were helping them to get through school and all those things. They felt they were treated fairly, regardless of identity, race,

95

ethnicity and all that stuff that to us was important to look at… So I have that past history of evaluation to kind of rely on and know. I'd love to be able to have the funding to continue doing that in depth, but we just don't.

Another participant from a separate group described her program's current evaluation related to victim services that relies on students' self-reports of outcomes:

Our school uses Student Voice, and I'm not sure if anyone's familiar with that, but it's a student learning outcomes type survey for your office, and we also have our satisfaction survey. ..It goes through specific things, you know, did our services give you the ability to stay in school? Did it give you the academic support and things like that? Pretty much resoundingly the students say, "No, I was able to learn advocacy skills. Someone helped me navigate the system. This did help me stay in school," and things like that. So I think we've got pretty good measures there that our victim services is doing what we want it to do, so I think we're pleased in that.

Thus, although the formal evaluation of victim services was not the norm at campus-based programs, there were several schools for which current or former evaluations have provided information for decision making. This topic is explored in more depth in Chapter 5.

Program Goals and the Definition and Measurement of Success: Education

The goals of the violence prevention and rape awareness educational programs were discussed mainly in the context of defining program success. That is, rather than explicating their goals and then explaining how they knew if such goals were met, the focus group participants described how they measured the success of their educational programs, and the goals of such programs were sometimes referenced in the comments. The following presentation of results speaks directly to the definition and measurement of success. Implicit within this discussion is that the goals of educational programs were varied and included: satisfaction with the curriculum and presentation, an increase in knowledge about program services for survivors, an increase in knowledge about the sexual assault and relationship violence, a change in the campus climate, attitude change, and intended or actual behavior change.

Participants reported that they learned about whether or not they met these goals by measuring the success of their programs in a variety of ways. The assessment of educational

programs fell on a continuum from very informal gut feelings about how engaged students were

during the presentation, to the use of embedded feedback, or response papers, to the use of pre-

post focus groups or questionnaires accompanied by theory (i.e., stage-change theory).

Specifically, ten of the participants reported that their schools used pre-post surveys to assess

their educational programs. One participant noted the use of response papers and three discussed

using some type of focus group. On the less formal side of the continuum, participants described

the engagement of students and audience feedback as indicators of success:

> We don't measure success formally, but I can tell you informally, because we give the PowerPoint slides [of the educational program] to all the students, and I personally served a student and she came into the office and she had her PowerPoint and she said, "See this, I think this is what's happening to me. Can you help me?" So measuring it that way, but not quantitative, formal evaluation. *(Participant, FG1*)

> I guess probably informally I gauge [our educational program] somewhat on the students' reactions and their engagement in the educational process. Obviously it wouldn't be solid data to use, but I feel like sometimes I can tell how well I get into their world and how well they're participating and how well they're listening, and I feel like that's how I can measure success and if there's things I need to tweak or need to remove. *(Participant, FG2*)

More formal than the previous comments are these examples of assessment that invited input

more systematically:

> Throughout that three-day workshop we have at the end of every single exercise…we divide it [a piece of paper] into four pieces: I liked, I recommend, I learned, I will. And those are incredible instant pieces of what didn't work, what did work, what they've learned… And they give good input. *(Participant, FG1*)

> Our evaluations start out with: "How valuable is this program to you? Very, not too much, not at all." In addition to asking those kinds of questions, we ask open ended [questions]: "If you were to have this program next year yourself what things would you change or eliminate? What was the most outstanding feature for you personally?" So we get a lot of feedback like, "I didn't understand that the definition of sexual harassment included this." (*Participant, FG2*)

> We do a pre-impulse test of all of our classroom presentations. We look at pre-knowledge and that's of course them saying what they know prior to and afterwards. So we ask the question, 'How much do you know?' Very little, moderately, a lot. Then of course, the post-test. We also ask them whether or not the program has helped them to make safer

97

choices … We feel that at least we have some data to see whether or not our education programming is effective and that's what we use. (*Participant, FG3*)

Several participants commented that their less formal approach to evaluation had been quite successful. One staff member described using response papers to inform her curriculum:

> One of the parts as I've said of our educational program is the ten productions of the [name of program] play in the spring semester. We always have the intro to lit students do a response paper … It's helped us change what we've done.

Another explained that her success with gathering feedback was based on embedding the assessment within the program itself.

> If you do that evaluation as a group exercise, then it's like a big giant focus group and everybody's feeding off of everybody's energy and they love it. It's empowering for them. You tell them at the beginning - we need you. It's a space ship and we need you to help us steer, and they love it.

Still another participant expressed that her program's use of response papers gave them information they could actually use:

> Some of them talked about their victimization in their response paper and they talked about how this *Nformed on Sexual Assault* (an on-line educational program) gave them such good information to have and the workshop and so forth. And so I don't know if you call that formal evaluation or not... The [response papers] evaluation is such a part of helping us figure out: "Good Lord, throw that away, we're never going to do that again," or "That's working."

Although the comments above reflected the systematic collection of feedback, they did not reflect an assessment of outcomes. However, there were several schools that used various outcomes measures for assessing the effectiveness of their educational programming. One participant described using theory to inform her curriculum and her program's theory of change:

> I'm completely satisfied looking at behavior change, stage-change theory, and if we can shift knowledge and attitudes and beliefs about accountability and myths about victim-blaming, I call that a success in the very broad sense of the word of enlightenment education, if you will, so we evaluate everything, and... I'm here at [name of school], after all. So, it's just a constant cycle of putting out programs, services, doing evaluations of them, taking what we learn, creating little working groups, shifting them, tweaking them, tailoring them, getting rid of them, replacing them.

A staff member from another school explained that s/he used student input to develop the

program and then used outcome data to measure its success:

> Every evaluation, we not only have to keep demographics of who we've reached, we have to have some kind of outcome, either a change in knowledge or a change in perception of self efficacy, to be able to have an impact on other people or themselves as they go forward. So that's how we do the evaluation of those, but we start off with a student-driven area to focus on.

Thus, reports regarding the assessment of success of educational programs varied across

schools, goals, and curriculum. In addition to the above, some participants also reported that they

were able to gauge the success of their educational programming by reflecting on campus culture.

This is similar to the argument that was made with regard to the success of the victim services

program: The campus climate was perceived as more friendly to survivors, and this was

considered evidence of program success. One staff member described the immense changes that

have occurred since he was in school:

> Now we have fraternity presidents, first thing they do is they call the police. So the fraternities now have gotten to the point of saying, "We care more about getting that person out of our house than we do protecting them, so women, we want you to tell whoever you tell, so that we find out to get that person out." That's a huge change from when I was in the Greek system at the university. Having that has been a great evaluation.

A participant from a different university explained that she had witnessed a culture change since

coming on campus nearing a decade before:

> There's the formal evaluation; did you learn the fact, yes or no? Did you know we exist, yes or no? That kind of stuff is easy to do. The culture and tradition piece, you need a timeline to be able to see that, which is nice. I've been doing this since '99, not as long as everyone, but I've been able to see a cultural change with the acceptance of certain facts, the acceptance of going to programs, the willingness to say, "yeah, that sounds great" or to have involved membership or money is a great thing.

Finally, although most participants reported far more assessment of educational

programming than of victim services programming, there were a handful of staff members who

questioned what is actually learned from evaluation. One participant pointed out that sometimes

survivors were affected by educational programming:

> I would say that it's like planting a seed and to evaluate the effects of some of this is, I think, impossible. Having said that, I can see the need for formal evaluations but a lot of it…you don't know. Just having affirmed this young woman in this workshop or just – you know, it's not measurable, some of it.

Another participant noted that it would be too difficult to measure the long-term effects of educational programming:

> For my knowledge I would like to see even the short-term results of a program or an educational symposium or whatever. I would like for me personally to see that. But I agree long-term I don't know if that would be measurable and that would be very difficult.

Finally, in two of the focus groups there were comments that suggested it was just easier not to do any evaluation. Several participants lamented the amount of time it took to administer a pre-post survey, as the comment of this participant exemplified:

> I always thought formal evaluation maybe was pre and post tests and whatever. We tried that the first year with the [name of educational program] and it was just too long.

Others described their "system" for gathering feedback and then explained why it was not always, or even usually, followed:

> We've developed a basic pre [-test workshop questionnaire] about checking out knowledge when we've done workshops for staff and faculty and university police, housing... We're doing it for students because they understand [the format of pre-post]. And so they answer those and then they do the one at the end. But we kind of forget to do that because it seems really a pain in the hootenanny.

Although most participants used the terms "evaluation," "assessment," and "feedback" interchangeably, one staff member, who described herself as having a background in evaluation, drew a distinction:

> I think that sometimes it's very hard to distinguish between pretest and posttest and actual evaluation of a program. Because if you have pre and posttest, you're testing knowledge and if you have a pretest at 1:00 and then they go through a one-hour program and then they post-test [at 2:00], that's fresh in their memory. Is that a real measure of success of that program or of that education? I don't know if that is.

A few of the participants described using a pre-post-post approach and learning that their educational program was not effective:

100

We started also doing focus groups at the beginning of the year with incoming students that we do follow ups in the second semester after they've gone through the mandatory programming, which again is forty-five minutes long and it's actually shockingly depressing how they answer the questions. So I would say we've made attempts to measure. I think there are still big gaps in how effective we actually are. (*Participant, FG2*)

We do a mandatory first year workshop and we did the pre and post test right after the program and then we take a very small subset of our students and we post test them almost towards the end of their first year. And we found that unfortunately their levels of knowledge and date/myth acceptance pretty much go back to where they were, which is kind of what we read in the literature and kind of what we expected. (*Participant, FG3*)

Some program staff members discussed changes they made in their prevention curriculum based on feedback and systematic evaluation such as using a pre-post design, whether it included surveys or focus groups, or post-only designs such as response papers or surveys. The following comment, which speaks to some of challenges that need to be overcome for evaluation to be useful, was made by a participant whose school used a pre-post-follow-up design to measure the success of its educational programming:

For the program for our incoming males, because we weren't getting that retention [of knowledge and attitude change], it forced us to keep going back year after year to the drawing board and to say, "This is not working. They are not having the change that we are expecting." So in some ways that was really helpful for us. Although really, it was difficult with some of our stakeholders who were like, "Why do we keep adapting this again?" "Because it's not working." And I think that was a challenge to negotiate with some of our stakeholders because to them, the fact that you're just doing that, that's good. "We just like that you do it. We don't really care if it's effective." So now when I'm coming back and saying it's not effective and we need to figure out and try a new way of doing it, there's a collective groan around the table. But it's forced us to move in a better direction, so it's been a good thing, although sometimes challenging.

Finally, there was some discussion in two of the three focus groups that centered around the idea that if the goal of the program is true prevention, that is, behavior change, then programs really cannot know whether they were successful or not. One participant commented:

We do very similar pre and post testing that tests their knowledge and things, and I mean, yes, we can show that there's an increase in awareness, there is an increase of the knowledge base depending on the program of what we want them to know. Yes, we can say that we have a knowledge change, but behavior or anything beyond that, no. I mean, all we can see is just a little bit of change.

After listening to this discussion, one staff member summarized the idea:

> I do think that you can change the attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs, but there's a leap that has to be made [for attitude change to effect behavior change], and I'm not sure how you measure that.

The comments made by staff members of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs with regard to defining and measuring the success of educational programs demonstrated that there was a range of goals and a variety of methods of assessment. Compared to the victim services, participants reported that the success of educational programming was more likely to be assessed and/or formally evaluated. In the next section I discuss the reports of staff members with respect to how their definitions of success and process of assessment (or lack thereof) were shaped by the expectations of their respective universities' upper-level administrators.

Expectations of University Administrators

Very few participants reported that their university's administration expected much in the way of outcomes for either their victim services or educational programming. Indeed, most staff members were quite frank regarding the *lack* of such expectations.

> Administrators don't look for outcomes on victim services. They're interested in the times we're seeing victims because they weren't aware of that. *(Participant, FG1)*

> We do give [a report of number of clients served] at the end but all offices do it. We give the vice chancellor of student affairs our end of the year numbers…We don't do anything beyond that, just basic numbers. (*Participant, FG2*)

> You know, I don't have to do any outcome measurements for the university at all. As a matter of fact, they don't even ask for numbers. (*Participant, FG3*)

If not outcome measures, what did universities expect regarding the victim services programs? The most commonly cited expectations related to victim services programs were a record of the number of people served (as is evidenced by the previous quotations), providing

services, not being "too loud," that is, not drawing too much attention to the issue of violence

against women, and avoiding liability[14].

> I would say just the fact that we exist and we exist quietly, makes them [our administration] very happy. They want to be able to say that we're there, say that they offer the service, you know, and the numbers – they glance at them and toss them to the side. But as long as we do what we do and we don't do it too loudly, then [they tell us] "All right. You're good. You can stay." (*Participant, FG1*)

> When you have that program and it's established and it's there and they [survivors] are moving forward and even though you don't have a great deal of evidence or information, at least the effort is there, and the campus climate can reflect that. I think that's a measure. (*Participant, FG2)*

> The other thing I would add to that is that it's as long as we're servicing the victims and meeting their needs and they don't hear later about how their needs were not met. In recent history there's been some lawsuits unfolding…. And as long as we're not in the court system, we're doing well. (*Participant, FG3*)

Outcomes are more likely to be required when programs have outside funders. One staff

member gave a specific example of outcomes required by United Way funding:

> For my program, we have a shelter on our campus and we provide support groups, crisis interventional (*sic*) counseling and advocacy. For that piece of it, for United Way Funding, we have to show that at the time of exit, people are in a safer situation than when they came into the shelter and they have five or six conditions that we've listed. For example, they have a new place to stay or if they're going back to their own home that they have locks changed or some protection order in place. So that's an outcome related to our shelter.

Expectations of the administration with regard to educational programs varied across

campuses. One participant commented that the data she provides to her administration in terms of

number of students reached through education fulfilled their expectations for service learning

outcomes. "Service learning" curricula require students to provide service to the community

through volunteer work.

> Our university expects service learning outcomes and they're finally in place this year...
> So that's going to be very important that we make sure that we provide them with the

---

[14] Liability is created under Title IX when the university's response to a sexual assault of one of its students is "deliberately indifferent." The presence of victim services programs helps to demonstrate a university's intent not to be deliberately indifferent.

numbers…They want to know that we are reaching students and we are doing the education. If we are doing that, then we're a viable program. Numbers are important to them.

Similar to the case with victim services, another staff member explained that outcomes related to educational programming were expected by a private funder:

For community education we have to show an increase in knowledge. So we have surveys we have the students and staff faculty groups do. We show the knowledge base that they had with certain concepts before the program and the knowledge after. It's not a post that we follow up with months later, which would be more effective, but it does help them measure kind of before and after… So those are United Way outcomes that are defined.

Participants' Plans for Evaluation in the Future

While the previous sections of this chapter presented a significant amount of focus group discussion of evaluation, there were numerous comments made about evaluation that did not neatly fit into categories related to current program efforts to define and assess success. In this section I address five additional themes that emerged from the focus groups: 1) participants' planning for evaluation in the future, 2) the reliance on published evaluation and research reports, 3) the overlap between victim services and education programming, 4) the political context in which programs operate, and 5) participants' thought on the utility of grant-related progress reports.

Several staff members described their planning assessment in the future:

It's part of our agreement with the [community-based program]. We ask them when they conclude a case to ask their client to write something up and it's been an extremely ineffective way to do anything; so what we've been thinking about doing was creating a website, like a Zoomerang or something, and they actually initiate and email this anonymous survey to their clients. I think that probably the exhaustion of going through the process, asking for an open-ended account is just too much, so we're working right now on a Zoomerang thing.

In addition to the discussion of evaluation plans, one dynamic in each of the focus groups was the emergence of a discussion about what people were learning from each other with regard

to assessment and evaluation and/or how their own thoughts had been shaped by the group's

discussion:

> Hopefully I can go back with some insights from all of you how to begin the assessment process for our campus. We just have no way of measuring it, have no way of tracking students. (*Participant, FG1*)

> I'd like to have evaluation tools that enable us to ask for money and for assistance and so we can get our own things. So in that way I see that as really valuable. The other thing about this process is that I really, even just in our discussion today have appreciated hearing how different people do evaluations or check out their programs or look to see what makes it important to all of you. And I would love to have that kind of an exchange of information. (*Participant, FG2*)

The Use of Published Evaluation Reports to Inform Local Decision Making

In two of the focus groups, participants explained that they used published evaluation

research to inform their decisions about their own work. One person expressed a desire for more

local program evaluation, but explained that she depended on published reports of other

evaluations in the meantime:

> …[I]t's a constant challenge to find out what works and what doesn't work. We need to do more of our own evaluation and surveying, but what is driving us at this point is the national stuff.

Another participant said that his own school's efforts were more likely successful because they

were modeled on ideas that had been evaluated elsewhere:

> I think it is the by-standing work, changing campus culture is what we're after, and I think that as we plug in and we learn more from the researchers, it's been very gratifying to see huge shifts and changes in terms of attitudes and beliefs, particularly around these two areas of not blaming victims and holding perpetrators accountable. So I have a lot more confidence in the fact that we are making a difference.

A third participant expressed that when changes were made to her program, it was usually based

on what she had read or heard about work being done "nationally."

> At [name of institution] it's not our own evaluation efforts that have driven changes; it's national, stuff we've learned here about bystander intervention and that sort of thing.

The Overlap of Victim Services and Educational Programming

105

I have thus far presented the results as if "victim services" and "educational programming" were entirely distinct categories. Indeed, the questions I asked during the focus group instructed participants to answer the question either with respect to their victim services program or their educational program. In other words, as a facilitator, I presented the questions with the assumption that such a distinction was real. However, in two of the three focus groups, several staff members insisted that there was a clear overlap between serving victims and providing prevention/awareness education. For example, many participants, when asked about the goals of their victim services program, answered by drawing connections to the educational program:

> I think I'd like to back up even from the victim services model to the emphasis of preventing that, so that we're not responding as frequently… We [have] limited resources, limited staff, all of that, and emphasis on the response, while it's crucial and we all know that… Again, I still feel that the emphasis needs to be a little more up front in the continuum of events that occur. That's really where I want to put my energies...that's the direction and that's the goal. It's prevention.

Or, when asked about assessment of educational programs, they tied their answer to responding to victims:

> So when we go to sororities [to do educational programming], we say, "What have you heard about services?" And they'll say, "Well..the hospital's horrible."

Other staff members focused on the fact that one goal of their educational programs is to create a campus climate that was supportive of victims who come forward. This comment is representative of several others who drew attention to the overlap between education and victim services:

> I think underlying victim services, [a] crucial piece is the environment in which that victim finds him or herself. …I can't separate victim services from training and education because it has everything to do with making all of us aware on campus that we all are, administrators, staff or whoever it is, we're all bystanders…

Still other participants noted that educational programming is a part of their outreach effort. They acknowledged that education is not always about prevention, but raising awareness of what rape

106

and domestic violence look like, or reaching out to students who were victimized prior to coming

to campus. The following exchange exemplified the belief that the goals of the educational and

direct services program overlap:

> Participant A: We have our victim services … it's like a one stop shop. You come and we will help you get the services you need. But a lot of the victim services that I have start with that education component. I guess maybe that's something we find in a rural area... There's kind of that sense of being naïve and really not even knowing what's occurring as it's occurring. So even before I get to a lot of victim services I have a lot of education to do prior to getting there.

> Participant B: This is again another point of why I can't separate victim services from education and training because I think the majority of these students from the reservations have come from troubled families and so many of them are victims.

The Political Context of Campus Violence Prevention Programs

That campus-based violence prevention programs exist in a complicated political

environment is quite apparent from a review of the focus group results thus far. In addition to the

previous comments, several staff members described the network of stakeholders related to their

respective programs. Previous discussion focused on the reports of participants with regard to the

goals of programming being dependent on stakeholders, but the unique combination of

stakeholders also affected the day-to-day functioning of the programs. A few participants

described the complexity of working with a community-based agency. Many programs funded

under the *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus* subcontracted with a

community-based agency to provide services to survivors. This put the campus department in a

position where they were responsible for reporting on services, but the information they received

from the community-based agency was at its discretion. Consider this exchange:

> Participant A: In our case, especially, because we're working campus and community entities, there are some very, very distinctly different goals for each of the entities that is a stakeholder. For instance, the community-based victim services program is adamantly victim-centered, and if it is not, in their estimation, of the victim's interest... and they're the ones who usually make that determination...

> Participant B: (*sarcastically)*: That's empowering.

Participant A: Yeah, well, we won't go there right now. If it's in the "victim's best interests" for them not to connect us with a campus program, then we never know about it. We only get numbers. They are very good about giving us numbers, but this has been a struggle between us.

Another participant identified the difficulty that accompanied having parents as stakeholders:

When we had our orientation, we had less than 100 people show. When they do show, they usually bring their parents. I don't know if it's just the culture of community college … They feel like they need to have another family member there, so we end up having to deal with these helicopter parents a lot, and then when they hear about what the project's trying to do, they're like, *"What the heck? Is your college that unsafe?"* So we're really struggling.

Another stakeholder was the university itself and significant was its interest in appearing to parents, and the general public, that it was a safe place to be. Some of this dynamic was described in the previous section where participants expressed that their program existed in part to help the university avoid liability. Another issue was the university's desire for positive public relations. One participant related this to recruiting new students:

The idea is coming from somewhere from the administration on every campus that you don't damage their reputation because it's competitive. I mean you compete for your students every day. I know in [our state] you do. They all want the students.

Also, this exchange within a single focus group describes the climate at two universities where public recognition of the violence prevention program was considered to be a negative:

Participant A: I think they [the administration] want to know informally and they want to know what's going on [with our program]. They get upset if they don't know what's going on. But there again they don't want that official report coming in because that might have to be publicized. So it's fine line…

Participant B: [Name of participant above] said that perfect. I was thinking that the whole time. They want to know my numbers informally and that may be something we just sit down and discuss in a meeting, but I don't know if they necessarily want to see them published. Our program was relatively new but that was instilled in me upon receiving the position… I am not to scare people away.

Another staff member recounted that her program was specifically asked not to talk about some things to parents, regardless of the fact that her program's presentation had been well-received the year prior.

> Then orientation does an evaluation. What we were told was that [our educational program] was rated the most useful among the students and parents. But we got to planning for orientation this year and it's like "Well, you know that's not what that mean. We don't want you to focus on it this much; it may drive students and parents away. They may get scared." And so we're still fighting some of that.

Progress Reports

All focus group participants reported they were required to submit semi-annual progress reports to the Office on Violence Against Women under the auspices of the VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative. The perceived value of participating in this initiative and collecting the data for these reports varied greatly across participants. Within each focus group there were some participants who were positive about the utility of the reports as well as some participants who expressed that preparing the reports was cumbersome and that the reports themselves supplied very little information about what they were actually doing.

Several participants commented that having to prepare the reports had forced them to develop more sophisticated or accurate tracking systems for all that they accomplished. In two of the focus groups, staff members said that the requirement to collect data resulted in discoveries about where the gaps were in educational programming:

> It's allowed me to vary my topics and see what I've done. Also keep track of like you said "Oh, I haven't hit very many athletes or whoops I need to do more faculty and staff education or community education," however it may be. So as much as the reports are kind of gruesome, I really kind of dread them, I do appreciate the material on how they map that data. (*Participant FG1)*

> So yes, having those progress reports has really increased my awareness and where maybe I need to plug some stuff in. Like if there's a space that's lacking, they'll ask maybe something about athletics or how many athletes were there? It's like, I don't even know this. And how can I find this out if it was athletes [or] if it was staff? There's [the] obvious: students and staff. But when you break it down farther… So I think the progress report has done that for us. (*Participant, FG3*)

In response to the second comment directly above, one staff member described how having to fill out the progress reports inspired her to create a visual presentation of her program's accomplishments:

> I kind of agree with you that it's kind of helped focus us a little bit. Are the actual numbers reported out to anybody else? No, but … I've put out on a time line what programs we've done, and it measures about 120 inches right now and will get a little bit longer in the next couple of weeks when I add the last six months. We put that up on the wall; that's sort of half of the page. The bottom of the page is our goals and we have flow charts about the different aspects of what has to be done. We cover them in as to what's completed and what's half done and what's not done is just white. I think that in that way it's been translated.

Another participant commented that tracking the numbers of survivors she served had required a rethinking of the data they collect:

> How are we keeping track? How do we know? Where are we getting these numbers from? So trying to find a way to track students that are accessing the services, recreating the forms that we normally use to track information, to kind of incorporate [a system] that would collect that data for us.

> Some participants appreciated that they were forced to keep track of the numbers of

victims served because those numbers proved that the program is necessary:

> [We collect numbers because it is important to] demonstrate with some hard rather that soft data to administrators that yes, this is working; yes, we do have these things happening; yes, students do go to this agency and we know because we have these numbers, which is one of the advantages of having to report to OVW (Office on Violence Against Women) semi-annually. (*Participant, FG2*)

> When it came down to institutionalizing it… that's where it was effective, I think, because we had the numbers. We showed what we did on campus, where we were at with it, and that did help. (*Participant, FG3*)

A handful of participants reflected on the positive changes that had occurred at their institutions simply as a result of the process of taking part in the initiative and collecting the required data. One staff member reported that her participation in data collection had led to an increase in requests for training:

It [collecting data on numbers of survivors] has given us an enormous inroad into training opportunities. It's like floodgates opened, especially around relationship abuse... Departments are inviting us in…Offices are inviting us in to do training, so it's had a powerful effect.

Another described how the process of data collection had led to better coordination regarding case work as well as to a shift in the campus culture.

I found it incredible to be able to say to various entities on campus, "We are required to collect your numbers." *"What?" "*Yeah, I'm not kidding. We need to know your numbers." So what's emerged since everybody got CPR and got over their shock with it is that we used to collect Clery data and publish Clery data (information on campus crime required by the U.S. Department of Education). What's emerged is much more sophisticated data collection... I think having the advantage of saying we must be doing this final report has, one, the final outcome of getting better data, but two, I think it's created a secondary advantage in the process, people being more comfortable talking about different cases. It's actually created an administrative culture shift.

Finally, there were participants in each focus group who expressed frustration with the progress reports. Most of these staff members expressed that they data they were required to provide did not paint an accurate picture of what was actually happening on their campus:

I find myself incredibly frustrated by that form because it does not in any way measure things in an appropriate way for my institution or things I do. It seems very designed for a traditional, larger four-year university, and, other than the narrative, I feel that it just really isn't speaking to what my institution does. (*Participant, FG1*)

They're very frustrating because they conflate all three [institutions that are a part of our consortium] into one, so I have to for all three institutions write one number or check one box or they don't even agree and then it changes. I don't know how they make sense of a consortium, especially in the checking of the boxes. (*Participant, FG 3*)

The variety of opinions about the utility of progress reports was the last of six themes that emerged from the focus groups. Many of these themes were used to develop the survey that was sent to each of the project directors of programs funded during 2008. Because the themes from the focus group were so varied, the research questions were used to focus and limit the survey questions to the topics of goals, definitions/indicators of success, and the state of evaluation. The focus group findings influenced not only the choice of general question topics, but also the set of

111

options from which respondents were able to choose. Table 6 summarizes the themes found in

the focus group results.

Table 6. Summary of Focus Group Results

Themes: Direct Services	Discussion Evidence	Exemplary Quotation
Goals of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs	Support and fulfill the needs of survivors	I think from a victim point of view one of our biggest goals is to provide a place for them to feel comfortable that they can come and unload and they can come and report without feeling like they have to go further if they don't want to. Get the services they need and be available for them.
	Inform victims of their options	I would say that our first goal is to stabilize the situation and the next goal...[is] to educate and empower every survivor in terms of explaining that there are all different pathways, and to clearly articulate what each advantage is and disadvantage is ...so that every survivor can make the best informed choice... The third part would be to match the best resources to that survivor's needs to help them navigate through whichever pathway they choose to go to.
	Systems advocacy	Making sure they know what their rights are and what their resources are. Our program provides a lot of advocacy because victims are not treated well.
	Retention of students as survivors	One of the huge things on our campus now is retention. Retention, retention, retention….We've come to administration in the past saying, "Look this is one way....This is what we're doing to retain students."
	Goals are stakeholder-dependent/	[The community-based agency's] goals for victims services are trying to get the victim whatever she wants and trying to get the victim to prosecute... On the other hand, for instance our administration, their main goal for victim services is to avoid liability, and my main goal for victim services is to get the victim whatever she or he chooses to do, and all of those things....All of those things are not necessarily always cooperative and collaborative goals.

Table 6. Summary of Focus Group Results

Themes: Direct Services	Discussion Evidence	Exemplary Quotation
Indicators of success	Timely involvement in cases on campus	I guess maybe one of the goals...that I see in terms of direct services is to change the system so that it's more coherent and more supportive of victims. I think one sign to me that we've succeeded in doing that is our involvement in cases more regularly, more consistently and earlier in the case.
	Program recognition	...to me that's a success, where I can walk on the campus and people know who I am, what I'm about and if they came from a smaller community, which many of the students do, when something like this happens to them, they can now talk about it and they feel like it's okay.
	Campus climate change	I think one of the indicators…for our campus is the campus climate. When I first came on campus, there were five different student groups who were all pretty aggressively dissatisfied with things and how they were handled on campus. Now almost all of those student groups have settled down.
	Success is stakeholder dependent	What victims see as success vs. what administration and law enforcement and student judicial affairs or housing see as success are really different, so while our law enforcement really thinks we should increase the number of people who report to the police, that's not success for victims. To have to be the spot that balances all of that and honors the fact that we truly respect victims and their choices is sort of difficult sometimes.

Table 6. Summary of Focus Group Results

Themes: Educational Programming	Discussion Evidence	Exemplary Quotation
Indicators of success	Audience engagement	I guess probably informally I gauge it [our educational programs] somewhat on the students' reactions and their engagement in the educational process.
	Contact by audience member at later date	We give the PowerPoint slides [of the educational program] to all the students and I personally served a student and she came into the office and she had her power point and she said, 'See this, I think this is what's happening to me. Can you help me?'
	Campus climate change	I've been doing this since '99, not as long as everyone, but I've been able to see a cultural change with the acceptance of certain facts, the acceptance of going to programs, the willingness to say, "Yeah, that sounds great."

Table 6. Summary of Focus Group Results

Themes: Educational Programming	Discussion Evidence	Exemplary Quotation
Measurement of success	Embedded verbal feedback	Throughout that three-day workshop we have at the end of every single exercise…we divide it [a piece of paper] into four pieces: I liked, I recommend, I learned, I will. And those are incredible instant pieces of what didn't work, what did work, what they've learned, how… And they give good input.
	Narrative feedback	We always have the intro to lit students do a response paper … It's helped us change what we've done.
	Evaluations: surveys	...We evaluate everything.. So, it's just a constant cycle of putting out programs, services, doing evaluations of them, taking what we learn, creating little working groups, shifting them, tweaking them, tailoring them, getting rid of them, replacing them
	Effectiveness is difficult to measure	I would say that it's like planting a seed and to evaluate the effects of some of this is, I think, impossible. Having said that, I can see the need for formal evaluations but a lot of it…you don't know. Just having affirmed this young woman in this workshop or just – you know, it's not measurable, some of it.
	Evaluation is difficult	I always thought formal evaluation maybe was pre and post tests and whatever. We tried that the first year with the [name of educational program] and it was just too long.
	Evaluation not meaningful	If you have pre and posttest, you're testing knowledge and if you have a pretest at 1:00 and then they go through a one hour program and then they post-test [at 2:00], that's fresh in their memory. Is that a real measure of success of that program or of that education?

Table 6. Summary of Focus Group Results

Themes: Other	Discussion Evidence	Exemplary Quotation
Evaluation thoughts	Plans for future assessment	Hopefully I can go back with some insights from all of you how to begin the assessment process for our campus. We just have no way of measuring it, have no way of tracking students.
	Use of published evaluation research	It's a constant challenge to find out what works and what doesn't work. We need to do more of our own evaluation and surveying, but what is driving is just kind of at this point the national stuff.
Political context	Overlap of victims' services and education	I think underlying victim services crucial piece is the environment in which that victim finds him or herself. …I can't separate victim services from training and education because it has everything to do with making all of us aware on campus that we all are, administrators, staff or whoever it is, we're all bystanders…
	Conflicting stakeholder interests	If it's in the "victim's best interests" for them [the community-based agency] not to connect us with a campus program, then we never know about it... this has been a struggle between us.
	Public relations of the university	The idea is coming from somewhere from the administration on every campus that you don't damage their reputation because it's competitive. I mean you compete for your students every day.
Progress reports (VAWA Measuring Effectiveness Initiative)	Encourage program improvements in tracking	Having those progress reports has really increased my awareness and where maybe I need to plug some stuff in. Like if there's a space that's lacking, they'll ask maybe something about athletics or how many athletes were there? It's like, I don't even know this.
	Create opportunity	It [collecting data on numbers of survivors] has given us an enormous inroad into training opportunities. It's like floodgates opened…
	Frustrating and useless	I find myself incredibly frustrated by that form because it does not in any way measure things in an appropriate way for my institution or things I do.

Survey Results

In addition to the focus group results and the research questions, the survey questions and answer options were informed by the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 (see Appendix 5 for a copy of the online survey). The survey included questions specifically about program goals, the practice of assessing whether or not the goals are reached, and the likelihood of employing certain methods of assessment. The remainder of this section presents the results of the survey and is divided into four parts: 1) Information about who responded to the survey; 2) a discussion of program goals (first for direct services, then for educational programming); 3) a description of the methods of assessment used for direct services and educational programming; 4) a discussion of campus-based programs' measurement efforts; 5) an exploration of the alignment of goal importance and measurement effort, and 6) a presentation of three sub-group comparisons: focus group participants vs. non-members, programs operational for more than eight years vs. programs operational for two years or less, and programs with budgets of $100 thousand or less vs. programs with budgets of $200,000 or more.

Using Dillman's (2007) tailored design method, the response rate for the online survey was 79.6 percent, with 63 percent completing the survey in its entirety. Six survey respondents answered only the first six or seven questions on the survey. It may be the case that they decided they were not able to give honest and accurate answers about the evaluation and assessment efforts of their respective programs. The last-completed question by these respondents was not significantly different in content or form from the question either before or after it.

The survey was sent to the fifty-four project directors[15] of the *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus* that were funded in 2008. As was the case with the focus groups, some of the project directors assigned a proxy to participate in this research. Although the survey

---

[15] The author was also a project director in 2008, bringing the total number of project directors to fifty-five.

was anonymous, respondents were given the option to submit their names. Of the twenty-seven

individuals who submitted their names, twenty-three were project directors and four held other

positions such as the project coordinator. Project coordinators are sometimes in a better position

to answer questions about the details of their grant project than are the directors because in some

cases directors may not be familiar with the day-to-day operations of the direct services and/or

educational programs. Of those who responded to the survey, 79.1 percent (n=34) answered the

questions about their experience in the field, the tenure of their program, and program funding.

Most of the campus program staff members who responded to the survey had a

significant number of years of experience. Indeed, nearly three-quarters of them (70.6 percent)

had eight or more years of experience working in the field. Half of the remaining

respondents had from five to eight years of experience (five respondents, or 14.7 percent) and

half of them had fewer than five years of experience (five respondents, or 14.7 respondents).

Table 7 shows the respondents' years of experience working in the field.

Table 7. Years Working in the Field: Survey respondents (n=34)

Tenure	Number of respondents	Percent of total
2 years or less	2	5.9%
More than 2 years but less than 5	3	8.8%
5 to 8 years	5	14.7%
More than 8 years	24	70.6%

More than half (58.8 percent) of the campus programs represented on the survey were

less than five years old, with 41.2 percent being more than two but less than five years old and

17.6 percent being less than two years old. About a quarter (23.5 percent) of the programs had

been operational for more than 8 years, and 17.6 percent had been in existence for between five

and eight years. *Table 8* shows the tenure of campus programs.

119

Table 8. Tenure of Campus Programs: Survey respondents (n=34)

Tenure	Number of schools	Percent of total
2 years or less	6	17.6%
More than 2 years but fewer than 5	14	41.2%
5 to 8 years	6	17.6%
More than 8 years	8	23.5%

Two-thirds of the programs (66.7 percent) had been funded by the *Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus* for fewer than five years, with 30.3 percent receiving this funding for two years or less and 36.4 percent receiving funding for more than two but fewer than five years. About a quarter of the programs (27.3 percent) had been funded for more than eight years. Table 9 shows the tenure of programs as grant recipients.

Annual program budgets ranged from less than $50,000 to more than $200,000. Nearly half of the programs represented (48.5 percent) reported annual budgets of $100,000 or less, with 12.1 percent reporting budgets of $50,000 or less and 36.4 percent reporting budgets between $50,0001 and $100,000. About a quarter of programs (27.3 percent) had annual budgets between

Table 9. Tenure as Grant Recipient: Survey respondents (n=33)

Tenure	Number of schools	Percent of total
2 years or less	10	30.3%
More than 2 years but fewer than 5	12	36.4%
5 to 8 years	9	27.3%
More than 8 years	2	6.1%

$100,001 and $150,000, and the final quarter of programs (24.3 percent) had budgets of more than $150,000, with 19.1 percent reporting budgets from $150,001 to $200,000 and 15.2 percent reporting budgets of more than $200,000. Table 10 shows the annual program budgets.

Table 10. Annual Program Budget: Survey respondents (n=34)

Annual Budget	Number of schools	Percent of total
$0-$50,000	4	12.1%
$50,001-$100,000	12	36.4%
$101,000-$150,000	9	27.3%
$150,001-$200,000	3	9.1%
More than $200,000	5	15.2%

Campus program staff members also reported the percentage of their budget according to funding source. Federal grants made up over half of the budget for 59.4 percent of the respondents, and institutional (hard) funding made up over half of the budget for 26.5 percent of the respondents. These two sources provided the majority of funding for all programs, with only 20.6 percent of schools reporting that they received no institutional funding and only 3.1 percent of schools reporting that they receive no federal funding[16]. In comparison, state grants, private foundation funding, and other sources were reported to make no contribution to the program budget by 88 percent, 77.8 percent, and 66.7 percent, respectively, of the respondents. Table 11 shows the percentage of annual budget contribution by source.

Table 11. Percentage of Total Budget by Funding Source: Survey respondents (n=34)

Funding Source	None	1-25 percent	26-50 percent	51-75 percent	More than 75 percent
Institutional (hard) funding	20.6	35.3	17.6	14.7	11.8
Federal grants	3.1	9.4	28.1	18.8	40.6
State grants	88.0	8.0	4.0	0.0	0.0
Private foundation	77.8	22.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other sources	66.7	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0

---

[16] Although all schools were federally funded in 2008, the survey was administered in 2009, and it is possible that some schools' federal funding was expired by the time of survey administration.

Program goals. To prepare the survey respondents to answer questions about their

indicators and assessments of success, the survey contained questions about the goals of the direct

services and educational programs. Respondents were asked to indicate the importance of the

goals listed on the survey and were given the choices of v*ery important*, *somewhat important*, *not

a goal*, and *I don't know*. Table 12 shows the relative rank of the importance of goals of direct

services programs. Staff members unanimously identified "informing survivors about their

options" as a very important goal. Four other goals were identified as *very important* by over 90

percent of the respondents: Supporting survivors (97.0 percent), providing a safe space for

disclosure (97.0 percent), increasing the safety of survivors (93.9 percent), and systems advocacy

(90.9 percent). Three of the options listed were identified as *not a goal* by about half of the

respondents: Avoiding liability/protecting the university (57.6 percent), encouraging the survivor

to change his/her behavior (57.6 percent), and meeting student development goals (48.5 percent).

Of these three goals, only the first was based on the results of the focus groups. The other two

goals were included based on the literature review. Making a report to the police was ranked as

somewhat important by over half of the respondents (54.5 percent), and making a report to

student judicial affairs was identified as *somewhat important* by nearly half of the respondents

(42.4 percent). Again, although these goals were not identified by focus group participants, they

were included as choices on the survey because the progress reports required by the funder

include several questions that must be answered about such reports.

Table 12. Percent Reporting Importance of Program Goals: Direct Services

Goal	Very important	Somewhat important	Not a goal	Don't know
Informing survivors about their options	100.0%	0.0%	0%	0%
Supporting survivors	97.0%	3.0%	0%	0%
Providing a safe space for disclosure	97.0%	3.0%	0%	0%
Increasing the safety of survivors	93.9%	6.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Systems advocacy	90.9%	9.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery	87.9%	12.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Increasing the survivor's self esteem, self-efficacy	84.8%	12.1%	3.0%	0.0%
Changing the campus climate related to violence against women	83.9%	12.9%	3.2%	0.0%
Retention of survivors as students	66.7%	24.2%	6.1%	0.0%
Making a report to the police	18.2%	54.5%	27.3%	0.0%
Making a report to student judicial affairs	18.2%	42.4%	39.4%	0.0%
Meeting student development goals	12.1%	30.3%	48.5%	9.1%
Encouraging the survivor to change his/her behavior	9.1%	33.3%	57.6%	0.0%
Avoiding liability/protecting the university	6.1%	36.4%	57.6%	0.0%

Other choices that also received a notable percentage of respondents ranking them as *somewhat important* were meeting student development goals, encouraging the survivor to change his/her behavior, and avoiding liability/protecting the university from a lawsuit. Only one of the options, "Meeting student development goals" elicited a response of *I don't know* by a small number of respondents (9.1 percent).

Three of the options related to education goals were indicated as *very important* to 90 percent or more of the staff members who responded to the survey: Reducing violence against women on campus (97.5 percent), raising awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relationship violence and stalking (92.5 percent), and improving the campus climate regarding violence against women. *Table 13* shows the relative rank of the importance of goals of educational programs. All of the goals listed as choices were described as *very important* by over two-thirds of the respondents, with the exception of "audience/participant satisfaction" and "recruiting volunteers," which were indicated as *very important* by 45 percent and 12.5 percent, respectively. Of the thirteen goals that were listed as options, seven of them were identified as *not a goal* by at least one respondent, and one of them, "recruiting volunteers," was named *not a goal* by over a quarter of the respondents (27.5 percent). Only two of the choices were identified as *somewhat important* by over a third of the respondents: audience/participant satisfaction (42.5 percent), and recruiting volunteers (60 percent).

Indicators of success. The survey asked staff members to report what evidence they considered to be an important indicator of success. The choices given were based on the results of the focus groups with the exception of "the goals of the program are met," which was included to give respondents a choice clearly related to goal attainment. For direct services, all of the indicators but one were reported to be either *important* or *somewhat important* by three-quarters

or more of the respondents. The exception was "a survivor does not sue the university," which

was indicated as *important* or *somewhat important* by only 15.2 percent of staff members. The

Table 13. Percent Reporting Importance of Program Goals: Education

Goal	Very important	Somewhat important	Not a goal	Don't know
Reducing violence against women on campus	97.5%	2.5%	0%	0%
Raising awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relationship violence, and stalking	92.5%	7.5%	0%	0%
Improving the campus climate regarding violence against women	90.0%	10.0%	0%	0%
Raising awareness about services	89.7%	7.7%	2.6%	0%
Encouraging survivors to seek help	87.5%	12.5%	0%	0%
Improving the response to violence against women on campus	87.5%	12.5%	0%	0%
Changing attitudes (i.e. "rape supportive attitudes")	85.0%	12.5%	2.5%	0%
Changing actual behavior, ally/bystander behavior	84.6%	12.8%	2.6%	0%
Increasing knowledge of audience members	82.5%	17.5%	0%	0%
Changing intended behavior, ally/bystander behavior	74.4%	23.1%	2.6%	0%
Audience/ participant engagement	67.5%	30.0%	2.5%	0%
Audience/participant satisfaction	45.0%	42.5%	10.0%	2.5%
Recruiting volunteers	12.5%	60.0%	27.5%	0%

highest percentage of respondents (87.9 percent) chose "When a case related to violence against women emerges on your campus, your program is involved in a timely manner" and "The relationship built between the survivor and the advocate is positive for the survivor" as an *important indicator of success* of their direct services program. Three-quarters of the respondents (75.8 percent) indicated that meeting the goals of the program was evidence of success, and two-thirds of respondents (66.7 percent) said that "Your program is respected on campus" was an *important indicator of success*. Table 14 shows the percent of respondents reporting the importance of indicators of success for direct services.

Table 14. Percent Reporting Success Indicators: Direct Services

Evidence	This is an important indicator of success	This is a somewhat important indicator of success	This is not an indicator of success	Don't Know
When a case related to violence against women surfaces on your campus, your program is involved in a timely manner	87.9%	9.1%	3.0%	0.0%
The relationship built between the advocate and the survivor is positive for the survivor	87.9%	9.1%	3.0%	0.0%
The goals of the direct services program are met	75.8%	24.2%	0.0%	0.0%
Your program is respected	66.7%	27.3%	6.1%	0.0%
A survivor refers others to the program for services	60.6%	33.3%	3.0%	3.0%
A survivor provides unsolicited, positive verbal feedback	54.5%	39.4%	6.1%	0.0%
There is wide recognition of your program on campus	54.5%	36.4%	9.1%	0.0%
Survivors follow through on their plans for recovery	36.4%	42.4%	21.2%	0.0%
A survivor does not sue the university	6.1%	9.1%	81.8%	3.0%

More respondents (70 percent) reported that "audience members contact you at a later date with an issue related to violence against women" was an *important indicator of success* than any other type of evidence related to educational programming. However, "the goals of the education program are met" was the only option chosen as either *important* or *somewhat important* by all respondents (100 percent). Over two-thirds of the respondents reported that each of the options given was either an important or a somewhat important indicator of the success of educational programming. Table 15 shows the percent of respondents reporting the importance of indicators of success for educational programming.

Table 15. Percent Reporting Indicators of Success: Education

Evidence	This is an important indicator of success	This is a somewhat important indicator of success	This in not an indicator of success	Don't Know
Audience members contact you at a later date with an issue related to violence against women	70.0%	25.0%	5.0%	0.0%
The goals of the education program are met	60.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%
There are increasingly frequent requests for education programs	55.0%	35.0%	10.0%	0.0%
Audiences ask you to come back	42.5%	37.5%	20.0%	0.0%
Good things are said around campus about your education program	40.0%	47.5%	12.5%	0.0%
Audience members remain after the presentation to talk further	30.0%	42.5%	27.5%	0.0%

Methods of assessment. Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which

they employ various methods of assessment to help determine the success of their direct services

and educational programming. The options provided were influenced by both the focus groups

and the literature review. Based on the think alouds, a five-point scale was used to measure

frequency: *always*, *frequently*, *sometimes*, *seldom*, and *never*. Table 16 shows the rank order of

assessment practices related to direct services based on the percentage of respondents who

indicated that they *always* use the method. One-third or more of the staff members responded

that they *always* use "staff meetings with advocates" (39.4 percent), "tracking of client

demographics" (39.4 percent), and "tracking of case details" (33.3 percent) to determine the

success of their direct services. About a quarter of the respondents indicated that they *always* use

"meetings with collaborative partners" (27.3 percent), and 12.1 percent reported that they *always*

use "paper or computer-based surveys related to effectiveness to assess success." Very few staff

members indicated that they *always* use "in-person or phone questionnaires" (6.1 percent) and

none of the respondents said that they *always* use "psychological tests of self esteem, self

efficacy, etc. (*sic*)."

Table 16: Method of Assessment: Direct Services

Method	Always	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	DK
Staff meetings with advocates	39.4	27.3	12.1	12.1	6.1	3.0
Tracking client demographics	39.4	9.1	21.2	6.1	21.2	3.0
Tracking case details	33.3	15.2	21.2	6.1	21.2	3.0
Meetings with partners	27.3	36.4	21.2	6.1	9.1	0.0
Surveys related to effectiveness	12.1	6.1	18.2	24.2	36.4	3.0
In person/phone questionnaires	6.1	3.0	15.2	18.2	54.5	3.0
Psychological tests	0	0.0	9.1	0.0	84.8	6.1

At the other end of the frequency spectrum, more than a third of the respondents indicated that three of the possible methods of assessment were never used: "Psychological tests" (84.8 percent), "in-person/phone questionnaires" (54.5 percent), and "paper or computer-based surveys related to effectiveness" (36.4 percent). Less than ten percent of respondents reported that they never use "staff meetings with advocates" (6.1 percent) or "meetings with partners" (9.1 percent) and about one fifth of the respondents said that they never use "tracking client demographics" (21.2 percent) or "tracking case details" (21.2 percent) as a way to assess the success of direct services.

Collapsing the five categories of frequency into just three categories (*always* or *frequently*, *sometimes* or *seldom*, and *never*) results in one change to the rank order of the methods: "Meetings with partners" moves up in the ranking from the fourth position to the second position, with 63.7 percent of respondents indicating that they *always* or *frequently* employ this method to assess the success of their direct services programs. "Staff meetings with advocates" remains the most reported method of assessment and about half of the respondents (48.5 percent) reported that they *always* or *frequently* use "tracking client demographics" or "tracking case details." Table 17 shows the frequency of method use in the collapsed categories of *always* or *frequently*, *sometimes* or *seldom*, and *never*.

Table 17. Percent Reporting Method of Assessment: Direct Services

Method	Always or Frequently	Sometimes or Seldom	Never	DK
Staff meetings with advocates	66.7	24.2	6.1	3.0
Meetings with partners	63.7	27.3	9.1	
Tracking client demographics	48.5	27.3	21.2	3.0
Tracking case details	48.5	27.3	21.2	3.0
Surveys related to effectiveness	18.2	42.4	36.4	3.0
In person/phone questionnaires	9.1	33.4	54.5	3.0
Psychological tests	0.0	9.1	84.8	6.1

Staff members also identified the modes of assessment used for educational programming. Table 18 shows the rank order of assessment practices related to educational programming based on the percentage of respondents who indicated that they *always* use the method. Far fewer respondents replied that they always use any of the methods presented. Nearly one-fifth of the respondents (18.9 percent) reported that they *always* use "post-only surveys" to assess the effectiveness of their education programming, and approximately one-tenth of the respondents indicated that they *always* use "a campus climate survey" (11.1 percent), "debriefing with presenters" (10.8 percent), "pre and post surveys" (10.8 percent), and "verbal feedback from the audience" (8.1 percent). "Observation of the educational programming" was reported as a method of assessment that is *always* used for 5.4 percent of the population, and no members of the population reported that the methods of a "narrative response," "pre and post surveys with a follow-up," and "focus groups" were *always* used.

Table 18. Percent Reporting Method of Assessment: Education

Method	Always	Frequently	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	DK
Post only surveys	18.9	24.3	13.5	16.2	27.0	0
Campus climate survey	11.1	22.2	19.4	16.7	30.6	0
Debriefing with presenters	10.8	51.4	16.2	10.8	10.8	0
Pre and post surveys	10.8	18.9	21.6	18.9	29.7	0
Verbal feedback from audience	8.1	35.1	18.9	32.4	5.4	0
Observation	5.4	10.8	24.3	37.8	21.6	0
Narrative response	0	5.4	24.3	24.3	45.9	0
Pre/Post w/ follow up	0	2.7	8.1	27.0	59.5	2.7
Focus groups	0	0.0	16.2	32.4	51.4	0

At the opposite end of the frequency spectrum, a significant number of respondents indicated that they *never* use several of the methods presented as options to assess the success of their educational programs. The least used method of assessment was a "pre and post survey with follow-up," reported as never used by 59.5 percent of the respondents. Over half of the staff members also indicated that they *never* use "focus groups" (51.4 percent), and nearly a half reported that they *never* use "a narrative response" (45.9 percent). About a third of the respondents indicated that they *never* use "campus climate surveys" (30.6 percent), "pre and post surveys" (29.7 percent), or "post-only surveys" (27.0 percent). One fifth of the staff members (21.6 percent) reported that they *never* use "observation," 10.8 percent reported that they *never* use "debriefing with presenters," and 5.4 percent indicated that they *never* use "verbal feedback from the audience."

Collapsing the five categories of frequency into just three categories results in several changes to the rank order of the methods used to assess the success of educational programming. Table 19 shows the frequency of method use according to the collapsed categories: *always or*

Table 19. Percent Reporting Method of Assessment: Education

Method	Always or Frequently	Sometimes or Seldom	Never	DK
Debriefing with presenters	62.2	27.0	10.8	0
Verbal feedback from audience	43.2	51.3	5.4	0
Post only surveys	43.2	29.7	27.0	0
Campus climate survey	33.3	36.1	30.6	0
Pre and post surveys	29.7	40.5	29.7	0
Observation	16.2	62.1	21.6	0
Narrative response	5.4	48.6	45.9	0
Pre and post w/ follow up	2.7	35.1	59.5	2.7
Focus groups	0.0	48.6	51.4	0

frequently, *sometimes or seldom*, and *never*. "Debriefing with presenters" was reported as *always* or *frequently* used by nearly two thirds of the respondents (62.2 percent), and "verbal feedback from the audience" and "post-only surveys" were indicated as *always* or *frequently* used by 43.2 percent of the staff members. "Focus groups," "pre and post surveys with follow-ups," and "narrative responses" remain the least used of the methods with less than ten percent of the respondents indicating that they use any of these methods of assessment *always* or *frequently*.

     Measurement of program goals. The final section of the survey asked staff members to indicate which program goals they usually appraise with the assessment methods that they employ. Respondents were presented with a list of goals and given three choices: *We usually measure this*, *we usually do not measure this*, and *I don't know*. Table 20 shows the rank order of direct services goals according to the percentage of respondents indicating that they usually measure them. Approximately sixty to seventy percent of the respondents reported that they usually measure seven of the goals: "Survivors' feelings of being supported" (71.9 percent), "satisfaction with services" (66.7 percent), "survivors' knowledge of their options" (63.6 percent), "the safety of survivors" (62.5 percent), "reports to student judicial affairs" (62.5 percent), "the comfort of the survivor with the center" (62.5 percent), and "reports to the police" (59.4 percent). The responses were nearly evenly split between measurement and non-measurement for the goals of the retention of survivors as students and the recovery of students as survivors. The former garnered a positive response (*we usually measure this*) from 45.5 percent of the respondents and the latter reflected a positive response from 43.8 percent of the respondents. Finally, about one-fifth of the staff members reported that they *usually measure* "student development goals related to survivors" (21.9 percent) and "the behavior change of survivors" (19.4 percent).

Table 21 shows the rank order of educational programming goals according to the percent of respondents indicating that they usually measure them. With regard to the measurement of educational goals, approximately 70 to 80 percent of respondents indicated that

Table 20. Measurement of Program Goals: Direct Services

Goal	Usually measure	Usually do not measure	Don't know
Survivor's feelings of being supported	71.9%	25.0%	3%
Satisfaction with services	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%
Survivor's' knowledge of options	63.6%	33.3%	3.0%
The safety of survivors	62.5%	34.4%	3.1%
Reports to student judicial affairs	62.5%	34.4%	3.1%
The comfort of the survivor with the center	62.5%	31.3%	6.3%
Reports to the police	59.4%	37.5%	3.1%
The retention of survivors as students	45.5%	48.5%	6.1%
The recovery of survivors	43.8%	43.8%	12.5%
Student development goals related to survivors	21.9%	65.6%	13%
Behavior change of survivors	19.4%	71.0%	9.7%

they usually measure four of the goals presented as options: "Awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relationship violence, and stalking" (81.1 percent), "awareness about services" (73 percent), "the incidence of violence against women on campus" (70.3 percent), and "the knowledge of audience members" (70.3 percent). Additionally, one half or more of the respondents indicated that they *usually measure* "attitudes, (i.e., rape-supportive attitudes)" (59.5

percent), "audience/participant satisfaction" (56.8 percent), "audience/ participant engagement"

(52.8 percent), and "intended behavior" (50.0 percent). The final two goals, "campus climate

regarding violence against women" and "actual behavior change," were reported to be measured

Table 21. Measurement of Program Goals: Education

Goal	Usually measure	Usually do not measure	Don't know
Awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relaitonship violence, and stalking	81.1%	16.2%	3%
Awareness about services	73.0%	21.6%	5.4%
Incidence of violence against women on campus	70.3%	29.7%	0%
Knowledge of audience members	70.3%	27.0%	3%
Attitudes (i.e. "rape supportive attitudes")	59.5%	35.1%	5.4%
Audience/participant satisfaction	56.8%	40.5%	2.7%
Audience/ participant engagement	52.8%	44.4%	2.8%
Intended behavior, ally/bystander behavior	50.0%	47.2%	2.8%
The campus climate regarding violence against women	45.9%	48.6%	5%
Actual behavior, ally/bystander behavior	38.9%	61.1%	0%

134

by less than half of the respondents, garnering a positive response (*we usually measure this*) by 45.9 percent and 38.9 percent, respectively, from the respondents.

       Alignment of goal importance and measurement of effectiveness. Using the results from the section of the survey that asked about the importance of goals and the section of the survey that collected data on whether or not measurement is used to assess the success of their efforts to reach their goals, it was possible to graph the alignment of goal importance and measurement effort. Close alignment of these variables would suggest that campus-based programs are measuring the things that they perceive are the most important to measure. A lack of alignment would suggest that campus programs are more haphazard in their decision making about what to measure. *Figure 9* shows the alignment of these variables for direct services. The solid circle graphs the percentage of respondents who indicated that a certain goal was *very important*, and the solid represents the percentage of respondents who indicated that they *usually measure* their efforts towards reaching a specific goal. A cursory examination of the data points indicates that with a few notable exceptions, goal importance seems to be generally aligned with measurement effort.

       A comparison of where the data points fall on the graph suggests that for most goals, a higher percentage of campus program staff considered the goal to be *very important* than they were to *usually measure* the success of the efforts to reach that goal. For example, whereas 66.7 percent of the respondents said that "the retention of students as survivors" was a *very important* goal, only 45.5 percent indicated that they *usually measure* their success in reaching that goal, and whereas 100 percent of respondents said that "informing survivors about their options" was *very important*, only 63.6 percent indicated that they *usually measure* the attainment of this goal. Of the eleven goals that were assessed by respondents both in terms of importance and

135

measurement effort, all but four of the goals received a higher percentage of respondents

indicating they were *very important* than *usually measured*. The four exceptions were: Reporting
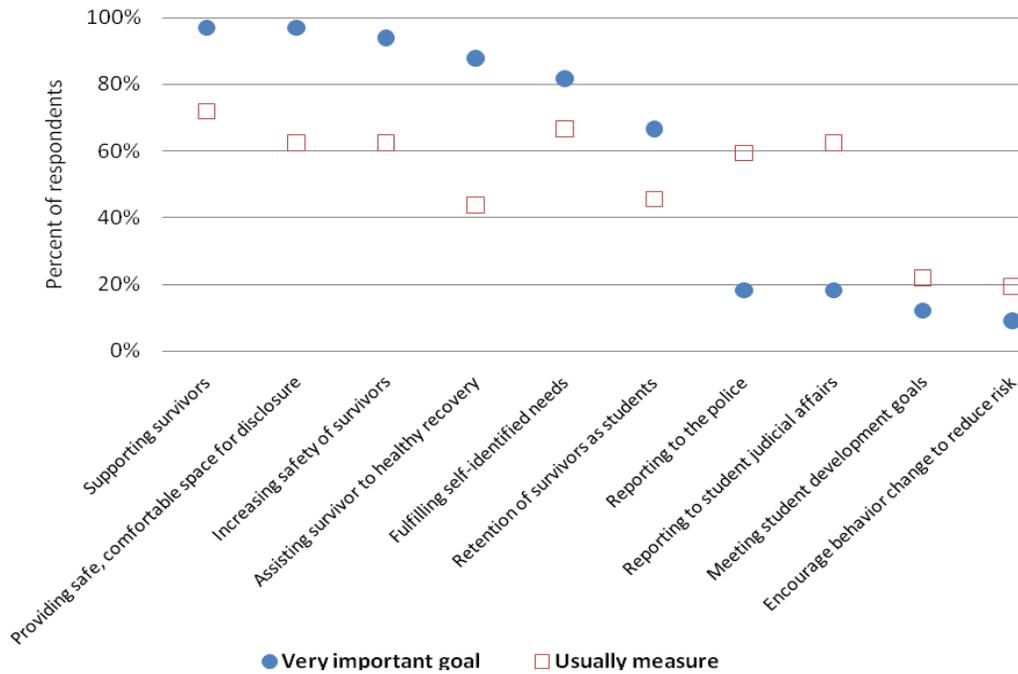
Figure 9. Alignment of goal importance and measurement effort: Direct services

to the police, reporting to student judicial affairs, meeting student development goals, and

changing survivor behavior. For each of these goals, a larger percentage of respondents reported

that they *usually measure* the goal compared to those who reported that the goal is *very*

important.

For two of these goals the difference is quite large: "Reporting to the police" where *very*

important = 18.2 percent and usually *measure* = 59.4 percent, and "reporting to student judicial

affairs" where *very important* = 18.2 percent and *usually measure* = 62.5 percent. For the other

two goals where a higher percentage of respondents indicated that they *usually measure* than

indicated that the goal is *very important*, the difference is smaller: "Meeting student development

goals" where *very important* = 12.1 percent and *usually measure* = 21.9 percent, and "changing

136

survivor behavior to reduce risk" where *very important* = 9.1 percent and *usually measure* = 19.4 percent.

Figure 10 shows the alignment ofgoal importance and measurement effort for educational programming. The solid circles graph the percentage of respondents who indicated that a certain goal was *very important*, and the squares represents the percentage of respondents who indicated that they *usually measure* their efforts towards reaching a specific goal. A cursory examination of the line trends indicates that for educational programming, goal importance seems to be quite closely aligned with measurement effort, save for "actual behavior change.".
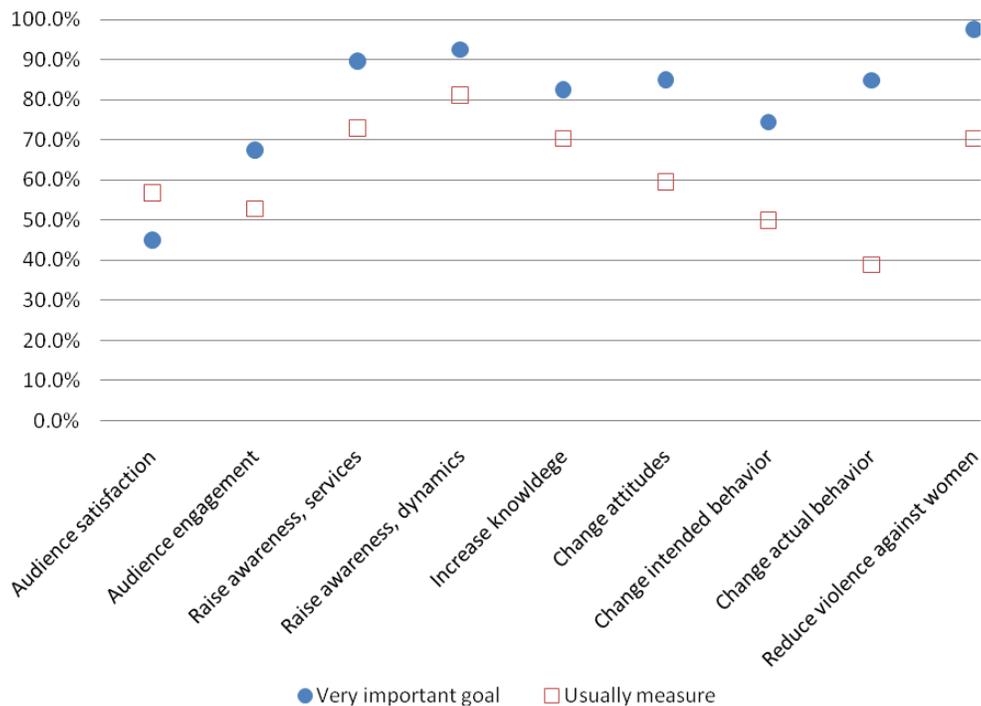
Figure 10. Alignment of goal importance and measurement effort: Education

A comparison of where the data points fall on the graph suggests that for all but one goal, a higher percentage of campus program staff considered the goal to be *very important* than they were to *usually measure* the success of the efforts to reach that goal. For example, 67.5 percent of

respondents indicated that "audience engagement" is very important, and 52.8 percent indicated that they usually measure this goal. For most educational programming goals, the difference between goal importance and measurement effort is less than it is for direct services goals. Indeed, the average distance in percentage points between goal importance and measurement effort is 32.2 percent for direct services and 21.1 percent for education. These averages were calculated by summing the differences between goal importance and measurement effort and dividing that sum by the number of goals.

Of the eleven goals that were assessed by respondents both in terms of importance and measurement effort, all but one of the education goals received a higher percentage of respondents indicating they were *very important* than *usually measured*. The exception was "audience satisfaction." For this goal, more respondents indicated that it was *usually measured* than those who reported that it was *very important*. The largest gap between goals importance and measurement effort is for the goal "change the actual behavior of audience members/participants" where 84.8 percent reported it is *very important*, but only 38.9 percent said that they *usually measure* the success of their efforts to reach this goal.

Subgroup Comparisons

Because many focus group participants also responded to the survey, it is important to investigate whether or not focus group participation is correlated with how people responded to the survey questions. As was reported in the previous section, the dynamics of the focus groups were such that many participants stated that they would be thinking more and thinking differently about assessment and evaluation when they returned to their campuses after participating in a group. In addition to this intended change of thought process and/or behavior of some of the group members, all of the focus group participants were exposed to ninety minutes of discussion about program goals, assessment, measurement, and evaluation, which became the basis for the

138

questions on the survey. Although there were six months between the focus groups and the administration of the survey, the effects of participating in the focus group may have influenced how focus group participants responded to the survey questions. It may also be the case that those who self-selected into a focus group on program evaluation had given more thought to the topic and thus would be likely to answer the survey questions differently as a group compared to the group of non-participants. For these reasons, the first subgroup comparison is between respondents who were focus group participants and those who were not (heretofore called "Non-members").

The use of focus group participants as survey respondents is not standard fare in mixed methods research. Participation in one type of research is thought to influence research subjects to the point where their answers in the second round of research are no longer "pure." In this study, the focus group participants might have answered the survey questions differently had they not participated in a focus group. Although such a change in the subject's frame of reference is possible, there are two significant reasons why I included focus group participants as survey respondents. First, the choice to *exclude* the focus group participants was an option that resulted in a survey pool of twenty-eight persons. The use of such a small population for survey research would also run counter to standard methodology. I had to choose between two possibilities, neither of which fit the mold of standard practice. The importance of having a population large enough to survey and gathering information from the entire population trumped the purity of data argument. Second, because I was able to analyze the data of focus group participants separately from those who did not participate, I was able not only to look at the pool of "pure" data on their own, I was also able to compare it to the data gathered from the participants and investigate differences. Thus, although the use of focus group participants as survey respondents detracted

139

from the methodological soundness of this study, the exercise of comparing the two groups added to the theoretical richness of my analysis.

The second subgroup comparison is between programs that had been functioning for more than eight years and those that had been operational for two years or less. Given the time and resources it takes to get a program started and given the need to have program goals well thought out before embarking on an evaluation, one might expect an established program to be more likely to undertake program evaluation to assess the effectiveness of its work. The third and final subgroup comparison is between programs with annual budgets of over $200,000 and those with annual budgets of $100,000 or less. Because evaluation can be a resource-intense undertaking, one may expect that there would be differences between the measurement efforts and the sophistication of assessment at universities where programs receive a greater amount of funding.

The discussion of subgroup comparisons includes analysis of the survey responses related to four topics: Indicators of success, methods of assessment, goal importance, and measurement effort. For each of the four topics, data related to direct services are discussed first, followed by analysis of the data related to educational programming. The discussion related to focus group participation also includes a report of the relative rankings of goals and measurement effort. This ranking is included for the focus-group vs. non-member comparison because very large differences between these two groups could signal an "intervention effect" of focus group participation. If such an effect seems to be present, it will be helpful to know if the difference between groups is a difference of degree or if it is a more significant difference of kind. If the relative ranking of goals and measurement effort is similar, it would signal that differences between the groups are that of degree rather differences based on significant disagreement about

140

the importance of goals or substantial differences regarding the effort put forth for the

measurement of success.

Finally, the population for the survey is relatively small (N=54) and the subgroup

comparisons are comparing groups that are even smaller. For this reason, the analysis and

discussion focuses on survey items where there is a 20 percentage point difference or more

between the groups being compared. In most cases, this minimum difference reflects a difference

of only two or three respondents. *Table 22* shows the population for each subgroup comparison.

While no generalizeable knowledge claims can be made from the results of such a small

population, the results of the comparisons will suggest possible ways to understand and further

explore the topic under study.

Table 22. Population of Groups for Sub-Group Comparisons

Subgroup	Population
Focus group participants	14
Non-members	20
Operational 8 years or more	8
Operational less than 2 years	6
Budget of 100K or less	16
Budget of 200K or more	5

Focus Group Participants vs. Non-Members

Indicators of success. All of the indicators of success presented as options on the survey

were based on the discussion that took place within the focus groups with the exception of one:

"The goals of the program are met" is an indicator that were included on the survey to give

respondents a chance to indicate that their programs are goal-driven, even though the focus group

participants did not make any consistently strong claims that they knew a program was successful

when its goals were met. *Figure 11* shows the comparison between focus group participants and

non-members on indicators of success of direct service programming. Not surprisingly, more focus group participants than non-members identified each of the options as indicators of success, with the exception of "the goals of the direct services program are met." For this option, 61.5 percent of focus group participants identified it as an *important indicator* of success and 83.3 percent of non-members identified it as an *important indicator* of success. For the options chosen by a higher percentage of participants, the difference was 20 percent or more on two of the indicators: "A survivor offers unsolicited verbal feedback" and "There is wide recognition of your program on campus."
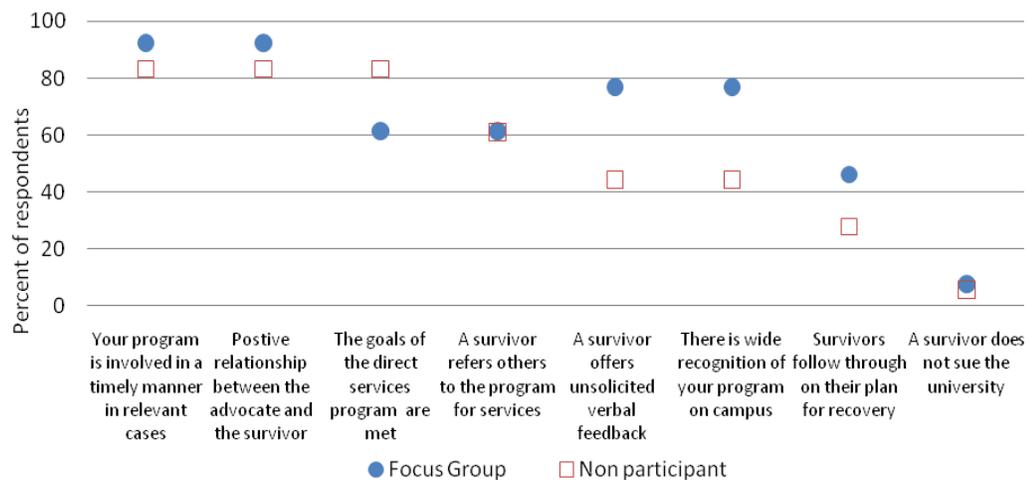
Figure 11. Important indicators of success of direct services: Focus group participants vs. non-participants

A similar pattern holds true for the indicators of success of educational programming. *Figure 12* shows that a larger percentage of focus group participants identified each of the options as *important indicators* with the exception of two: "The goals of the program are met," and "audience members contact you at a later date with an issue related to violence against women." For the former indicator related to goals, 50 percent of focus group participants and 68.4 percent of non-members identified the option as an indicator of success; for the latter indicator related to audience contact, 57.1 percent of focus group participants and 78.9 of non-members identified the

142

option as an *important indicator* of success. The difference between the two groups was less than

20 percent on all of the indicators that were chosen by more focus group participants than non-

members.
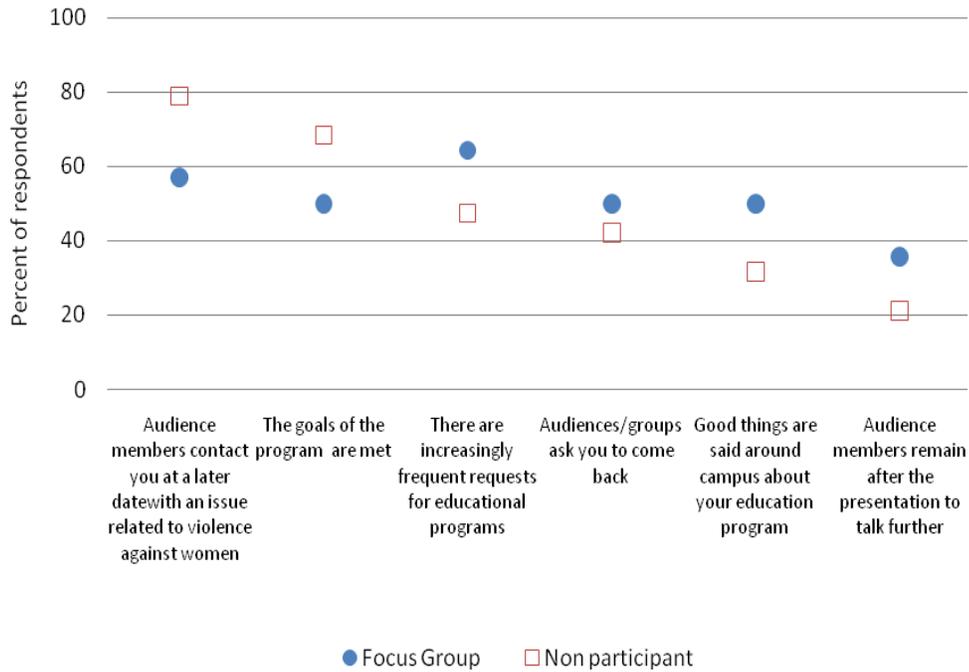
Figure 12. Important indicators of success of educational programming: Focus group participants vs. non-participants

Methods of assessment. The options on the survey related to methods of assessment were based

on the focus group results as well as the literature review (see Chapter 2). Thus, although

psychological tests, in-person or questionnaires, and surveys related to effectiveness were not

discussed or were mentioned only briefly in the focus groups, they were included as types of

methods of assessment related to the success of direct services programs because the literature

includes examples of such methods being used. Similarly, for education, although conducting

pre- and post-surveys with a six- or twelve-month follow-up did not emerge as a likely method of

assessment from the focus groups, the literature review clearly identified this option as a currently

used assessment tool for violence prevention educational programming.

Results comparing the focus group participants to non-members in the area of currently

practiced methods of assessment show more of a focus group "intervention effect" related to

direct services than to educational programming. In other words, focus group participation seems

to have had more of an effect on staff members' reported methods of assessment regarding

services for survivors than regarding educational programs. Possible reasons for this difference

are discussion in the next chapter. *Figure 13* shows the methods of assessment related to direct

services that respondents reported always or frequently using. A higher percentage of

participants reported *always* or *frequently* employing each of the method options for assessing the

success of their services. A difference of 20 percentage points or more emerged for only one
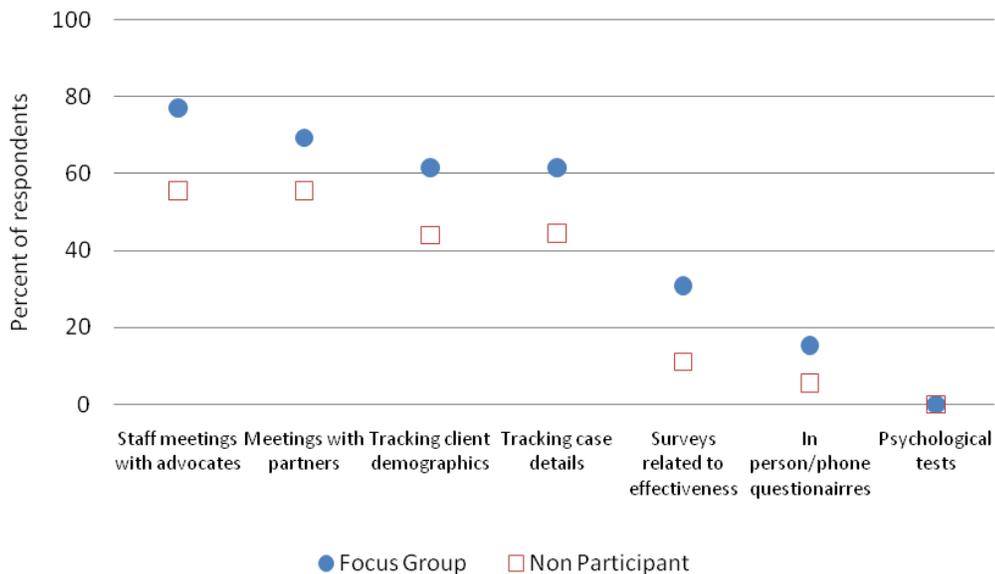
Figure 13. Always or frequently used methods of direct services assessment: Focus group participants vs. non-participants

option: "Staff meetings with advocates" was reported as an *always* or *frequently* used method of

assessment for 77 percent of focus group participants but only 55.6 percent of non-members. No

144

respondents, whether they participated in a focus group or not, reported that they *always* or *frequently use* psychological tests.

The comparison of focus group participants to non-members with regard to methods of assessment of educational programming shows that, generally speaking, there are some small differences in the expected direction and some small differences that are less expected. *Figure 14* shows this comparison. For five of the nine methods, a higher percentage of focus group
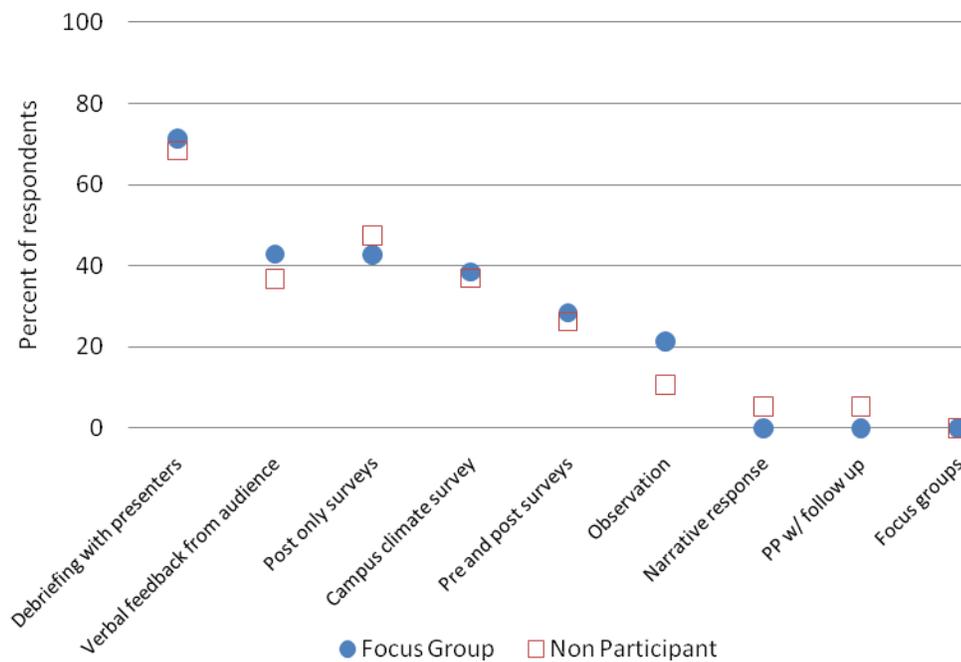

Figure 14. Always or frequently used methods of educational assessment: Focus group participants vs. non-participants

participants reported that they *always* or *frequently use* them, with *observation of the program* emerging as the method with the greatest difference, 10.8 percentage points. Non-members were slightly more likely than focus group participants to report that they utilize post-only surveys, narratives response papers, and pre- and post- surveys with a follow up. The latter two methods

were based on the literature review rather than generated by the focus group results. None of the categories showed differences between the groups that were 20 percentage points or higher.

Goal importance and measurement effort: Direct services. Focus group participants were compared to non-members with regard to the importance of goals and their measurement effort. Overall, focus group participants were more likely to designate goals related to direct services as *very important* than were their non-member counterparts. *Figure 15* shows the comparison of the percentage of focus group participants and non-participants who identified the goals as *very*
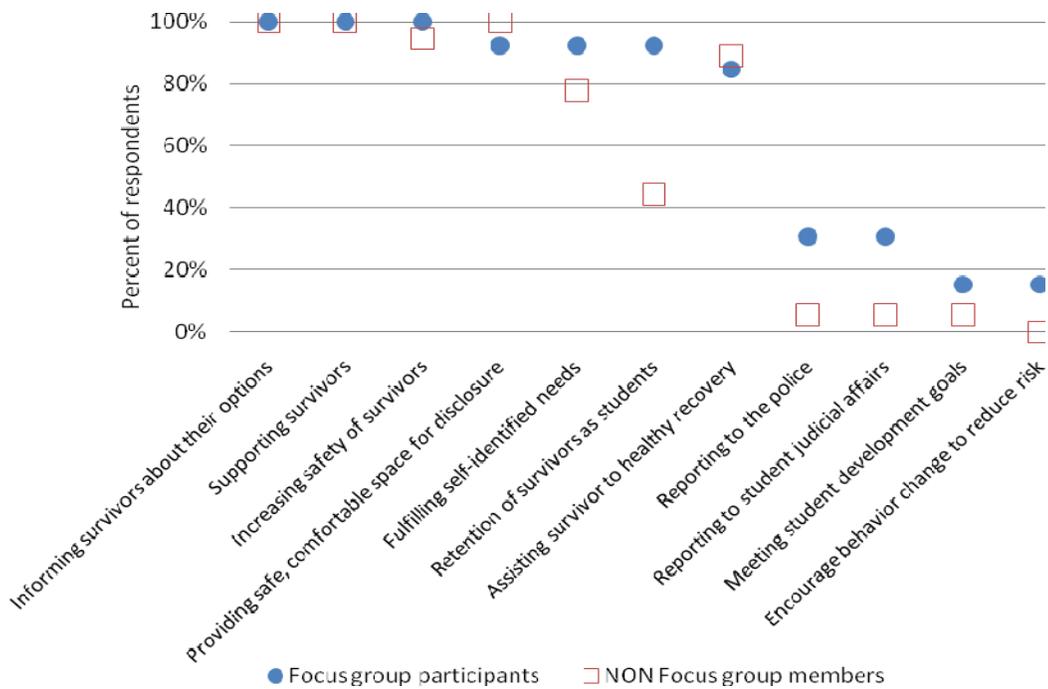
Figure 15: Goals indicated as *very important*. Focus group participants vs. non-participants.

important. The goals were generated both by the focus group results as well as the literature review, and there was significant overlap between these two sources. Of the eleven goals presented on the survey, only two of them, *providing a safe, comfortable space for survivors* and

assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery, were identified as *very important* by a higher

percentage of non-members than participants (by small margins of 5.6 percent and 4.3 percent,

respectively). Seven of the remaining nine goals related to direct services were designated as

very important by more focus group participants than non-members, and two of the goals*,*

"informing survivors about their options" and "supporting survivors," were called *very important*

by 100 percent of both focus group participants and non-members.

A difference of 20 percentage points or more between the two groups emerged on four of

the goals. Whereas 92.3 focus group participants reported that "the retention of survivors as

students" was a *very important* goal, only 44.4 percent of non-members indicated as such*.*

"Fulfilling the self-identified needs of survivors was deemed *very important* by 92.3 percent of

focus group participants, but only 77.8 of non-members. Nearly one-third (30.8 percent) of

participants reported that both "making a report to the police" and "making a report to student

judicial affairs" were very important goals, but such reports were described as very important by

only 5.6 percent of non-members. The higher percentage of participants designating most of the

goals as *very important* may reflect a focus group "intervention effect" as was the case with

methods of assessment. This possibility is discussed at length in the next chapter.

Focus group participants were also more likely than non-members to report that they *usually measure* their success in reaching goals related to direct services. *Figure 16* shows this comparison. For nine of the eleven goals, a higher percentage of focus group participants than
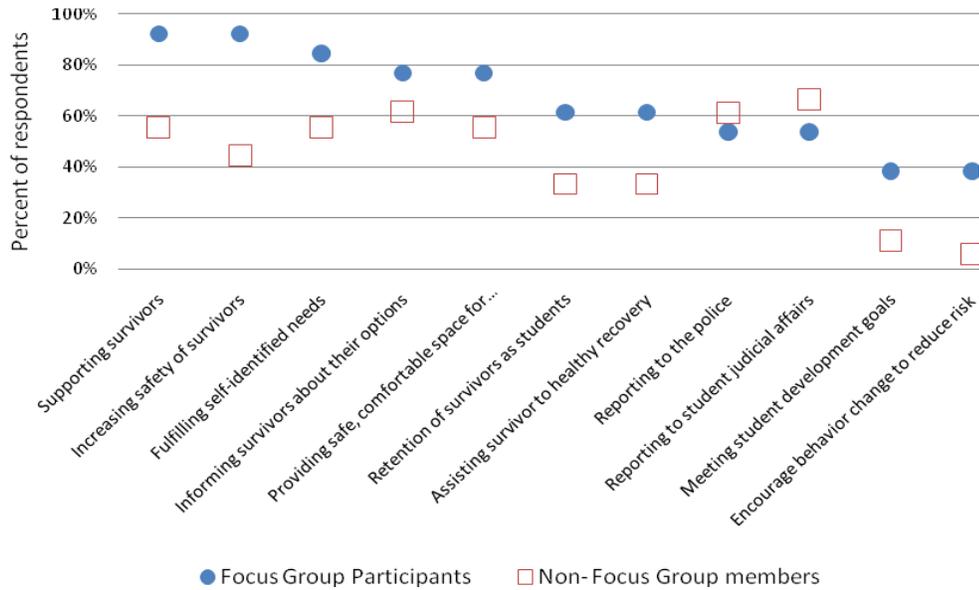

Figure 16: Goals indicated as *usually measured*. Focus group participants vs. non-participants.

non-members reported that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goals. The largest gap between focus group participants and non-members was related to the goal "increasing the safety of survivors" where 92.3 percent of participants indicated that they *usually measure* their success and only 44.4 percent of non-members reported the same. The average difference between focus group participants and non-members on these nine goals is 29.6 percent, and the difference between the groups is 20 percentage points or greater on eight of these goals nine goals. For the two remaining goals, "reporting to police" and "reporting to student judicial affairs," a higher percentage of non-members than focus group participants reported that they measured their success related to their goals. The average difference between non-members and focus group participants on these two goals is 10.1 percent.

Despite the fact that focus group participants had an overall higher likelihood of identifying a goal as *very important* and reporting that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goals, focus group participants and non-members reported very similar relative rankings of which goals were *very important*. *Table 23* shows the relative ranking of direct services goals based on the percentage of focus group respondents who identified them as *very important* and compares this ranking to that of non-members. "*Informing survivors about their options*" and "*supporting survivors*" are first in the ranking for both focus group participants and non-members. There was also agreement that "reporting to student judicial affairs," "meeting student development goals," and "encouraging survivors to change their behavior to reduce their risk" were the three goals that received the lowest relative ranking.

Table 23. Relative Ranking of Direct Services Goals that are *Very Important*

Goal	Rank order by focus group participants	Rank order by non-members	Percent of focus group participants	Percent of Non-members
Informing survivors about their options	1	1	100.0%	100.0%
Supporting survivors	1	1	100.0%	100.0%
Increasing safety of survivors	1	4	100.0%	94.4%
Providing safe, comfortable space for disclosure	4	1	92.3%	100.0%
Fulfilling self-identified needs	4	6	92.3%	77.8%
Retention of survivors as students	4	7	92.3%	44.4%
Assisting survivor to healthy recovery	5	5	84.6%	88.9%
Reporting to the police	6	8	30.8%	5.6%
Reporting to student judicial affairs	7	8	30.8%	5.6%
Meeting student development goals	8	8	15.4%	5.6%
Encourage behavior change to reduce risk	8	9	15.4%	0.0%

The difference in the ranked positions of the remaining goals is less than two places with the exception of "the retention of survivors as students" and "increasing the safety of survivors," both of which were ranked three places higher by focus group participants than non-members.

There was less alignment in the rankings of goals that respondents *usually measure*. As is shown in *Table 24*, there are five goals where the difference in rank is three places or more, with the biggest gap in ranking being for the goal "reporting to student judicial affairs," which received a rank of first (most likely to be usually measured) for non-members and eighth (most likely to be usually measured) by focus group participants. There is greater alignment at the bottom of the rankings where both focus group participants and non-members indicated that they were least likely to *usually measure* their success in reaching the goals of "meeting student development goals" and "encouraging survivors to change their behavior to reduce risk."

Table 24. Relative Ranking of Direct Services Goals that are *Usually Measured*

Goal	Rank order by focus group participants	Rank order by non-members	Percent of focus group participants	Percent of Non-members
Supporting survivors	1	4	92.3%	55.6%
Increasing safety of survivors	1	7	92.3%	44.4%
Fulfilling self-identified needs	3	4	84.6%	55.6%
Informing survivors about their options	4	2	76.9%	61.6%
Providing safe, comfortable space for disclosure	4	4	76.9%	55.6%
Retention of survivors as students	6	8	61.5%	33.3%
Assisting survivor to healthy recovery	6	8	61.5%	33.3%
Reporting to the police	8	3	53.8%	61.1%
Reporting to student judicial affairs	8	1	53.8%	66.7%
Meeting student development goals	10	10	38.5%	11.1%
Encourage behavior change to reduce risk	10	11	38.5%	5.9%

Goal importance and measurement effort: Educational programming. The pattern of focus group participants being more likely to indicate that a goal was *very important* and that they *usually measure* their success in reaching goals also emerged with respect to educational programming. *Figure 17* compares the percentage of respondents who indicated that an educational goal was very *important* based on whether they were focus group participants or non-members. Although for most goals the percentages were closely aligned, focus group participants were more likely to indicate that a goal was *very important* for seven of the nine goals. The largest difference, and the only difference of 20 percentage points or greater, was in regard to the goal of audience engagement where 85.7 percent of participants but only 63.2 percent of non-members reported that it was *very important*. The average percentage difference for these seven goals is 10.9 percent. For the two goals where a higher percentage of non-members indicated that they were *very important*, the average difference was 5.4 percent.
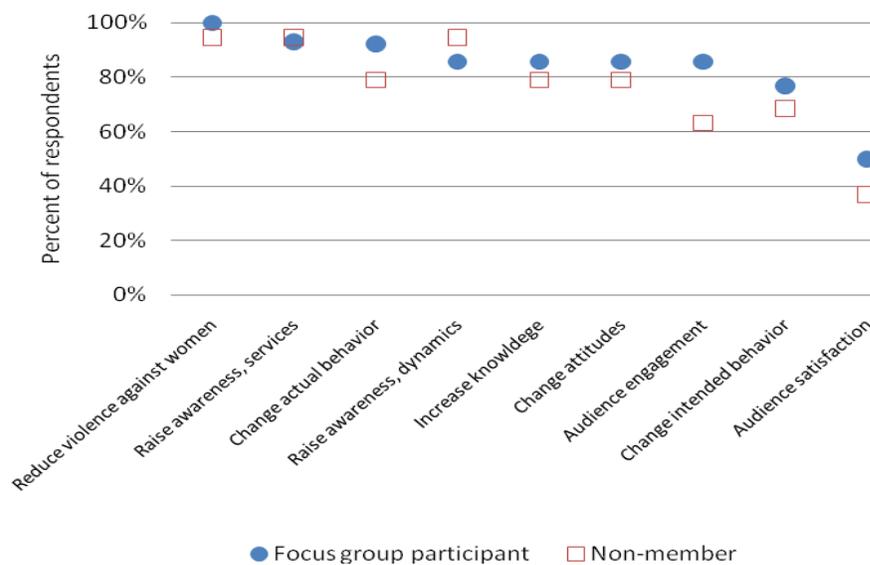
Figure 17. Goal is indicated as *very important* for educational programming: Focus group participants vs. non-participants.

A higher percentage of focus group participants indicated that they *usually measure* each of the educational programming goals with the exception of "reducing violence against women on campus," where 78.9 percent of non-members but only 71.4 of focus group participants indicated *usually measure*. *Figure 18* shows this comparison. On the remaining nine goals, the average difference between the percentage of focus group participants and non-members who said that they *usually measure* their success in reaching their educational goals was 20.7
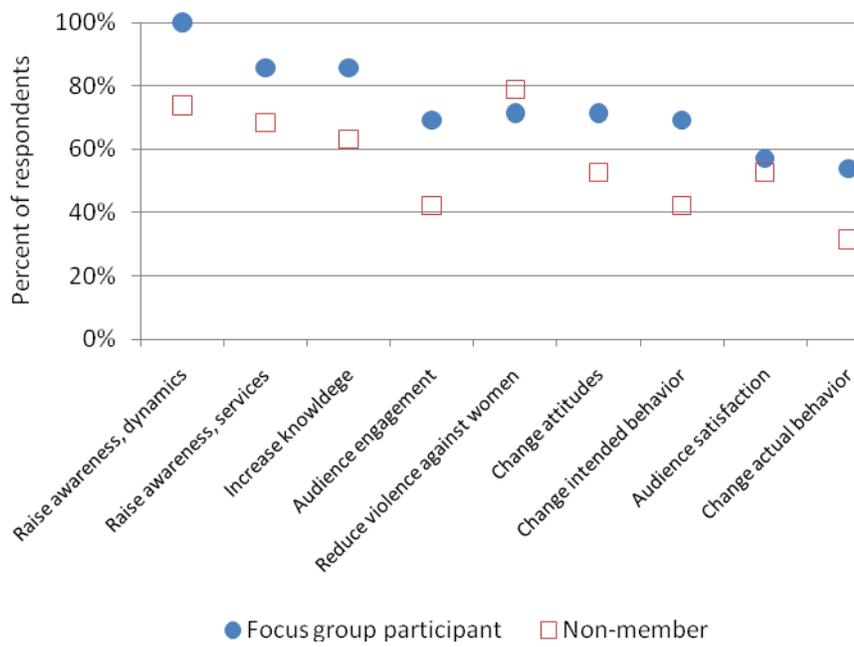
Figure 18. Educational goal is *usually measured*: Focus group participants vs. non-participants.

percent. The difference between focus group participants and non-members was 20 percentage points or greater on five of the goals: "audience engagement," "changing the intended behavior of audience members," "raising awareness about the dynamics of violence against women,"

"increasing the knowledge of audience members regarding violence against women," and

"changing the actual behavior of audience members."

Much like the case with direct services goals and measurement efforts, focus group

participants and non-members reported highly similar rankings of which educational goals are

very important. *Table 25* shows the relative ranking of educational programming goals based on

the percentage of focus group respondents who identified them as *very important* and compares

this ranking to that of non-members. "Reducing violence against women on campus" and

"raising awareness about direct services" ranked in either the first or second place for both focus

group participants and non-members. Likewise, "changing the intended behavior of audience

members" and "audience satisfaction" were ranked in one of the bottom three places for both

groups. The least agreement between the groups was on the goals of "raising awareness about the

dynamics of violence against women" and "audience engagement," each of which was ranked in

the fourth place by focus group participants, but ranked in either the first or eighth place,

respectively, by non-members.

Table 25. Relative Ranking of Educational Goals that are *Very Important*

Goal	Rank order by focus group participants	Rank order by non-members	Percentage of focus group participants	Percentage of non-members
Reduce violence against women	1	1	100.0%	94.7%
Raise awareness, services	2	1	92.9%	94.7%
Change actual behavior	2	4	92.3%	78.9%
Raise awareness, dynamics	4	1	85.7%	94.7%
Increase knowledge	4	4	85.7%	78.9%
Change attitudes	4	4	85.7%	78.9%
Audience engagement	4	8	85.7%	63.2%
Change intended behavior	8	7	76.9%	68.4%
Audience satisfaction	9	9	50.0%	36.8%

In contrast to the comparison of focus group participants and non-members regarding whether they *usually measure* the goals of their direct services programs, there was some general agreement between the groups as to whether they *usually measure* the goals of their educational programming. *Table 26* shows the relative ranking of educational programming goals based on the percentage of focus group respondents who reported that they *usually measure* them and compares this ranking to that of non-members. For six of the nine goals, the relative ranking is within two places when comparing across groups. For the remaining three goals, "audience satisfaction," "audience engagement," and "reducing violence against women on campus," the difference between the two groups in their relative ranking is three places or more. Based on the relative rankings, non-members were more likely to report that they *usually measure* their success related to "reducing violence against women on campus" and "audience satisfaction," and focus group participants were more likely to report that they measure their success related to "audience engagement."

Table 26. Relative Ranking of Educational Goals that are *Usually Measured*

Goal	Rank order by focus group participants	Rank order by non-members	Percentage of focus group participants	Percentage of non-members
Raise awareness, dynamics	1	2	100.0%	73.7%
Raise awareness, services	2	3	85.7%	68.4%
Increase knowledge	2	4	85.7%	63.2%
Audience engagement	4	7	69.2%	42.1%
Reduce violence against women	5	1	71.4%	78.9%
Change attitudes	5	5	71.4%	52.6%
Change intended behavior	7	7	69.2%	42.1%
Audience satisfaction	8	5	57.1%	52.6%
Change actual behavior	9	9	53.8%	31.6%

154

Program is More than Eight Years Old vs. Program is Two Years Old or Less

Indicators of success. The second sub-group analysis compares the survey responses of program staff members based on the tenure of the program that they represented. There was very little difference regarding the indicators of success of the direct services program based on the length of time a program had been operational. The biggest difference between programs that had been operational for more than eight years and those that had been operational for less than two years is that the former was much more likely to report that "the goals of the program are met" is an *important indicator* of success. Indeed, whereas 75 percent of programs with more than eight years of experience reported that this indicator was *important*, only 20 percent of programs with less than two years of experience reported the same. Given that there was also a substantial difference in identifying this indicator of success as *important* in the focus group comparison, the data were analyzed to determine whether or not the membership of the comparison groups based on focus group participation approximated the membership of the comparison groups based on program tenure.

It may have been the case that the staff from programs that made up the focus group participants were the same or nearly the same programs that were represented in the more experienced program group. This would explain why these two groups were so similar in the low percentage of respondents who indicated that "the goals of the program are met" is an *important indicator* of success. However, as is shown in *Table 26*, the membership of the groups did not have significant overlap. In fact, respondents from programs with more than eight years of experience were *less likely* to be focus group participants than were respondents from programs that were operational for two years or less. Thus, the comparison between groups based on program tenure is a comparison of groups that is different from those compared in the previous section (based on focus group participation).

155

Table 27. Focus Group Participation Based on Tenure of Program

	2 years or less	8 or more years
Focus group participant	3	3
Non-member	3	5

Besides the disagreement between the experienced and novice groups regarding the importance of the indicator "the goals of the program are met," there was not much difference between the groups on the importance of indicators. Indeed, there was a 20 percentage point difference or less between the two groups for each of the remaining indicators of success of direct services programs. *Figure 19* shows the indicators of success that were reported as *important* based on the tenure of the program.
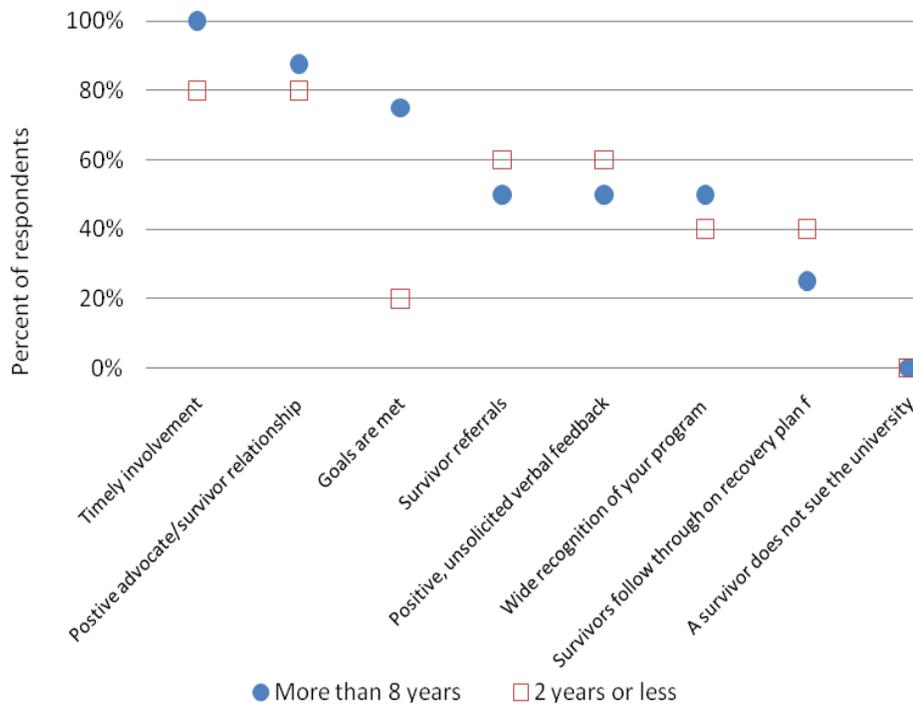
Figure 19. Important indicators of success for direct services: Programs operational for 8 years or more vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.

There was a bit more variation in the results of the comparison based on program tenure regarding the importance of indicators of success for educational programming. There was more than a 20 percent difference between the respondents representing programs that had been operational for more than eight years and those representing programs that had been operational for two years or less on three of the indicators. *Figure 20* shows the percentage of respondents who reported that an indicator of success was *important* based on the tenure of the program. As was the case with the comparison of indicators for direct services, the biggest difference between the groups was on the indicator "goals are met" where 62.5 percent of respondents from experienced programs but only 16.7 percent of respondents from novice programs indicated that this was an *important indicator* of success. Less experienced programs were more likely to choose "audience members remain after the presentation to talk further" and "audience members/groups ask you to come back" as i*mportant indicators* of success than were the experienced programs. Whereas one-half (50 percent) of the less experienced programs reported that remaining after the presentation to talk was an *important indicator* of success, only 12.5 percent of the experienced programs reported as such; and whereas 83.3 percent of less experienced programs reported that being asked back was an *important indicator* of success, this indicator was described as *important* by 50 percent of the more experienced programs.

Methods of assessment. Three quarters (75 percent) of staff members from programs operating eight years or more and 40 percent of staff members from programs operating less than two years reported that "staff meetings with advocates" was an *always* or *frequently used* method of assessment related to direct services. More experienced programs were also more likely to report the use of "surveys related to program effectiveness." Whereas one-quarter (25 percent) of respondents from the experienced programs reported that this was an *always* or *frequently used*

method of assessment, none of the respondents from the novice programs reported as such. The

difference between the groups was 20 percent or less with respect to each of the remaining
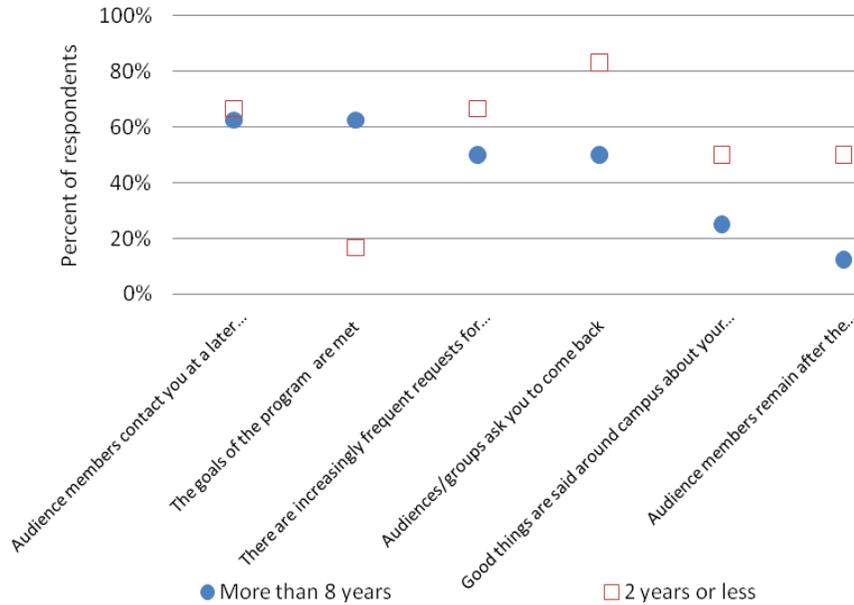

Figure 20. Important indicators of success of educational programming: Programs operational for more than 8 years vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.

methods of assessment related to direct services with the exception of "tracking case details

related to demographics, location, etc.," which was reported as *always* or *frequently used* by 60

percent of staff members from novice programs, but only 37.5 percent of respondents from the

more experienced programs. *Figure 21* shows the comparison of methods of assessment related to

direct services that were *always* or *frequently used* based on program tenure.

Three of the methods of assessment related to educational programming that were

presented as choices on the survey were reported as either *always* or *frequently used* by

substantially more staff members from novice programs than by staff members from

experienced programs. More than three-quarters (83.3 percent) of respondents from programs

operating less than 2 years, but only 40 percent of respondents from programs operating more

than eight years, indicated that "debriefing with presenters" was an *always* or *frequently used* method of assessment. Administering a "campus climate survey" was reported as *always* or *frequently used* by 66.7 percent of the novice programs and 37.5 percent of the experienced
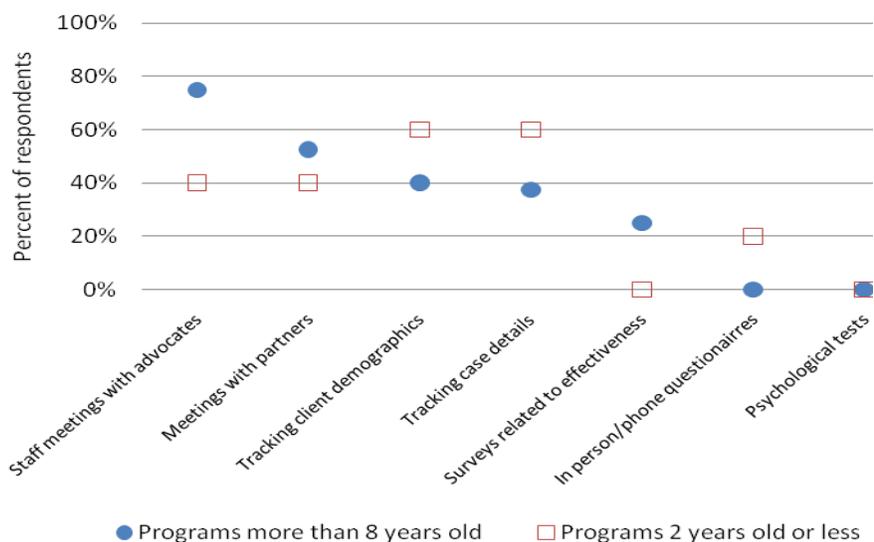

Figure 21. *Always* or *frequently* **used methods of assessment for direct services: Programs operational for 8 years or more vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.**

programs. Finally, whereas one-third (33.4 percent) of the respondents representing programs with tenures of less than two years indicated that they *always* or *frequently use* "observation" as a method of assessment, none of the respondents from programs with tenures of eight years or more reported as such. *Figure 22* shows the comparison of methods of assessment related to educational programming that are *always* or *frequently used* based on program tenure.

Goal Importance. Staff members from programs operating two years or less were more likely than or as likely as staff members from programs operating more than eight years to indicate that each goal related to direct services was *very important*. Indeed, of the ten goals related to direct services given as options on the survey, six of them (informing survivors about
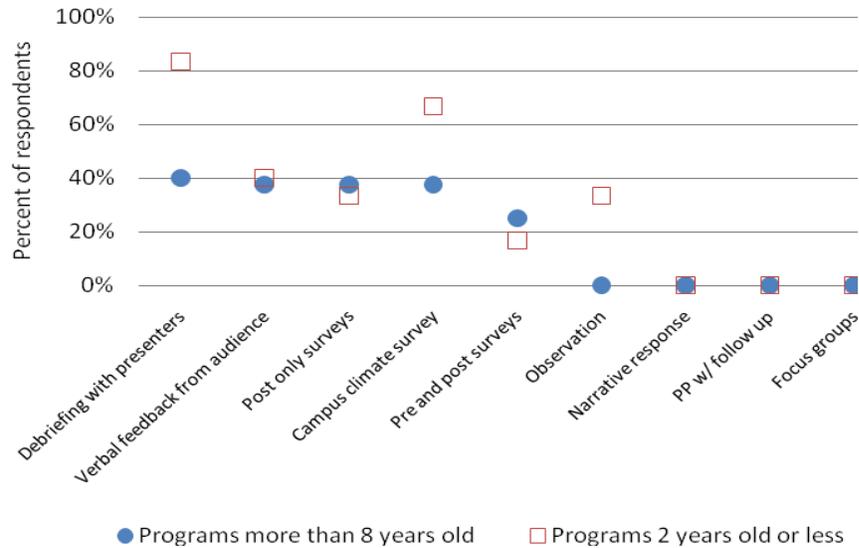
Figure 22. *Always* or *frequently* **used methods of assessment for education: Programs operational for 8 years or more vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.**

their options, supporting survivors, increasing the safety of survivors, fulfilling the self-identified

needs of survivors, assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery, and providing a safe, comfortable

space for disclosure) were reported as *very important* by 100 percent of respondents from the

novice programs. Three of these six (informing survivors about their options, supporting

survivors, and increasing the safety of survivors) were also described as *very important* by 100

percent of staff members from the experienced programs. The remaining three of these six were

reported as *very important* by 87.5 percent of the respondents from the experienced programs.

The biggest differences between the groups were on the goals related to reporting the incident.

Whereas 40 percent of staff members from novice programs indicated that both "reporting to the

police" and "reporting to student judicial affairs" was a *very important* goal, only 12.5 percent of

staff members from more experienced programs reported as such (for each goal). Finally, none

of the respondents from programs operating for more than eight years indicated that "encouraging

behavior change to reduce the risk of the survivor" was an important goal, but 20 percent of the

160

respondents from programs operating two years or less did report as such. *Figure 23* shows the

percentage of respondents indicating that a goal related to direct services is *very important*

according to the tenure of the program.

There was very little difference between the two groups with respect to the importance of

goals related to educational programming. There were percentage differences of greater than 20

percent on only two of the items: "Change attitudes (i.e., rape supportive attitudes)," where 87.5

percent of staff members from more experienced programs reported that this goal is *very*

important but only 66.7 percent of staff members from novice programs reported as such; and

"audience satisfaction" where the percentages were 37.5 percent and 16.7 percent, respectively.

Figure 24 shows the percentage of respondents indicating that a goal related to educational

programming is *very important* according to the tenure of the program.
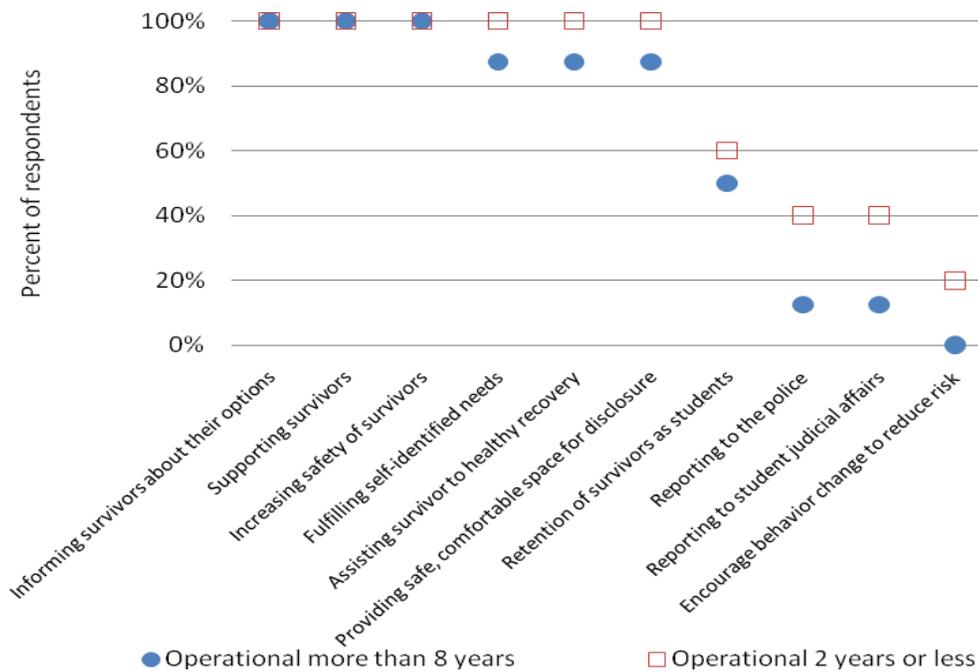
**Figure 23. Goal is very important for direct services: Programs operational for 8 years or more vs. programs operational for 2 years or less**

Measurement effort. Staff members from programs operating for two years or less were more likely to report that they *usually measure* their success on nine of the eleven goals given as options on the survey. The difference between the two groups was greater than 20 percent on four of the goals. First, more than three quarters (80 percent) of the novice programs but only one-half (50 percent) of the experienced programs indicated that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goal "providing a safe, comfortable space for survivors." Second, 60 percent of the novice programs but only 37.5 percent of experienced programs reported that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goal "assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery."
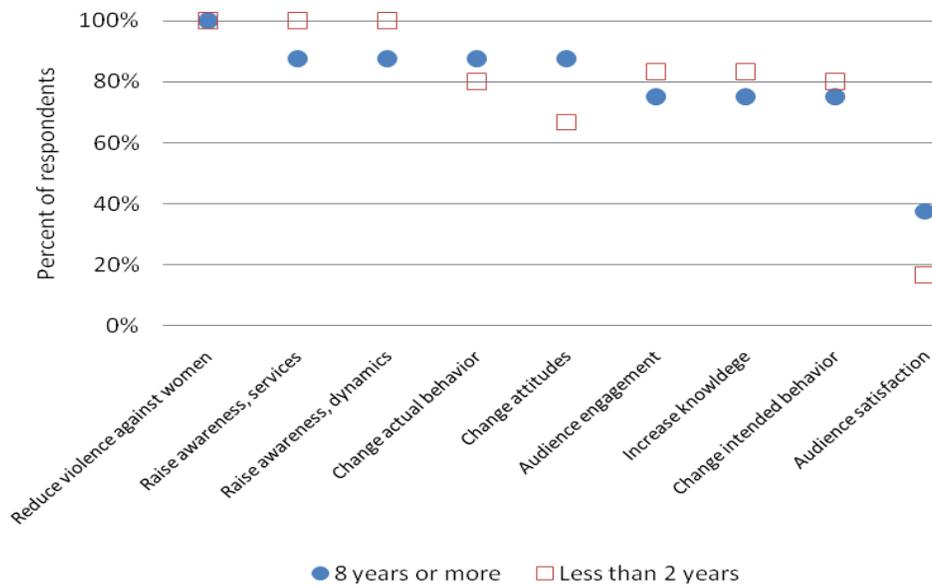
Figure 24. Goal is very important for educational programming: Programs operational for 8 years or more vs. programs operational for 2 years or less

Third, the goal "retention of survivors as students" was reported as *usually measured* by 60 percent of programs operating 2 years or less and 12.5 percent of programs operating for more than eight years. Fourth, 60 percent of novice programs but none of the more experienced programs indicated that they usually measure "meeting student development goals." *Figure 25*

162

shows the percentage of staff members indicating that they *usually measure* their success in reaching each goal related to victim services according to the tenure of the program.

The likelihood of measuring success in reaching goals related to educational programming was more evenly distributed between the two groups. Staff members from programs operational for two years or less were more likely to report that they *usually measure* their success on five of the nine goals presented as options on the survey, and staff members from the experienced programs were more likely to report that measure their success on four of the nine goals. Differences of greater than 20 percent emerged between the two groups on five of the nine goals, with a higher percentage of novice programs reporting that they *usually measure* success on three of the goals and a higher percentage of experienced programs reporting that they *usually measure* success related to two of the goals. Figure 26 shows the percentage of staff members indicating that they *usually measure* their success in reaching each goal related to educational programming according to the tenure of the program.

More novice programs (83.3 percent) than experienced programs (62.5 percent) reported that they *usually measure* their success related to "changing attitudes (i.e., rape supportive attitudes)." Likewise, more novice programs (83.3 percent) than experienced programs (62.5 percent) reported that they *usually measure* their success related to "reducing violence against women on campus." Regarding the goal "audience engagement," more than twice as many respondents from programs operating two years or less indicated that they *usually measure* (80 percent) than did respondents from programs operating more than eight years (37.5 percent). More experienced programs (62.5 percent) than novice programs (40 percent) reported that they *usually measure* their success related to "actual behavior change of audience members/participants."

163

Budgets of 100K or Less vs. Budgets of 200K or More

Indicators of success. When comparing programs based on their budgets, a difference of

greater than 20 percentage points emerged on only one indicator of success: 42.9 percent of

respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less agreed that "survivors follow through

on their plan for recovery" was an *important indicator* of success, but none of the respondents

from programs with budgets of 200K or more indicated as such. The highest percentage of

respondents from both groups chose "timely involvement when a case emerges on campus" and

"a positive survivor-advocate relationship" as important indicators of success, and the lowest

percentage of respondents from both groups chose "a survivor does not sue the university" as an

important indicator of success. More than three-quarters of the respondents (80 percent) from
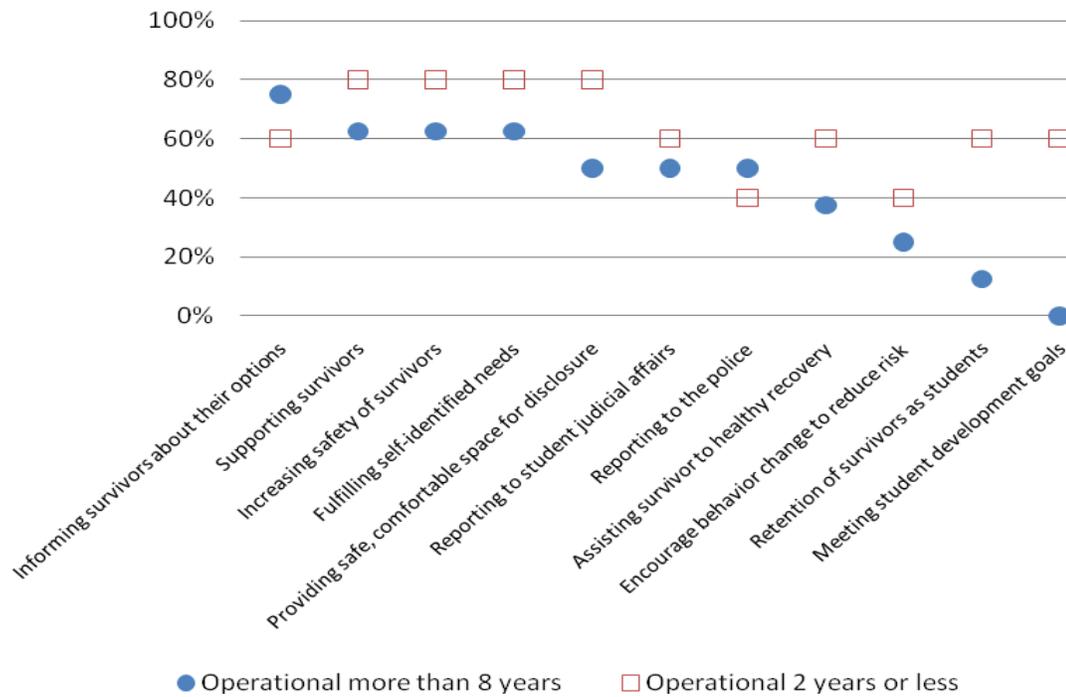
Figure 25. Goal is *usually measured* for direct services: Programs operational for more than 8 years vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.

164
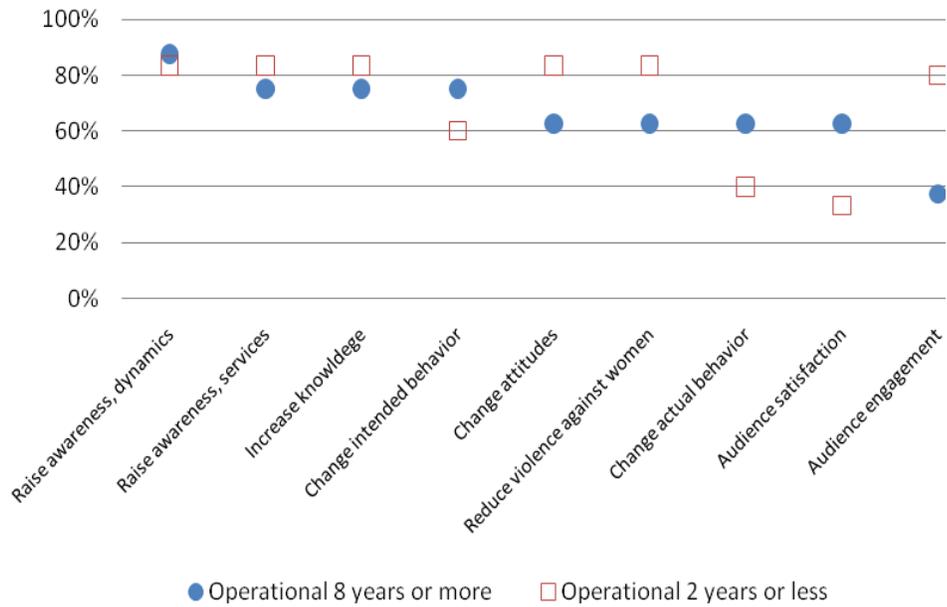
Figure 26. Goal is *usually measured* for educational programming: Programs operational for more than 8 years vs. programs operational for 2 years or less.

programs with larger budgets and 64.3 percent of respondents from programs with smaller budgets indicated that "the goal of the program are met" was an important indicator of success. *Figure 27* shows the important indicators of success for direct services according to program budget.
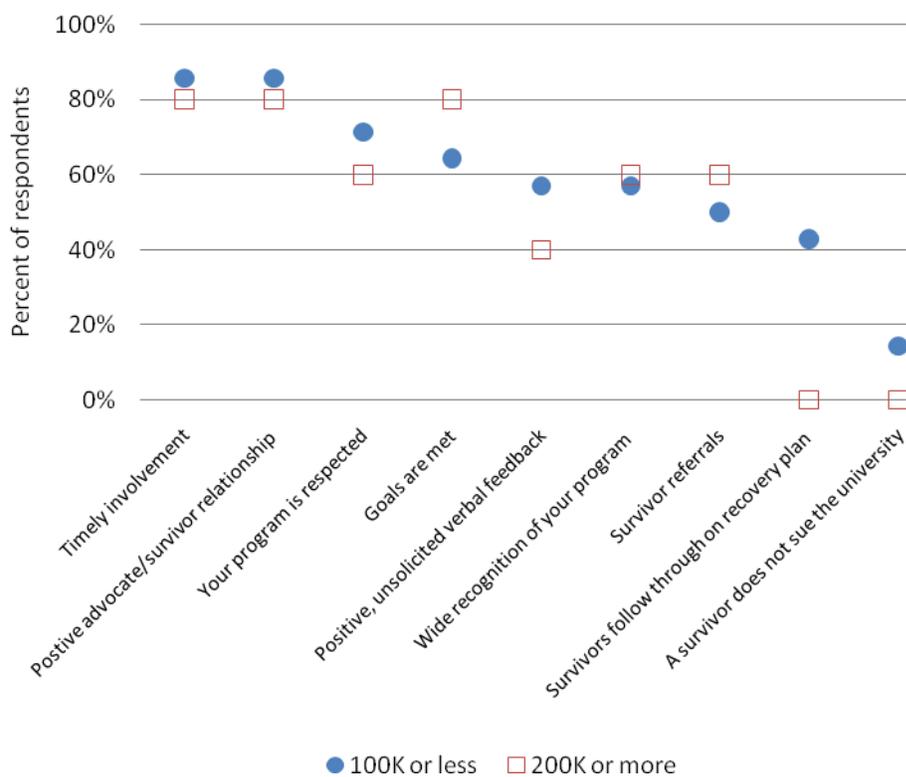
Figure 27. Important indicators of success for direct services: Budgets of 100K or less vs. budgets of 200K or more.

There was more variation based on program budget related to important indicators of success for educational programming. Differences of greater than 20 percentage points emerged on three of the six indicators of success presented as choices on the survey. For each of these three, more respondents from programs with annual budgets of less than 100K reported that they were *important indicators* of success. Whereas 75 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less said that "audience members contact you at a later date with an issue related to violence against women" was an *important indicator* of success of their educational programming, only 40 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more indicated as such. The statement "good things are said about your program around campus" was chosen as an *important indicator* of success for 43.8 percent of staff members from programs

166

with smaller budgets and 20 percent of staff members from programs with larger budgets.

Finally, 37.7 percent of the small-budget respondents, but none of the big-budget respondents

said that "audience members remain after the presentation to talk further" was an *important*

indicator of success. *Figure 28* shows the important indicators of success for educational

programming according to program budget.
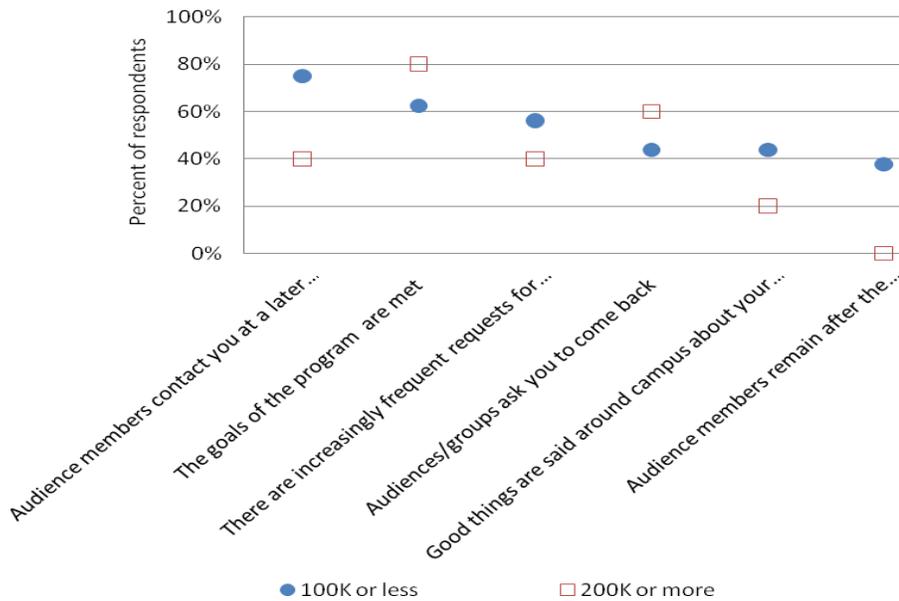
Figure 28. Important indicators of success for educational programming: Budgets of 100K or less vs. budgets of 200K or more.

Methods of assessment. There was substantial difference between the groups on the

percentage of respondents who indicated that they *always* or *frequently use* certain methods of

assessment related to direct services. A higher percentage of respondents from programs with

budgets of 200K or more (40 percent) reported that they *always* or *frequently use* "surveys related

to program effectiveness" than did respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less (14.2

percent). However, a higher percentage of respondents from the small-budget programs indicated

that they *always* or *frequently use* three of the six methods given as choices on the survey.

167

"Tracking case details" was reported as *always* or *frequently used* by 57.2 of the small budget programs but only 20 percent of the big budget programs. Likewise, "meetings with partners" and "tracking client demographics" were reported as *always* or *frequently used* methods of assessment by 50 percent of small-budget programs but only 20 percent and zero percent, respectively, of the big-budget programs. *Figure 29* shows the methods of assessment that were *always* or *frequently used* for direct services according to program budget.
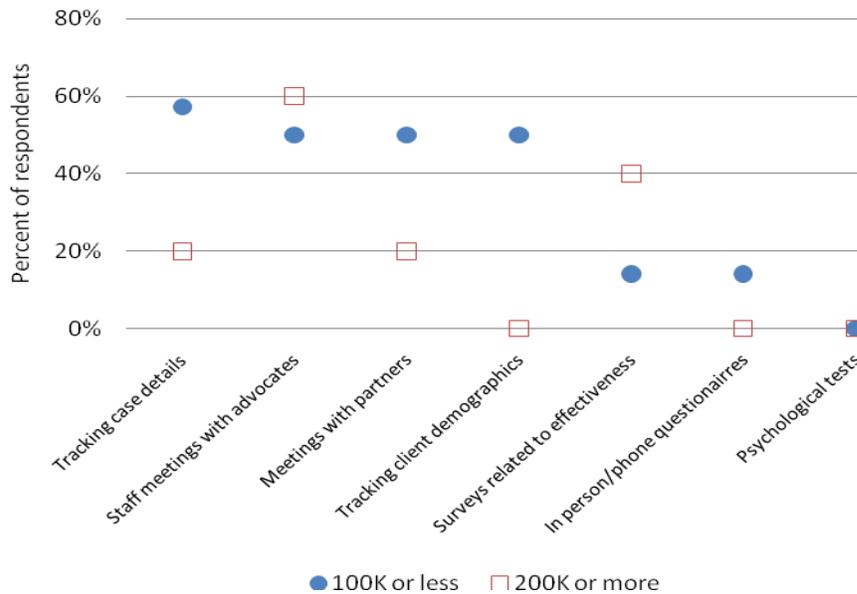
Figure 29. Always or frequently used methods of assessment for direct services: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.

There was a difference of 20 percentage points or more related to the frequency of use on four of the nine methods of assessment for educational programming. Whereas none of the respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less indicated that they *always* or *frequently use* "pre- and post- surveys" or "pre- and post-surveys with a follow-up," twenty percent of the respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more said they *always* or *frequently use* each of these methods. Forty percent of respondents from small-budget programs and 20 percent of respondents from big-budget programs reported that they *always* or *frequently use* a "campus

climate survey", and 43.8 percent of staff members from programs with budgets of 100K or less

indicated that they *always* or *frequently use* "verbal feedback from the audience" as a method of

assessment, but none of the staff members from programs with budgets of 200K or more

indicated as such. *Figure 30* shows the methods of assessment that were *always* or *frequently*

*used* for educational programming according to program budget.
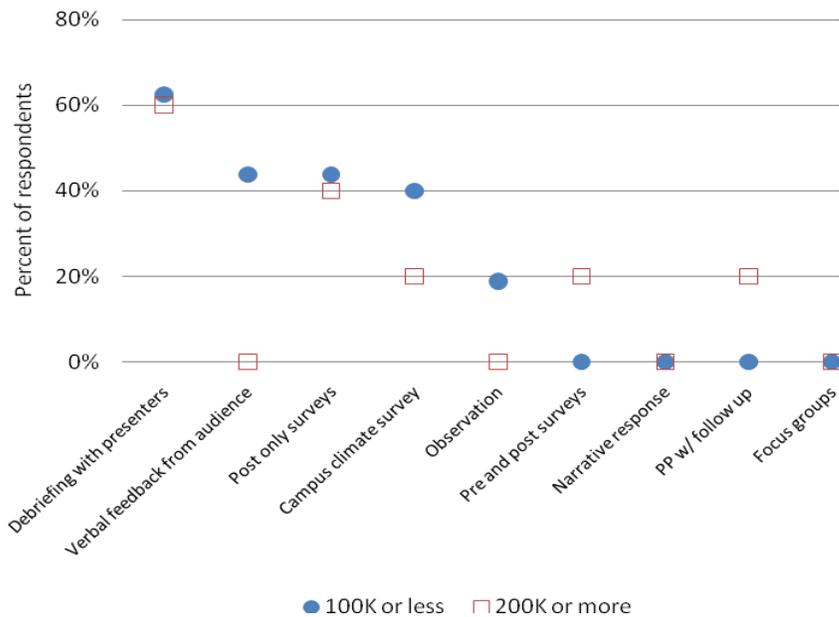
**Figure 30. Always or frequently used methods of assessment for educational
programming: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.**

Goal Importance. All of the respondents (100 percent) from programs with budgets of

100K or less and all (100 percent) of the respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or

more agreed that four of the goals related to direct services given as choices on the survey were

very important: "Informing survivors about their options," "supporting survivors," "increasing the

safety of survivors," and "providing a safe, comfortable space for disclosure." However, there

was a difference between the groups of over 20 percentage points on five of the eleven goals.

Nearly all (92.9 percent) of staff members from the small-budget programs, but only 60 percent

169

of respondents from big-budget programs said that "fulfilling the self-identified needs of survivors" was a *very important* goal. More respondents from the small-budget programs (78.6 percent) also indicated that "the retention of survivors as students" was a *very important* goal; this choice was indicated as *very important* by only 40 percent of respondents from big-budget programs. "Reporting to the police" and "reporting to student affairs" were both described as *very important* by 21.4 percent of the staff members from programs with budgets of 100K or less, but these goals were not reported as *very important* by any of the staff members from programs with budgets of 200K or more. The only goal that was described as *very important* by a higher percentage of respondents from big-budget programs was "assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery." For this goal, 100 percent of the big-budget respondents but only 78.6 percent of the small-budget respondents indicated that it was *very important*. *Figure 31* shows the *very important* goals for direct services based on program budget.

There was also some variation with respect to opinions about goal importance related to educational programming. All of the staff members from programs with budgets of 100K or less and 80 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more said that the goal "raise awareness about your direct services" was *very important*. The goal "audience engagement" was described as a *very important* goal by 81.4 percent of the staff members from small-budget programs and 60 percent of respondents from big-budget programs. Two of the goals were described as *very important* by a higher percentage of respondents from big-budget programs than respondents from small-budget programs. Eighty percent of staff members from
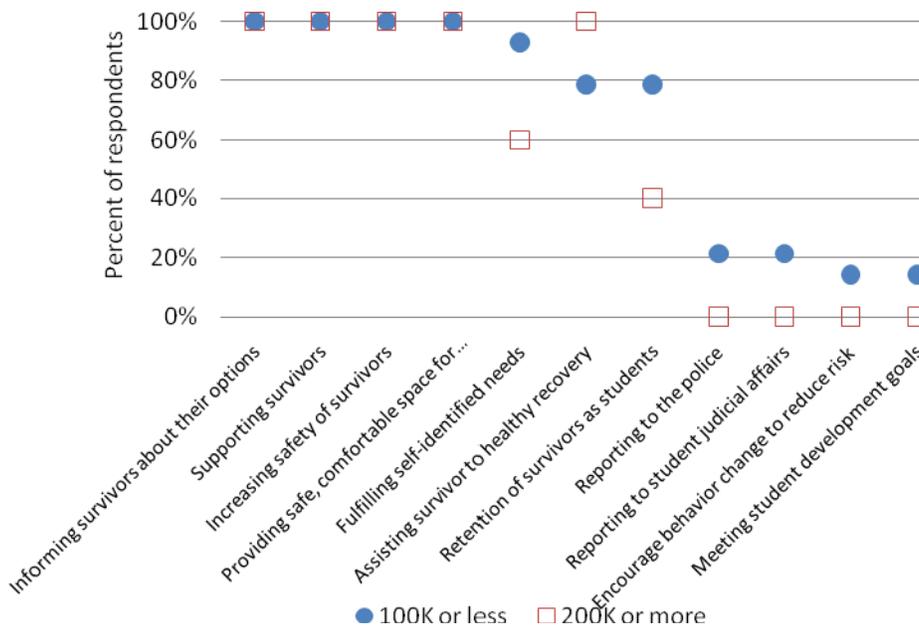
Figure 31. Very important goal for direct services: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.

 big-budget programs and 60 percent of staff members from small-budget programs reported that the goal "change the intended behavior of audience members" was *very important*; and, whereas 60 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more said that "audience satisfaction" was a *very important* goal, only 37.5 percent of the respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less indicated such. *Figure 32* shows the *very important* goals for educational programming based on program budget.

> *Measurement effort.* For *every* goal related to direct services, a higher percentage of respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less than respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more reported that they *usually measure* them. Differences of 20 percentage points or more emerged on four of the eleven goals. Whereas 64.3 percent of small-budget respondents said that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goal of "making a report to student judicial affairs," only 20 percent of big-budget respondents indicated such. Both

171
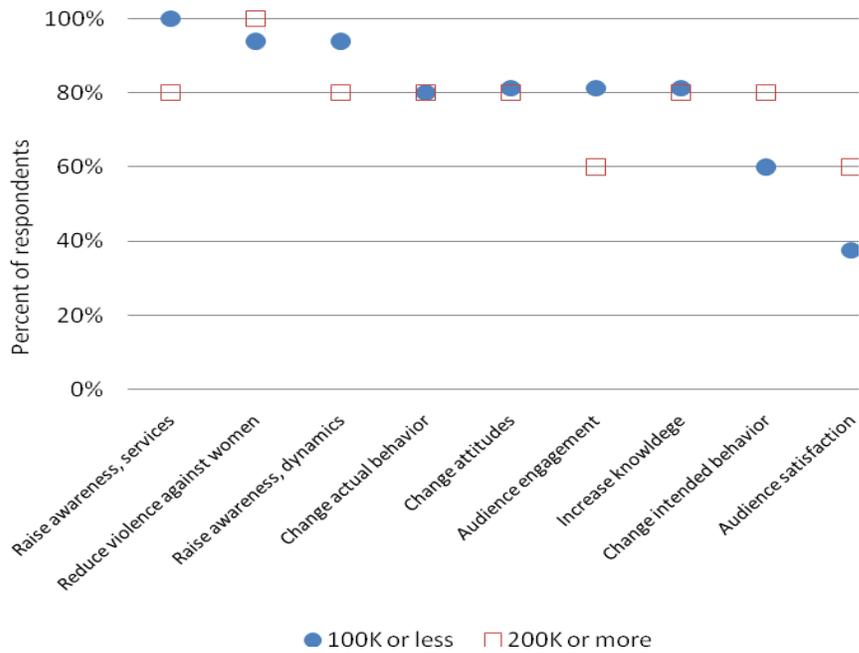
Figure 32. Very important goal for educational programming: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.

"making reports to the police" and "the retention of survivors as students" were indicated as *usually measured* by 51.7 percent of respondents from the programs with small budgets and 20 percent of respondents from the programs with larger budgets. Finally, 35.7 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less, but none of the respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more indicated that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goal "meeting the student development goals of the institution." *Figure 33* shows the direct services goals that are usually measured according to program budget.

A higher percentage of respondents from programs with budgets of 100K or less than respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more indicated that they *usually measure* their success in reaching seven of the nine goals related to educational programming that were

presented as choices on the survey. Differences of 20 percentage points or more emerged on three

of these seven goals. Whereas 81.3 percent of staff members from small-budget programs said
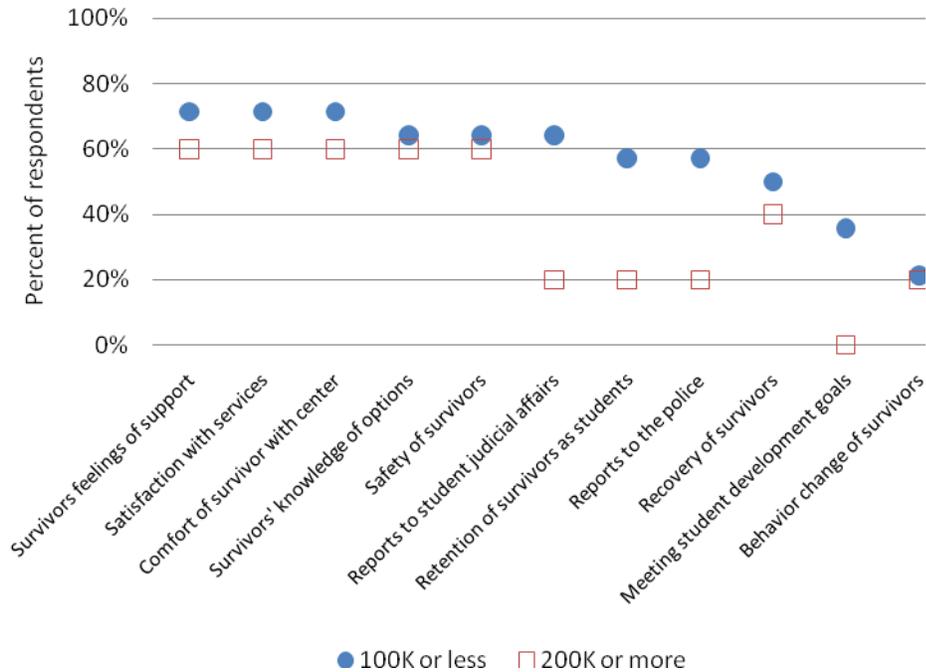
Figure 33. Usually measure goals for direct services: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.

that they *usually measure* their success in reaching the goal of "increasing the knowledge of

audience members" only 60 percent of respondents from programs with budgets of 200K or more

reported such. Three-quarters (75 percent) of respondents from small-budget programs and 40

percent of respondents from big-budget programs indicated that they *usually measure* their

success in reaching the goal of "changing attitudes, (i.e. rape supportive attitudes)." Finally, the

goal of "audience engagement" was reported as being *usually measured* by 60 percent of

respondents from programs with small budgets and 20 percent of staff members from programs

with larger budgets. The one goal where more big-budget respondents than small-budget

respondents said that they usually measure their success and where the difference was 20

percentage points or greater was "the actual behavior change of audience members." Sixty

percent of staff members from programs with budgets of 200K or more and 20 percent of

respondents from programs with 100K or less reported that they *usually measure* their success in

reaching this goal. *Figure 34* shows the educational programming goals that were usually

measured according to program budget.
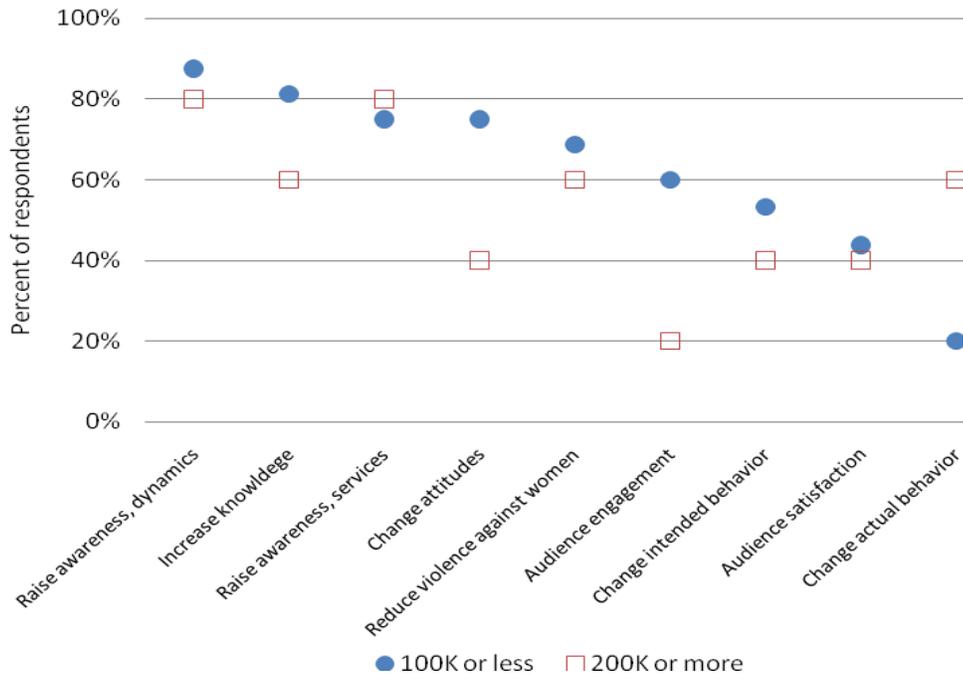
Figure 34. Usually measure goals for educational programming: Budgets of 100K or under vs. budgets of 200K or more.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Introduction

Several inferences can be made from the results presented in the previous section. As this study is exploratory in nature and as the population under investigation is relatively small, no conclusions can be drawn with certainty. However, there are several areas of convergence between the focus group and survey results that can serve as a base for understanding the goals and assessment practices of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs. This section includes a discussion of the following claims that emerge from this research:

1) The goals of campus-based programs were clearly defined;

2) The definition of success of victim services was more focused on process than outcomes, although the age and budget of a program appear to affect staff's interest in outcomes;

3) Success for a program included and must balance goals related to the survivor, the program, the system, and the university;

4) Outcomes were more important for educational programming than for direct services, and again the age and budget of a program could affect decisions;

5) Program staff members used local assessments, administered with various levels of sophistication, as well as published research and evaluation, to inform decisions about educational programming;

6) The experience and knowledge about evaluation appeared to vary widely among program staff members;

7) Although there were some exceptions, many programs did not engage in any formal evaluation of their direct services; and,

175

8) Regardless of the somewhat limited development of systematic evaluation across programs, there was some evidence of the instrumental, conceptual, symbolic, and process use of evaluation.

Following a discussion of these claims, I investigate the differences in the survey results of the focus group participants as compared to the non-participants. This discussion is necessary because the focus group participants were included in the population of survey respondents. Most of the differences between these two groups were expected and in the predicted direction. However, I also discuss some unexpected differences between the groups and the implications of such differences for understanding the overall results of this research. Next, I investigate places where the data from the focus group results diverge from the data on the survey and also consider some survey results that raise questions about the intent of respondents on some items. Finally, I discuss how using a feminist lens shaped the findings of this research.

Discussion of Research Findings

Goals are Clearly Defined

The focus group participants defined goals quite clearly and, with the exception of "avoiding liability," these goals were also overwhelmingly identified by survey respondents. It seems there is a clear understanding of goals related to serving survivors and that it is quite consistent across the universities. A large majority of survey respondents (over two-thirds) confirmed the importance of eight of the nine goals that were given as choices on the survey and based on the results of the focus group. The remaining four goals were based on the literature review and the document review. Most of the goals were clearly victim-centered (i.e., informing survivors of their options, supporting survivors) and most of the indicators of success were closely related to either the interface of the survivor with the system ("systems advocacy") or the functioning of that response system itself (i.e., "the program is involved in a timely manner").

176

The same was true of educational goals. A large majority (over two-thirds) of survey respondents indicated that the goals identified by the focus group participants were very important, with the exception of one goal ("audience satisfaction"). Thus, as is the case with direct services, campus programs seem to have a clear idea of what goals they are trying to reach related to education.

Although the state of evaluation varied greatly across universities (discussed below), such agreement on goals demonstrates that campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs as a category may be far enough along in their development to be the subject of meaningful program evaluation. Worthen, Sanders, and Fitzpatrick (1997) discuss evaluability assessments and identify such agreement on goals as one of several elements that are necessary before a program evaluation should be conducted. Other criteria for meaningful evaluation include the plausibility of program objectives and well-defined intended uses of information. Because the goals across universities are similar, there may be opportunity to identify program theories of action (Weiss, 1997; Chen, 1990) and undertake evaluations based on a program's theory and/or planned variation (Yeh, 2000). This is not to say that such evaluation would not be complex, only that the consistency in goals across programs establishes a necessary base on which to build an evaluation both on the local level and even across universities.

Despite this consistency in the goals that were identified, there were indicators of success used by program staff that were unrelated to goals as defined. This may suggest that although clear and consistent, the goals discovered in this research are not exhaustive. For example, the results of both the focus groups and the survey showed that program advocates believed that a referral to the program from one survivor to another is an indicator of success. However, neither research method found that encouraging or attaining such referrals was a goal of the direct services program. There were similar examples related to the educational programming. Focus

177

group participants and survey respondents both reported that they know they are successful when there were increasingly frequent requests for their program; however, neither participants nor respondents identified "increasing the number of requests" as a goal. Additionally, "audience satisfaction," a possible proxy for such a goal, was ranked the second from the bottom in the list of goal importance by survey respondents. It is, of course, possible, that goals such as "attaining referrals" or "increasing requests" would have been chosen if they had been presented as options on the survey. However, the focus groups did not make reference to such goals and thus they were not included on the survey. The important point here is that although many goals are clearly defined, there may be additional goals of both direct services and educational programming that this research did not identify.

The Definition of Success of Victim Services

When it comes to direct services, staff members focus on process rather than outcomes. This was evidenced by the discussions and the survey responses related to the goals, the indicators of success, and the methods of assessment. While it is true that both the focus groups and survey identified some goals and indicators of success that were related to goal attainment and outcomes for victims, the data most clearly show that the focus of staff members was on the process, i.e., the response of the university and its program to cases of violence against women on campus. Goals such as "informing survivors about their options," indicators of success such as "timely involvement in a case," and methods of assessment such as "meetings with advocates and partners" and "tracking of cases" suggest that staff members were concerned about the response. At the same time, they were confident that an effective response would result in a successful outcome for survivors. That is, staff members indicated that they knew they were successful when the response system worked as it should, when their program was called promptly, and when they "give the survivor what she says she needs" and "don't screw her over."

178

Although the importance of process was evident in the results of both the focus groups

and the surveys, the survey results show more of an interest in meeting direct services goals than

did the focus group results. Nearly three-quarters of the survey respondents identified "the goals

of the program are met" as an important indicator of success. The level of importance of this

indicator was largely based on program age. The difference in the percentage of respondents from

experienced programs as compared to respondents from newer programs who chose "the goals of

the program are met" as an important indicator of success for direct services was nearly 60

percent. Such a difference should not be too surprising given that a newer program might be

reticent to base its success on goal attainment when it was still in a nascent stage of development.

The difference related to program age being noted, the general focus on process may be related to

the complex political environment in which campus-based programs operate. This topic is

discussed below.

Successful Programs Balance Goals of Numerous Stakeholders

As is argued by Gibbons (2009), the political context of campus programs is unique.

There are multiple stakeholders who, as the focus group results showed, may have goals that

contradict one another. This context can have an impact on how programs define and assess

success. It was clear from the focus group results that most of the universities represented

reportedly did not expect any evidence that direct service programs are effective, and very few

reportedly expected proof regarding the success of educational programming. According to focus

group participants, such disinterest on the part of university administrators may well be due to the

fact that violence against women on campus is an issue that the administration would just as soon

keep as quiet as possible. Some participants went so far as to say that as long as there were no

lawsuits, their programs were considered "good." This idea that victim services programs should

be seen (by those who need the services) but not heard (by anyone else), seems to diminish the

179

likelihood of evaluation, but it may also reduce the effectiveness of the program as well. For example, "systems advocacy" was identified as an important goal by both focus group participants and survey respondents. However, it can be difficult to advocate for a survivor in an unfriendly system where the expectation is that you will not rock the boat. For at least some programs, their dual relationship to the university (i.e., they are funded by the university and they are trying to change the way it responds to victims) created a complex environment for successfully meeting their goals. As one focus group participant commented, it is difficult to be in a position where you are balancing the goals of so many stakeholders.

Considering the complexity of direct services evaluation (Riger et al., 2000; Zweig & Burt, 2002) and the complex political environment in which campus-based programs find themselves, there is a strong argument to be made for a focus on process. Over twenty years ago, Cousins and Leithwood (1986) argued that evaluations that focus on program process or implementation can be more useful than those dealing strictly with outcomes. This is certainly the case with direct services where even the definitions of success are more related to process and implementation than to outcomes. For example, it makes sense in such a context that meeting the process goal of "being involved in a timely manner" is an important indicator of success. Because all decisions about her case are made by the survivor, advocates focus on the process working well, rather than the survivor having one outcome or another. Thus, there was a focus on using assessments such as "meetings with partners to discuss cases," because it is important for staff members to know how the experience of the process was for survivors and to share this information with other system workers with the hope of improving the response. In cases such as this, outcomes such as retention or self-reports of recovery may be less important information than how the experience was for the survivor. Two survivors may have very similar experiences when it comes to the system's response, but their outcomes may be completely different. As was

180

discussed in the focus groups, direct service programs do not want to be held accountable for a survivor's grades, recovery, or retention. Decisions about these things are left to the survivor.

Although items such as *retention* and *recovery* were identified as important direct services goals by over two-thirds of survey respondents and it is true that some programs use what they know about outcomes as evidence of their success, none of the focus group participants discussed the possibility that survivors who have poor or unknown outcomes signaled a failure of the direct services program. Rather, according to the focus group results, programs seemed more likely to believe they should be held accountable for doing their best to make the system responsive to victims' needs, and they believe assessment of such should focus on process. Thus, even though the collection of such process data was not necessarily systematic for most schools, many schools were focusing on such data, as they could get it, to make determinations about whether or not they were successful. Indeed, based on the overall results of this research, the general interest in meeting the goals of the program was more of an interest in meeting process goals than meeting goals related to outcomes. That being said, it is not true that outcomes were unimportant, but, in the opinions of program staff, the judgment of the success or failure of direct services programs currently hinges more on a well-functioning process than a list of outcomes for the survivor.

Outcomes Were More Important for Educational Programming

Although the focus group discussions focused on process as opposed to outcomes for direct services, there was more of a concern for outcomes related to educational programming both in these discussions and in the results of the survey. While it is true that the methods of assessment of educational programming varied across schools, there was a general concern with gathering information about effectiveness and making changes based on the information. Further, the survey showed that when offered an option of choosing "the goals of the program are met" as

evidence of success, a majority of staff members reported that such an indicator was important.

Interestingly, there was a substantial difference between the responses of focus group participants

and non-participants regarding this item. A higher percentage of non-participants than focus

group participants chose this item as an indicator of success for both educational programming

and direct services. This difference is discussed in detail below. Suffice it to say here that

although the focus group participants seemed to have identified goals that are important across

the programs (as discussed in the previous section), they did less well at articulating all of the

indicators of success that program staff used.

In addition to the difference based on focus group participation, the likelihood of

identifying "the goals of the program are met" as an important indicator of success for

educational programming also varied according to program age. This was the same distinction

that was drawn for direct services. Specifically, the programs operating eight years or more were

substantially more likely than the programs operating two years or less to report that "the goals of

the program are met" was an important indicator of success for their educational programming.

Again, such a finding is not surprising because the more experienced programs would be

expected to be more goal-driven than programs that are still in their formative stages. The former

may also be more likely to accept being evaluated based on their goal attainment, whereas the

latter may view any judgments about their worth based on goal attainment to be premature. That

the newer programs were more likely than the more experienced programs to view as important

all of the other indicators of success of educational programming suggests that the newer

programs were focusing on ways to demonstrate effectiveness without relying on goal-attainment.

Overall, it seems that there is more thought given to evaluation and the demonstration of

the effectiveness of educational programming than of direct services. In the focus groups,

representatives from several schools discussed changing something about their educational

programs because of the results of evaluations. Staff members explained that they want to know what works and some of them recounted examples of their efforts either to gauge their own effectiveness – systematically or not - and some discussed their reliance on published studies to inform their decisions. It is also true that participants were well-versed on the topic of "bystander behavior" and on the variable of "behavior change" as a goal of educational programming. This reflects knowledge of currently identified best practices for campus violence prevention education (Lonsway et al., 2009). Additionally, although no one spoke specifically about using the RMAS or IRMAS, participants did talk about wanting to change the campus climate and the way people think about violence against women. Similarly, a majority of survey respondents reported that they usually measure a "change in attitudes (i.e., rape supportive attitudes)" and nearly half said that that they usually measure the campus climate.

Thus, even though the methods of assessment reported for educational programming left open the question of *how* concepts such as attitudes and actual behavior change were being measured, the general impression from both the focus groups and the survey was that the staff members believed that the success of educational programming could be and was being measured. However, as evidenced above, such was not the case for direct services. Despite general agreement on direct services goals (discussed above), there was much more resistance to the idea of systematically evaluating programs that provide direct services. Evidence of this was found both in the focus groups, where participants questioned the utility and very possibility of direct services evaluation, as well as in the survey, where reported indicators of success and methods of assessment focused on process and the opinions of those who worked with survivors, rather than outcomes for survivors themselves. This resistance of campus-based program staff members echoes what has been reported in the literature on community-based programming (Campbell et al., 2004; Edleson & Bible, 2001).

183

Use of Local Assessments and Published Evaluations

The use of published evaluations and research studies (as reported in the focus groups) indicates that some staff members were interested in the technical quality of evaluations, but the overwhelming message was that the local evaluations - whether they be theory- driven and outcomes-based such as the case of using stage-change theory to inform the development and interpretation of pre-post surveys, or the less formal narrative response or post-presentation verbal feedback (for example, dividing a sheet of paper into four sections and soliciting audience feedback on four questions) – staff members were using what audience members said to inform their decisions about what to keep, what to tweak, and what to throw away.

This may be positive or negative. It is positive because it seems clear that for many programs, just doing the same thing over and over again, without any idea of its effectiveness, was not seen as a viable option. Staff members wanted information about what was working and they were willing to make changes, even when they encountered political resistance (such as the person who reported that some of her stakeholders questioned why they continued to change the curriculum when they had already agreed on it the previous year). However, making decisions based on the information gathered from, for instance, the members of the audience who feel comfortable speaking in front of a large group, may lead to changes that may reduce the effectiveness of a program rather than increase it if the vocal few are not representative of the silent majority. That being said, the desire of campus program staff members for *something* to guide them reflects King's (1988) observation that in small programs some information is much better than no information and Leviton's (2003) concurrence, arguing that although some settings may require evaluations with only the highest technical merit, for many smaller programs some information is better than no information at all.

Program Staff and Evaluation

Just as the frequency of assessment and indicators of success varies across campuses, so too was there a lot of variability among the staff members with regard to their knowledge of evaluation. "Evaluation" was often used synonymously with "assessment" and "feedback." However, some of the participants demonstrated that they had a quite sophisticated understanding of the complexity of evaluation for a program serving survivors of violence and existing in a complex political environment. It was certainly not the case that program advocates have never thought about evaluation, but rather that, at least for some, evaluation seemed out of place, intrusive, cumbersome, and/or unnecessary. These feeling support the findings of previous research that show the reticence of advocates to engage in evaluation of direct services (Edleson & Bible, 2001; Levin, 1999; Riger et al., 2002).

Regardless of the variation in the knowledge of program staff, the data from both the focus groups and the survey indicate that programs were purposive in their decisions about what to measure. The focus groups showed this especially with regard to educational programming. Many participants reported on their measurement efforts, whether formal or informal, and the use of results to change their programming. The survey results demonstrated that there was a general alignment of goal importance with measurement effort for both direct services and educational programming. With two notable exceptions, the goals that were most important were also the most likely to be reportedly measured. The first exception was related to the direct services goals of "making a report to the police" and "making a report to student judicial affairs," and to the educational goal of "audience satisfaction." These were exceptions because they were not necessarily important goals, but they were very likely to be measured. Indeed, for both direct services and educational programming, the survey and focus groups showed that, generally, programs were most likely to assess that which was the easiest to measure.

185

For example, focus groups participants talked about using assessment methods for education that were "fun" or "quick" for audience members and additionally discussed avoiding methods of assessment for direct services that were "intrusive" or "just not possible." The survey results also showed general support for this idea. Additionally, survey respondents reported that they were likely to measure audience satisfaction, but less likely to measure intended or actual behavior change, even though the former was reported to be a much less important goal than the latter. In addition to ease of measurement, there may be additional reasons to measure goals that advocates themselves do not deem important. One of these reasons was referenced above: "Success" looked different from the perspectives of different stakeholders, including the university administration and the federal funder. Thus, even though "retention," "reports to the police" or "audience satisfaction" might not be the most important goals for advocates, the other stakeholders might find them important or require that they be measured (and tracking such things is required by the funder). Being in "the place that balances all the goals" may also mean being in a place to balance decisions about what to measure.

The second exception to the rule of the alignment between goal importance and measurement effort was related to the educational goal of "actual behavior change of audience members." This was indicated as a *very important goal*, but there were substantially fewer reports of measuring success in reaching this goal. The complexity and expense of trying to measure actual behavior change may be the explanation for this exception. Indeed, the programs with the highest budgets were the ones most likely to report that they did measure their success in reaching this goal. Additionally, the comparison of programs with budgets of 100K or less to that of programs with budgets of 200K or more showed that, generally, the definitions of success were aligned, but the smaller programs engaged in assessment efforts that were less expensive and time consuming.

186

Decisions about what to measure also varied based on the age of program. Newer programs were most likely to use methods of assessment required by funders, that is, tracking client demographics and tracking case details. More experienced programs were more likely to report using "meetings with advocates" or "surveys related to effectiveness" to assess their success. The significance of the meetings once again reflects the importance of the success of the process, but the commitment of a quarter of the experienced schools to use surveys related to effectiveness reflects some interest in self-reported outcomes as well. Interestingly, the newer programs reported a higher use of in-person or phone questionnaires. Given that such a small percentage of the newer programs reported that "meeting goals" was important, these questionnaires may be an attempt to gather formative information about how clients perceive the usefulness of their services, rather than an effort to gauge effectiveness related to client outcomes.

Lack of Direct Services Evaluation

Both the focus group and survey results point to an overall lack of formal evaluation related to direct services. This lack of evaluation was not due to inexperience in the field, with a majority of both focus group participants and survey respondents indicating that they had worked in the field for more than five years. There are two exceptions to this claim. First, as is mentioned above, the subgroup comparisons on the survey show that more experienced programs and programs with larger budgets were more likely to use "meeting goals" as an indicator of success for direct services programming and were more likely to engage in methods of assessment that are systematic such as using "surveys related to effectiveness." Second, some focus group participants discussed their reliance on the results of previous evaluations. Indeed, collaborative evaluation, as described by Riger (2002) and Edleson and Bible (2001), reportedly had a long lasting impact on some programs, and the evaluation results of such programs many years ago

187

had continued to be used as proof of the success of the services many years after the results were reported.

Past evaluations and subgroup comparisons aside, the most direct story told by the data is that systematic evaluation of direct services programming was rare, and perhaps just as important, staff members believed that there were some good reasons not to pay too much attention to evaluation of direct services. These reasons included: 1) No one expects any evaluation; 2) there are trusted indicators of success unrelated to the systematic collection of information; 3) evaluation is too cumbersome and/or intrusive; and 4) the things that are the most important simply cannot be evaluated. Each of these reasons is discussed below.

It is clear from the focus group data that there was little if any requirement to evaluate direct services. Participants in each group said that neither the university administration nor the federal funders asked for any evidence of success beyond the number of people served and some information on the demographics of clients and the adjudication of cases. Some participants reported that private funders had more requirements related to evaluation, and thus these participants reported engaging in more program assessment related to outcomes. Program staff indicated that, for the most part, they did not evaluate direct services because no one expected them to.

In addition to a lack of expectation, program staff indicated in both the focus groups and on the survey that they were confident about the effectiveness of their direct services program. The results of the focus group pre-survey showed that while a majority of staff members (65 percent) reported that they did not do formal program evaluation or that they did not know whether any program evaluation was done, a majority of staff members (65 percent) also reported that they were *very sure* that their services were effective; and the remaining 35 percent reported that they were *pretty sure* that their services were effective. This can be explained by the various

188

indicators of success that were used by advocates, but were not part of any formal or systematic collection of data. These results were confirmed in the focus group discussion where many participants related stories of being confident about the success of their direct services despite any formal evaluation.

Although it is certainly the case that some schools engage in the systematic collection of information regarding program effectiveness, many more schools than those who reported such indicated that they were confident that their programming was effective. According to the results of the focus groups and the survey, many of these schools reported some way of "knowing" that they were effective because they had collected some information related to their program and they had first hand-knowledge of the success or failure of program process and implementation. The survey results also showed that programs that did not do any outcomes-related assessment did have methods that they trusted such as staff meetings to discuss cases and meetings with partners. The trusted anecdotal indicators and the close working relationship between the advocate and the survivor took the place of evaluation in a climate where evaluation is not expected and difficult to implement. Again, the words of King (1988) and Cousins and Leithwood (2002) hold true: In some contexts, some information is better than no information, and, this research would add, some information is sometimes enough.

Another reason not to participate in evaluation is related to previous discussion of focus group results that focused on the reservation of advocates when it came to administering any seemingly intrusive methods of assessment. Focus group participants reported that evaluation sometimes felt "icky" or said "it just didn't feel right." These sentiments echo the research that describes the apprehension of advocates to engage in evaluation of their direct services (Riger, 2002; Sullivan, 1998).

189

The final reason expressed for not engaging in evaluation is that it is not worthwhile with respect to the things that are really important. Some focus group participants verbalized that the results of evaluation were not useful, with one person commenting that "of course they [the survivors who responded to a survey] said we were helpful. We're the people supporting them." Other staff members were clear in expressing their belief that evaluation was not possible for the really important things like building relationships and long-term changes in survivor self-efficacy. As was expressed by one participant, "You don't do a pre-test on a survivor of rape. You just don't."

Related to the claim that programs forgo evaluation because they had trusted indicators of success is the idea that some of these indicators may be somewhat or significantly misleading. For example, concepts such as "climate change" and "a culture shift" were highlighted as indicators of success in the focus groups, and the survey results showed that such concepts were important goals of both direct services and educational programming. However, the examples that were discussed by focus group participants, such as coaches being more understanding about victim's needs than a decade ago and fraternities being more likely to call the police than a generation ago might just as well have been the result of a larger movement (state or national) to improve the response to violence against women, or other changes in the social fabric, rather than due to any specific campus programming. This issue of matching the domain of the effect with the services provided is discussed at greater length in Chapter 6.

Based on the preceding discussion, the level and amount of the evaluation of direct services was relatively low at campus-based violence prevention programs, and although more developed for educational programming, systematic evaluation was not the norm. As is discussed throughout this chapter, these findings reflect and contribute to the literatures on 1) the evaluation of community-based agencies; 2) the dynamics and political environment of campus-based

190

violence prevention programs, and 3) the reliance on using local and often anecdotal information to inform local programming. In addition to these findings related to the goal definition, methods of assessment, and measurement effort, the focus group results also included evidence related to the larger question of the use of evaluation. It is to this topic that I now turn.

Evaluation Use

Due to the decision to focus the survey on goals, indicators of success, and methods and frequency of assessment, it did not include any questions about evaluation use or the impact of evaluation on either direct services or educational programming. Therefore, the following discussion is based on the results of the focus group only. Based on these results, there is evidence of instrumental and conceptual use of educational programming evaluations, symbolic use of direct services evaluation, and process use related to completing progress reports required by the federal funder.

Three decades ago, Williams and Evans (1969) argued that the test of the effectiveness of outcome data is its impact on implemented policy. Several focus group participants described such instrumental use of data related to the outcomes of their educational programming. Some participants described using somewhat informal methods of assessment such as soliciting audience feedback at the end of the presentation. Other participants described using theory-driven models of curriculum development and conducting pre- and post-tests and occasionally follow-ups with audience members. Regardless of the sophistication of the data collection method, participants reported direct use of the results in their decision making about their curricula and presentations.   This suggests that program staff members were not undertaking data collection just to signal that they were doing something (i.e., to a funder or to their administration), but rather, they are undertaking evaluative efforts only when they knew they were going to use the results to improve programming. Such use falls under King's (1988)

191

categorization of "charged use" as opposed to "signaling." This is not to say that there was no signaling, as some staff members considered the progress reports as more of a signal or a "hoop" than an accurate portrayal of their accomplishments. However, the local evaluative efforts of educational programming appeared to be quite focused on program improvement and effectiveness.

Several focus group participants also discussed using published reports of evaluations of educational programs elsewhere to help shape how they approach and think about their own programming. This use of others' evaluation efforts to guide decision making at programs that were not connected to the evaluation indicates that some published evaluations had influence beyond their own subjects. Kirkhart (2000) explains that influence is "multidirectional, incremental, unintentional, and noninstrumental." Despite the intuitive fit of the word "influence" for such situations, the use of published evaluation studies by campus programs as it was described in the focus groups seemed to be both instrumental and intentional, and thus it does not neatly fit under the rubric of influence. Such use is instrumental because the staff members described using the evaluation results to inform their thinking as they made decisions about their programs, and it is intentional because one purpose of publishing evaluation research is to inform work that is done outside of the specific evaluation context under study. The use of published studies to inform one's local practice may signify an instrumental use of evaluation that is not currently recognized in the literature. This type of evidence-based practice raises questions about how to categorize evaluation results that are instrumentally used by someone unconnected to the original evaluation. This topic is discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

In addition to these uses of evaluation results for educational programming, there was some evidence of the symbolic use of evaluative efforts related to direct services. Several participants reported supplying their respective administrations with "the numbers" of clients

192

served, with the idea that such numbers legitimized the existence of a victim-services program. One participant even acutely noted that her administrators "look at the numbers and then throw them to the side." Thus, although counting the number of people served does not constitute an evaluation, the use of systematically collected data to document a need for the program can be considered symbolic use.

Finally, there was evidence of process use related to the funder-required progress reports. Patton (2008, p. 41) defines process use as the "support of the program through data collection systems that meet the needs of the evaluation while also contributing to program outcomes." Focus group participants clearly identified several instances of how collecting data for the progress reports led them to develop better data collection systems, helped them identify what was missing from their programs, and prompted them to create visual aids such as timelines of goal and processes to track their accomplishments. The focus group results also showed that the process of completing progress reports opened the door for some programs to have conversations that would have otherwise been missed or to provide education that would have otherwise been seen as unnecessary.

Regardless of what type of use is present, Leviton (2003) and Patton et al. (1977) argue that it is through the reduction of uncertainty that evaluation can make one of its strongest impacts. The focus group results showed support for this idea, especially with regard to the instrumental and conceptual use discussed in this section. Where evaluations and evaluative efforts were used, they reduced the uncertainty staff members had about the content, direction, and effectiveness of their programs. As one participant noted, evaluation in the form of narrative responses to educational programming helped her to determine "Good Lord throw that away – were never going to do that again! Or – that's working."

Focus Group Participants as Survey Respondents

It should be expected that a higher percentage of focus group participants would give a positive response to the many survey items that were developed based on the results of the focus groups. After all, even though six months passed between the facilitation of the focus groups and the administration of the survey, it would not be surprising if the focus group participants confirmed what they had previously stated in the groups. As a matter of fact, had participants' survey results not confirmed the focus group results, one may question the extent to which the content of the survey accurately reflected the results of the focus groups.

The results of the survey show that on almost all items, a higher percentage of focus group participants responded in a way that confirmed the accuracy of the items than did non-participants. In other words, the percentage of focus group participants who identified the goals and indicators of success as important was higher than the percentage of non-participants who indicated as such on nearly every item. Small differences aside (where there was a difference of less than 20 percentage points, or two to three respondents), there were two items on which the difference between the focus group participants and nonmembers was notably larger than would be expected and one item where non-participants were much more likely to choose an option than were the focus group participants. Participants were 1) *less* likely to report that "the goals of the program are met" was an important indicator of success; 2) *much* more likely to report that they *usually measure* their success in reaching goals; and 3) *much* more likely to identify "the retention of survivors as students" as a goal. Each of these distinctions between focus group participants and non-participants is discussed below.

The fact that "the goals of the program are met" was a more likely indicator of success (of both direct services and educational programming) for non-participants may suggest that the

194

three focus groups did not exhaust the ideas of the population under study as they related to defining and measuring the success of campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs. As a reminder to the reader, this particular indicator was not generated by the results of the focus group, but rather was added as an option on the survey based on the literature review and the need to include an option for respondents who wanted to express a commitment to goal attainment as evidence of success. This was the only indicator of success not based on the results of the focus groups and also the only indicator related to direct services that was reported to be *very important* by more people who did not participate in a focus group than by those who did. There were only two indicators of success related to educational programming that were described as important by more non-participants than participants, and "the goals of the program were met" was one of these.

This suggests that there may be other indicators of success used by campus-based programs that were not discussed in the focus group and were not included as options on the surveys. It also raises a question about why goal attainment as an indicator of success did not specifically surface in any of the focus groups. It is, of course, possible, that the moderating of the groups consistently led people away from such a discussion. It is also possible that in answer to the questions "How do you know if you are successful?" and "What does success look like?" the discussion began with an answer that was not focused on goal attainment, and thus subsequent comments reflected the idea that indicators were something unrelated to goals. Because of the dynamics of the group, with many people commenting that they were going to give more thought to assessment and evaluation upon their return to their campuses, one might have thought that they would be *more* likely to think about how setting and reaching goals can contribute to an understanding of the success of their programming, but this did not play out in these results. The focus group participants as survey respondents were more likely to validate the list of indicators

195

generated by the focus group itself than to select an indicator related to goal attainment as important. This may suggest that focus group participation validated the beliefs of the participants and these beliefs remained consistent even after six months.

It is also worth noting that the differences between the focus group participants and non-participants were greater on items related to victim services than education. To be clear, for nearly all items, a higher or equal percentage of focus group participants than non-participants indicated that goals and indicators of success were very important and that they usually measured their effectiveness. The more significant difference on items related to direct services may be due to the fact that field of assessment for victim services is less well defined. This difference in the development of the field is shown in the literature review, including the search for articles that produced many more articles on assessing the success of campus-based educational programs than direct services (see Chapter 1). It is probable that the methods of assessment generated by the focus groups with regard to educational programming would reflect the literature on this topic. However, there is very little literature to reflect on in the field of direct services, and thus the focus group participants generated a list of methods of assessment that may be unique to their universities, rather than options that have been considered nationwide.

The substantial difference between focus group participants and non-participants on the importance of retention as a goal related to direct services deserves some discussion. Retention emerged as an important goal in the focus groups and was thus included on the survey. The fact that nearly all of the focus group participants but less than half of the non-participants identified retention as an important goal suggests that retention may not be immediately considered a goal by program staff, but once they heard the argument for retention being a goal (as they would have as focus group participants), they adopted it as such, and this change was permanent. In other words, at first glance, a staff member would not consider retention a goal of the direct services

196

program, but after discussion about the complex political environment and the variety of stakeholders, retention was more accepted as a goal to connect with one's program. As was pointed out in the focus group, programs can show that they help the university administration (a stakeholder) by arguing that their services help survivors stay in school and graduate.

Focus group participants were more likely than non-participants to report that they *usually measure* most of the goals. Again, because most of the goals were generated by the focus group, it is not surprising that participants were more likely to measure goals that they themselves identified as important. It may also be the case that the focus group participants, some of whom said aloud during the groups that they were going to pay more attention to assessment and evaluation upon their return, actually did institute changes and increase their assessment efforts in the time that passed between the focus groups and the survey. The fact that the difference was over 20 percent on many of the items supports this possibility.

As interesting as such a finding is, the real question in these data is related to making reports to the police and student judicial affairs. Recall that in addition to retention, making a report to the police and/or student judicial affairs were the only goals where the difference between the participants and the non-participants was 20 percent or greater. However, these were the only two goals for which non-participants were more likely to measure their success than were participants. Each of these goals also ranked at or near the top of goals usually measured for non-participants, but ranked one place from the bottom for participants. Why is it that non-participants, who were much less likely to identify the goals as important, were more likely to report that they usually measured their success in reaching these goals AND ranked these goals so high relative to other goals? One possible answer is that they were measuring what they had to. That is, the focus on these goals in the funder's required progress report might have influenced the non-participant group to spend time tracking the adjudication of client cases within the

197

criminal justice and student judicial affairs system, even though they may not spend much time on the assessment of how they were doing on other goals. Perhaps the participant group, who reported only a slightly lower percentage of measuring reports, ranked these goals much lower in a list of those usually measured because the conversation in the focus groups resulted in their elevating other goals to the top of their *usually measured* list.

This difference makes the inclusion of focus group participants in the survey theoretically interesting because it suggests that small intervention around assessment and evaluation may have significant effects. Had the participants not been included as survey respondents, this possibility would not have been identified.

The pattern of a higher percentage of focus group participants than non-participants indicating goals were *very important* and that they *usually measure* their success in reaching those goals also emerged with regard to educational programming. The fact that there was only one goal for which the difference was 20 percentage points or greater on the topic of goal importance suggests that the goals listed as options were generally as familiar and important to non-participants as they were to participants. The differences in relative rankings of goal importance and measurement effort were small, but it is interesting to note that the non-participants ranked both "audience satisfaction" (something easy to measure) as well as "the incidence of violence against women on campus" (something difficult to measure) near the top of the list of things they usually measure. This suggests that the explanation that non-participants, who did not benefit from a discussion about evaluation, only assess that which is easy to measure does not explain all of the data.

Survey Data Disconnects

Overall, the surveys reported that more assessment was being done than did the focus groups. And even though the assessment methods that were most likely to include outcomes were

198

reported as the least used, a majority of respondents said that they usually measure seven of the eleven goals presented. What remains unclear is how they measure these goals. For example, a significant portion of respondents said that they usually measure the actual behavior of audience members (i.e., bystander or ally behavior). However, it is unclear how this was being done as the most likely methods of assessment (debriefing with presenters, post-only surveys, verbal feedback) would not be accurate tools to measure behavior change.

A second question that emerges from the survey responses is related to the results that show less experienced programs and programs with smaller budgets were more likely to report that they usually measure their success in reaching goals. Even though newer programs were far less likely to report that the "goals of the program are met" was an important indicator of success, a higher percentage of respondents from these programs indicated that they usually measure their success in reaching nine of the eleven goals related to direct services and five of the nine goals related to educational programming. These responses are also inconsistent with the responses related to methods of assessment. Apart from tracking client demographics and tracking case details, 40 percent or fewer of respondents from programs operating 2 years or less indicated that they always or frequently use any of the methods of assessment listed on the survey, and none of the respondents wrote in any additional methods in the space provided. Despite this, at least 60 percent of respondents from newer programs indicated that they usually measured their success in reaching eight of the goals listed as options on the survey. It is unclear from the responses how these goals were measured and why they were being measured by such a large percentage of the programs operating for 2 years or less, if meeting goals was not considered an important indicator of success by most of the newer programs. It is possible that the wording of the survey item about measurement effort led respondents to indicate what they have *ever* measured, as opposed to what they *usually* measure.

199

In other words, they may have responded with the intent to indicate that when they did

make the effort to measure something, (even if it is not very often), they usually measured

concepts that related to goal attainment. This dynamic holds true in the comparison of programs

with budgets of $100K or less vs. programs with budgets of $200K or more as well. The smaller

programs were more likely to report that they usually measured several goals; and although the

assessment of success for some of these goals might be inexpensive, by and large the small

budget programs indicated that they relied on methods such as verbal feedback from the audience

to measure nuanced items such as "an increase in knowledge" and "attitude change."

Mixed Method Tensions

There are some differences in findings between the focus groups and survey that cannot

be attributed to the inclusion of focus group participants as survey respondents. Even when the

survey results of the participants are examined separately from the non-participants, avoiding

liability/protecting the university from a lawsuit did not emerge as an important goal as it did in

the focus groups. Recall that the focus group results showed that advocates believed their

programs existed at least in part to protect the university from liability. Several participants talked

about the importance of existing quietly (not drawing too much attention to the issue of violence

against women on campus) and keeping the university out of court. However, the survey results

did not confirm the importance of this goal. This tension in findings may reflect a need for

context and conversation in order to make such a political and perhaps even cynical goal emerge

as important. In the focus groups, this goal emerged out of a conversation about what the

university administration expects in the way of evidence of effectiveness. The conversation

slowly led to participants' identification and discussion of several political factors, including the

idea that a goal of their administration (and an expectation for their program) is to stay out of

court. The survey, however, simply presented "avoiding liability/protecting the university from a

lawsuit" as an option in a list of otherwise very victim-centered goals. Without a conversation about multiple stakeholders and the balancing act that must be accomplished by campus-based violence prevention programs, very few individuals, including those who participated in the focus groups, identified it as a goal.

Feminist Perspective

A feminist approach is not bound by method (Harding, 1991; Letherby, 2003; Renzetti, 1997). Rather, it requires the researcher to consider the relationship between the process and product of research (Letherby, 2003) and also suggests that the voices and experiences of women inform choices about subject matter, epistemology, and research methods (Harding, 1991; Renzetti, 1997; Ward, 2002). Perhaps the most distinguishing characteristic of feminist research is the political commitment of the researcher to "produce useful knowledge that will make a difference to women's lives through social and individual change" (Letherby, 2003, p. 4).

The use of a feminist lens affected this research in several ways. First, the choice of subject matter and of research subjects recognizes the reality of violence in women's lives and the need for social change related to this issue. Second, the engagement of advocates and other violence prevention program staff members as the subjects of my research clearly gives voice for a group made up predominantly of women and entirely of people who have committed themselves to naming and reducing violence against women. Although the participants in this research are professionals, they represent a group on the front lines of violence prevention that is not regularly given voice through research. The third way a feminist lens colored this research is found in the presentation of results, which included a description of focus group dynamics, the role of the researcher in the focus groups, and the acknowledgement that the wording of questions on the survey instrument affected the results of that data collection instrument.

Fourth, the process of locating and describing my positionality *vis à vis* this research and my subjects has resulted in a realization that my construction of the reality of campus-based violence prevention programs, which is in large part influenced by my own experience working at such a center for ten years, may not be a completely accurate representation of what is happening at these centers across the country. More specifically, my experience working at a program where the tasks and lines of supervision are clearly divided between advocacy and education has influenced my approach to the problem. Staff members from campus-based centers across the country made it clear in focus groups that the dichotomization of "advocacy" and "education" creates a false representation of the work that they are doing. Thus, although this distinction mirrors the literature as well as my own experience and aided in creating clarity in the data collection process and presentation of results, the contrasting voices of the research subjects was included in the results presentation and is recognized as well here in the discussion. The implications of this false dichotomy for future research are discussed in the next chapter.

Finally, the use of a feminist lens affected this research because the entire process of the research program was undertaken with the intent to produce useful knowledge that can be shared with advocates and other staff members so that their programs, their work lives, and the lives of the survivors they serve can be improved. By learning about how program staff members define success and the current state of evaluation at campus-based programs, I hope to establish a base on which to build a commitment to understanding and improving services for survivors of violence against women.

Small (1995) warns that as researchers we "need to consider who [*sic*]we hope will benefit as well as who [*sic*] may be harmed by our work" (Small, 1995, p. 952, as cited in Edleson & Bible, 2001, p. 83). I used a feminist lens to guide my subject matter, approach, and interpretation of the data. I chose subject matter of importance to women's lives and research

methods that would lend themselves to hearing women's voices. I explained my positionality with respect to the research and its subjects and also discussed how my moderation style and structure as well as the wording of some items on the survey may have affected the results of this research. My intent with these choices was to give context to the research, recognize its many limitations, and reduce the possibility that anyone would be harmed by my work.

A question remains, however, regarding whether or not the subjects of my research are using a feminist approach in their approach to assessment. Although there is no way, based on the results of this research, to answer this question with complete confidence, the results do hint that the answer may be "yes." It can go without argument that the subjects of this survey, many of whom have worked in the field of preventing and responding to violence against women for a decade or more, are concerned about giving voice to survivors. Allowing victims to make their own choices emerged as an important goal of direct services programs and the results of this research also show that advocates are concerned about only using direct services evaluation approaches that are not too intrusive.

Ward (2002) argues that the impact on survivors of evaluation efforts of educational programming should also be considered. She worries that educational workshops designed to raise awareness may be counterproductive and/or painful for victims in the audience. Results of this research show that staff members recognize an overlap of educational programming and direct services, and contact with the program by a victim who saw a presentation was identified as an indicator of success. It is also the case that there was concern that any measurement of program effectiveness would probably miss positive results such as "having just affirmed this young woman in a workshop." However, none of the focus group participants expressed an explicit concern about the possible negative impact of educational programming on victims. Thus, despite the clear overlap that exists between prevention programming and direct services,

the possible negative impact of educational programming on victims does not seem to be on the radar of advocates at campus-based violence prevention programs.

Summary

This discussion has highlighted the major themes that emerged from the survey and focus group results and placed those themes within the context of the literatures on evaluation use and the evaluation of violence prevention programming. The discussion also included an examination of the use of focus group participants as survey respondents and the identification of the tensions that arose through the use of mixed methods as well as the disconnects that emerged within the survey data themselves. Finally, the discussion included consideration of how the use of a feminist lens has informed this research.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Previous chapters identified several gaps in the literature related to what we know about the definition of success and the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs. The findings of this research contribute to the literatures on violence against women and on evaluation use. This section presents brief answers to each of the research questions and then discusses how this research deepens our understanding of both the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs and how the advocates at those programs define and assess success. Implications of the findings for future research and practice follow.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: What is the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs?

Despite a common funder that imposes like requirements on all schools in the population, the state of evaluation at these institutions varied widely. Indicators of success for direct services were also varied and included such evidence as timely involvement in a case, establishing a positive relationship between the advocate and the survivor, meeting goals, and avoiding liability. Methods of assessment for direct services included meetings with advocates and partners, tracking case details, and surveys related to effectiveness. The frequency with which goals of direct services were measured also varied. Some schools reported consistently gathering data to be used to assess effectiveness, and other schools reported much more sporadic data collection efforts. This pattern of variation is also true of the state of evaluation of educational programming, although there was a more consistent acknowledgement of the need to know "what works" for educational programming and a more consistent effort being put forth by schools, whether it be informal or formal, to gather at least some data with respect to the effectiveness of their programming.

Although the state of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs varied across universities and appeared to be somewhat dependent on program age and level of funding, with more established and wealthier programs more likely to engage in evaluation, it is generally true that the evaluation of educational programming was reportedly more developed than the evaluation of victim services programming. Staff members reported a variety of evaluation efforts to assess the effectiveness of their educational programming including post- or pre- and post-surveys, the use of written responses (i.e., in a classroom setting), and the use of embedded feedback (i.e., soliciting verbal feedback at the end of the presentation). The level of sophistication of the methods varied across campuses, with some staff members reporting a consistent evaluation effort including the use of program theory and the assessment of outcomes, and others reporting occasional or sporadic efforts that included, for example, only verbal audience feedback. Some advocates reported using published evaluations of programs at other universities to inform their decision making about their own program content and process. In general, there was a concern across the population regarding the effectiveness of their educational programming, with most staff members reporting that they wanted a way to demonstrate that their educational programs were effective in meeting goals.

Contrast the above to the findings of the state of evaluation related to direct services. Here, there is much less a concern about undertaking assessments that will show effectiveness. As such, the state of evaluation regarding direct services at university-sponsored programs is similar to the state of evaluation reported in the literature with respect to community-based programs. The participants in this research echoed the concerns found in this literature related to the complexity of a victim's recovery and the inappropriateness of evaluation in a setting where choices and power belong to the client. That being said, there are some distinctive characteristics

206

affecting the state of evaluation specifically at campus-based programs that emerged from this research.

First, there is reportedly very little expectation of evaluation by the administrations of most of the universities represented in this population. This is true for both direct services and educational programming, but it is especially true for the former. Possibly because of this lack of expectation and the seemingly intrusive nature of victim-services evaluations, most advocates trust their instincts about what *seems to be effective*, rather than engaging in any evaluation of outcomes for survivors. This lack of expectation of university administrators may be related to the idea that, at some schools at least, anti-violence programs are expected to keep a low profile.

Second, the federal monies that provided a significant portion of the funding for the programs in this population did not include any requirement for local evaluation efforts. The requirement to collect data for a federal initiative meant that all schools engaged in some process related to evaluation, but very few of the schools reported that they used the results of their federal data collection efforts at the local level. Despite this lack of use of the *results* of the data collection, the *process* of engaging in the data collection effort for the federal progress report did inform decision making at the local level for some schools. This process use is discussed in more detail in the next section. Several of the schools who reported engaging in an evaluation of their direct services indicated that such an effort was made based on the requirement of a private funder such as United Way.

Third, staff members identified trusted indicators of success related to the process of the campus response to cases of violence against women (discussed at greater length below). Such indicators, combined with the close working relationship between the advocate and the survivor, where the advocate can be a personal witness to the progress being made, seemed to contribute to the idea that formal evaluation of direct services is not necessary.

207

Research Question 2: How do program personnel define their success?

For direct services, success was reportedly related more to the process of the university's response to cases on violence against women on campus than it was to any outcomes related to the survivors being served. Program advocates recognized that success can be stakeholder dependent, and many believed their centers had the responsibility of balancing the goals of a variety of stakeholders including the victim, the administration, parents, community-based partners, and their own program. Success for the direct services program meant that programs were recognized and valued, they were involved in cases in a timely manner, the survivor had a positive relationship with an advocate, the survivor knew her options and felt supported, and the system responded in a victim-centered manner. For some schools, success also meant that the survivor was retained as a student and that the university was protected from any victim-initiated lawsuits.

For educational programming, success reportedly meant increasing knowledge about violence against women as well as awareness about the direct services program, decreasing rape-supportive attitudes, and increasing the likelihood of intended and actual bystander behavior. For both direct services and education, success also included the notion of campus climate change related to the issue of violence against women. Many staff members reported that there had been an improvement in the campus climate over the past several years or decades, and some advocates cited this climate change as evidence of the success of either their direct services or educational programming. None of the research participants expressed any concern that such perceived climate change may be outside of the domain of effect of their violence prevention efforts.

Research Question 3: To what extent has evaluation affected campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs?

The results of program evaluation have reportedly had a greater impact on educational programming than on direct services. Many schools reported conducting their own evaluative efforts, at various levels of sophistication, which resulted in findings that they then used to inform their decision making about future educational programming. Indeed, some of the schools represented engaged in quality evaluations of their educational programming, and even more reported that their evaluation efforts were consistent. For many of these programs, the effect of such local assessment efforts has probably been positive for the development and success of their program. The information gained was reportedly used for program improvement. However, it remains possible that some of the less systematic methods of data collection, such as the reliance on verbal feedback at the end of the presentation, may have resulted in data that are far from an accurate representation of the success of the program. In such cases, the effect of the evaluative exercise may have had a negative effect on the programming because it may have resulted in changes that made the program more effective for the outspoken few rather than the silent majority.

In addition to the effects of local evaluations, published evaluation research has also had an effect on campus-based violence prevention education efforts. The use of published evaluations to inform local decision making in a sense represented a commitment to evidence-based practice. Program staff members are looking to validated practices and national trends to inform their own programming. Such use of evaluation results suggests that evaluations of perceived high technical quality were valued as evidence to inform practice.

As is the case for community-based programs, there reportedly has been far less of an impact of evaluation on direct services. Although there was variation across the programs, the majority of programs did not engage in evaluation of their direct services. Those that did engage in evaluation stated that they used the results of current or past evaluations to guide their

programming decisions. Thus, it seems that where evaluation was done, people valued and used the results. That being said, the general hesitancy of advocates to engage in the evaluation of their direct services program reflects what the literature says about complexity of evaluation for community-based victim services. How the other findings of this research fit into the literature is discussed below.

Contributions to the Literature

Some of the findings of this exploratory research establish a base for understanding how campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs define and assess the success of their direct services programming. The current literature on direct services for victims of sexual assault and relationship violence does not include discussion of advocates' definitions of success or discussion specific to the assessment of anti-violence direct services programming on the college campus. By engaging campus program advocates as research subjects, this study gave voice to a population who is on the front lines of violence prevention and intervention.

In addition to laying the groundwork for understanding how staff members define and assess success of victim services, this research contributes to the literatures on the evaluation of direct services for survivors and the evaluation of campus-based violence prevention educational programming by describing the state of evaluation at campus-based programs. It also provides some initial empirical evidence that may contribute to the understanding of the concept of evaluation use. Each of these contributions to the literature is discussed in detail below.

Evaluation of Direct Services

The current literature on the evaluation of direct services for survivors of sexual assault and relationship violence identifies several reasons why advocates are hesitant to engage in evaluation. This study found that staff members are not only distrustful of direct services evaluation and concerned about its potential negative impact on victims (as is expressed in the

current literature); they believe that in some cases evaluation is impossible to do well and/or a waste time. There was a feeling that evaluation just can not answer the important questions, so why bother? Advocates expressed the opinion that evaluation cannot accurately measure relationships nor, for example, how a survivor "changes her internal frame of reference." Some staff members also thought that the concepts evaluation was able to measure were not very useful. One focus group participant from a program that had previously engaged in evaluation of its victim services expressed that because they were getting the answers they expected (i.e., victims were satisfied and reported that their advocate was helpful) that the evaluation itself was quite useless. This belief that evaluation is not worth the effort because the phenomenon of interest is too complex emerged as an additional reason, not currently present in the literature, for advocates to be reticent about undertaking the evaluation of victim services.

Related to this, the current literature recognizes several challenges to evaluating victim services programs, but what is not widely acknowledged in the literature is the surface incompatibility of outcomes-based evaluation and the advocacy models of service that emerged in this research. This research found that advocacy models embrace client choice, and, although crisis response and advocacy are often short-term, the advocate's ultimate concern is for the long-term health of the survivor. The focus on client choice reportedly made advocates wary of the idea that the program should be held accountable for client outcomes. Indeed, the indicators of program success that this research identified are much more related to process (i.e., the campus response) than to outcomes.

Outcomes themselves were considered incommensurable with advocacy because the focus of advocacy is to return power to the client and support her in any decision – even if it is a decision that reflects poorly any program tracking client outcomes. For example, in an extreme case, a client may receive excellent services, the "process" may be perfect, but she may still have

211

failing grades, decide to drop out of school, engage in self-harming behavior, and return to an abusive relationship. Much of the current literature recognizes the importance of focusing on the appropriate domain of the effect of services for victims of violence and thus shies away from including a reduction of the experience of violence as an outcome for survivors of relationship abuse. Domain of effect was also reportedly important to the subjects of this research. For example, this research indicated that some staff members themselves are wary of evaluation because they do not want to be held accountable for the personal decisions and behavior of the variety of survivors who walk through their doors. Although technical language regarding this phenomenon is not found in this study's data, the concept of domain of effect clearly emerged in relation to victim services, and it seems to be the case that staff members believed the domain of effect of victim services can be quite narrow and should exclude not only post-intervention experience with violence, but personal client decisions as well.

Related to this is the fact that advocacy is often short-term. Measures that may be used to assess the effectiveness of long-term counseling such as scales measuring depression or PTSD have limited if any utility for an advocacy-based model where most clients are seen for just a few meetings. The literature on evaluating direct services for survivors of violence does not speak specifically about the need to tailor evaluations to fit an advocacy-based model where short-term services are often the norm and system response is a principal indicator of success.

These findings related to the complexity of evaluation of direct services exist in a context where, for the most part, there is reportedly no expectation to show effectiveness. The fact that many (of the few) schools that engage in victim services evaluation reported that they do so at the behest of a private funder indicates that by and large programs are engaging in evaluation of their victim services programs only when they have to.

Evaluation of Educational Programming

Perhaps it is because educational outcomes seem more straightforward, but the dynamic of evaluating only when it is required does not seem to hold true for educational programming. This research found significant evidence of local program evaluation of educational programming and support for the idea that at the local level technical quality is trumped by ease of use and immediacy of results. This finding provides empirical evidence for the claims of King (1988) and Leviton (2003) that small local programs are happy to have some information as opposed to no information at all. Where these findings expand on this concept is related to the idea that some local programs may be engaging in assessment that does not fulfill the systematic requirements of a true evaluation. They therefore may be gathering information and making decisions based on limited information that does not accurately reflect a program's true merit and that thus may result in *less* effective rather than *more* effective programming. It is possible that the utility of "some information as opposed to no information" is decreased when the method of gathering such information does not meet at least some minimal criterion of systemization.

Although this research found that the quality of some assessments at the local level may be questionable, it also found that for some staff members evaluation quality was important. Evaluation quality has been found to affect the likelihood of use in several studies (Bober & Bartlett, 2004; Weiss & Bucuvalas, 1980; Cousins & Leithwood, 1986) and the interest in using published results and evaluation results presented at conferences seems to imply one of two things. Either program staff are interested in quality evaluations (meeting the standards of refereed journals or the criteria of a national conference) when it comes to educational programming, or that local programs do not have the means, time, or expertise to do their own evaluations and they use published evaluation findings as a short-cut to show evidence-based support for their own decision making about programming. Regardless of why staff members

213

choose to use published evaluation reports, this fact, combined with the handful of staff members who reported using sophisticated evaluation designs, indicates that there is some interest in making decisions based on quality data. These findings provide support for the importance of the technical quality of the evaluation to at least some campus program staff members and raise the question as to whether decision making based on published evaluation reports most accurately falls under the rubric of evaluation use or of evaluation influence. This question is addressed more specifically in the next section.

Unique Characteristics of Campus Programs

The final contribution of this research related specifically to the evaluation of campus-based anti-violence programs is the finding that the definitions of success, goals, and processes of such programs contain elements that are unique to the college campus such as the goal of retention and the process of student judicial affairs. Although the unique dynamics of the college campus identified by Gibbons (2009) and Karjane et al. (2002) affect which services are offered and how they are provided, it is too early to tell how such dynamics may affect the evaluation of direct services. The current research suggests that decisions about evaluation are more related to the fact that staff members define success as a well-functioning response than they are to the unique dynamics of sexual assault on the college campus. The only characteristic of the campus-based program identified by Gibbons (2009) that emerged as particularly salient related to evaluation is the unique political position of some campus-based programs, where they are housed and often funded by the institution that they must also monitor. Other dynamics such as a victim sharing living or social space with her perpetrator did not emerge as a significant factor related to the evaluation of programs. The idea that the political context is important in evaluation is certainly not new, but this research contributes to the discussion on political context by noting that there is something specific to the functioning of a campus-based violence

214

prevention program that increases the complexity of evaluation for such programming. Thus, imposing models of community-based evaluations on campuses is probably not the most effective way to improve programming or judge the merit or worth of the program. According to this research, campus programs require a model of evaluation based on their unique program theory. Not that all campuses have identical goals and processes, but the importance of the system response, the unique combination of stakeholders, and the political position of campus programs vis-à-vis their institutions are common characteristics informing program theory that emerged from this study.

In addition to the contributions made to the literature on the evaluation of direct services programming, the findings of this research provide empirical evidence of process use, even when the intended users of the evaluation are removed from the process of collecting data, and of instrumental use of both local and published evaluations. Finally, this research includes findings that offer some insights regarding the tension in the literature between the concepts of evaluation use and evaluation influence.

Process Use

Patton (2008) defines process use as "individual changes in thinking and behavior, and program or organizational changes in procedures and culture, that occur among those involved in evaluation as a result of the learning that occurs during the evaluation process" (p. 90). He argues that "the process of engaging in evaluation can have as much or more impact than the findings generated" (p. 99). Although not all evaluation scholars agree that process use constitutes an entirely different category of use (see Alkin & Taut, 2003; Johnson, 1998), the findings of this research support the idea that process use is distinct. Program staff members often reported that the very act of collecting data for the grant-required progress reports taught them something about their own program and/or caused them to think differently about their procedures and decisions.

215

Process use in this case did not lead to another type of use, but rather led to "individual changes in thinking and behavior."

Instrumental Use

Also related to the grant-required progress reports is the distinction made in the instrumental use category between "charged use" and compliance or signaling (King, 1988). "Charged use of information…depends upon an individual who wants to use information to solve a problem. Its essential characteristic is the intentional and serious consideration of evaluation information" (King, 1988, p. 286). Signaling, on the other hand, is simply to show compliance with the requirements of funders or other administrative bodies. This research found that campus-based programs are using the progress-report-as-evaluation as a means to signal compliance with federal requirements, but they are reportedly not making much use of the data they collect otherwise. These data, however, are used collectively in semi-annual reports to Congress, and it is the production of these reports that is the principal reason behind the local collection of data. Thus, although local level data are used to signal compliance with the federal funder, the collective report based on those data may be used intentionally and seriously, thus resulting in charged use of the information at the federal level.

This complex relationship between data collection and its eventual use broadens our understanding of the "charged" vs. "signaling" dichotomy. Already discussed is the process use that resulted from the data collection efforts. Thus, within one evaluation that crosses multiple levels, there is evidence of process use, local level instrumental use (signaling), and the possibility of national-level instrumental use (charged). Although it is beyond the scope of this project to investigate the use of such evaluations at the federal level, this research provides evidence that multiple types of use or influence may occur across multiple levels of an evaluation.

Use vs. Influence

This research adds to the body of literature on evaluation use and the tension between the concepts of use and influence. The finding that several programs used evaluations conducted at other institutions (and then published or presented at conferences) to make decisions about their own educational programming implies that there may be an additional category of instrumental use. Program staff who use published reports of evaluation findings to inform their decision making seem to fall into a category of evaluation users who seek to employ evidence-based practice. How is such use best categorized? Is such use instrumental because the results of the evaluation are used to make decisions about programming, or is it better categorized as evaluation influence wherein the pathway of the influence begins with one program and finds its way, through publication, to another program across the country? Kirkhart (2007, p. 7) defines influence as "the capacity or power of persons or things to produce effects on others by intangible or indirect means" and argues that her framework is better able to capture the broad range of evaluation consequences that are often overlooked by the traditional conceptualization of use. Alkin and Taut (2003) suggest replacing Kirkhart's (2000) variable of intention with that of awareness, thus resulting in a schema that defines influence as something about which evaluators and primary stakeholders are unaware. In their opinion, because such influence is out of the control of evaluators, it is not something that evaluators should be concerned about.

This research suggests that perhaps the debate of use vs. influence needs to consider who uses the results. Although those who conduct program evaluations and publish their findings may be unaware of where and by whom the results are used, surely the use of such published findings is one of the primary intentions of publishing. In the case of staff members "looking at the national stuff" and making decisions about program content and process based on published

217

evaluation reports, the line between use and influence, which is not clear to begin with, becomes even more muddied.

Implications for Practice and Policy

This research has several implications for the practice of evaluation in general, the practice of evaluation at campus-based violence prevention programs, and evaluation-related policy at universities and federally-funded grant programs. First, although the concept of participatory evaluation never emerged in the focus groups and was not included on the survey, there are two findings from this research that suggest such an approach to evaluation might be the most amenable and promising. The first of these findings is that focus group participants indicated that they trusted their own "sense" of success with individual clients. This suggests that advocates may have ideas to share about what an evaluation should look like and tap into, if it were to be adopted. A participatory approach would include such advocates and give them a chance to express their feelings and thoughts about specific indicators of success. Second, staff members expressed an unwillingness to evaluate direct services because of the difficulty of measuring success and the burden it may place on survivors. As is suggested by Edlelson and Bible (1984) as well as Campbell (2002), a participatory approach may allay some of the fears of advocates as it builds the evaluation capacity of their organization. Furthermore, stakeholder participation has been identified as a variable that positively affects evaluation use (Cousins, 2003; Cousins & Whitmore, 1998; Greene, 1988; Johnson et al. 2009; King, 1998; Patton, 2008; Preskill & Torres, 2001).

The second implication for practice is related to how program goals can best be integrated into evaluation efforts. Although a few "how to" manuals for evaluating domestic violence and sexual assault programs exist, this research suggests that any such evaluation model for campus-based programs should take into consideration the importance of process as an

218

indicator of success, the variety of stakeholders and expectations, the overlap of victim-services and educational programming, the goals specific to university-based programs (retention and, perhaps, reduction of liability), and the triple-nature of many of these programs, serving survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, and stalking. The complex political environment and the variety differences between campus programs and the campuses themselves suggest that a one-size-fits-all approach will miss many of the nuances that differ from one school to another.

Given that many programs reported that one reason they do not do evaluation (especially of victim services) is because no one expects them to suggests that the funders of such programs should reconsider an evaluation requirement. Indeed, if programs are serious about effectively serving survivors of violence - and based on this research, they certainly seem to be – then the determination of the value of such programs is paramount. This research recognizes the challenges of such evaluation, but program improvement and effectiveness hinge on accurate information about current effectiveness. Perhaps the first step for some schools is an acknowledgement of the extent of the problem of violence on campus and a commitment to real solutions, rather than treating violence prevention and intervention programs as a risk-management tool, such as is described in *The Chronicle* (Fogg, 2009) and in the results of this research. That is, once schools move beyond considering violence prevention and intervention programs as something to check off on the list of "Things to Do to Reduce Liability" and begin to think of them as ethical and potentially effective ways to improve the campus climate and, in turn, the student experience, they will be far on their way to developing a framework in which evaluation is possible.

As for the lack of evaluation required by the federal funder, this research did not include interviews with representatives of the Department of Justice Office on Violence Against Women related to the absence of outcome-related evaluation requirements connected to funding for the

Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus. Thus, although the reasons *why* such

evaluation is not required are not evident in the findings of this research, models for the program-

level evaluation of federally-funded violence prevention and intervention programs exist in other

branches of government such as the Centers for Disease Control. What this research *does* suggest

is that it may make sense to use such models as a starting point for the evaluation of campus-

based violence prevention programming, with the caveat that campus-based programs will require

some changes to any existing model.

Implications for Future Research

One of the significant challenges to evaluating the direct services of a campus-based

violence prevention program is the fact that the advocacy model 1) requires that any choice made

by the client must be supported by her advocate and 2) allows for clients to discontinue services

with no warning and no expressed reason. As one focus group participant said, even though there

are many reasons people do not come back that are unrelated to the program itself, staff are

always concerned when someone discontinues her relationship with the program. Depending on

verbal client feedback and the progress of those clients who do continue services biases any

assessment in a positive direction. Future research may investigate how to best deal with the

reality of the advocacy model and how best to assess a program's success without tying it to the

successful recovery of clients. Research can also focus on why some survivors who seek services

discontinue them before they are "complete."

Second, the fact that some programs do use evaluation to improve and gauge the

effectiveness of their direct services shows that evaluation is possible. The content of the specific

tools that are used for these evaluations was not a subject of this research, but some advocates

reported using on-line surveys or "end of service" in-person questionnaires. Whether or not such

evaluations focus on process, outcomes, or both, and to what extent these evaluations measure what is important are subjects for future research.

Third, because these findings are based on a population of programs funded by a federal grant, the state of evaluation of campus-based programs that do not receive such funding is a question that remains unexplored. Perhaps universities that provide full funding for their violence prevention and intervention centers have higher expectations for the demonstration of success than universities whose programs receive a significant amount of funding from the federal government. Or, alternatively, perhaps schools with no federal data collection requirement spend even less time and effort tracking their processes and thinking about the effectiveness of their programs. It may also be worthwhile to investigate whether schools that do use systematic evaluation for their direct services and/or prevention education programs have programs that look significantly different from those schools that do not evaluate.

Fourth, the findings of this research support the idea that process use can be present even when the intended users of the evaluation exist at a level completely separate from the data collection. The VAWA measuring effectiveness initiative is not a participatory evaluation in any sense of the word, but despite this separation between the intended users (federal government personnel) and the collectors of the data (the program staff), process use still prevailed at the local level. Process use in circumstances such as those in this study may be distinct from the process use of a local participatory evaluation. Future research may look at similar models of federal accountability to investigate whether programs that are required to collect output and process data (but not to engage in evaluation themselves) also show evidence of process use.

Fifth, future research could be conducted with the aim of increasing the triangulation of the current study. Because each program had only one representative participate in a focus group and/or respond to the survey, there are likely other program representatives who could be

221

interviewed or surveyed regarding their own thoughts and experiences related to program success

and evaluation. Such research may endorse the findings of the current study or it may find

tensions between the reports of various staff members from the same program.

Finally, the question of how federal government staff has used the results of VAWMEI in

its decision making also remains a topic for future research. Perhaps the results of this process-

data collection effort are used to inform policy-making at the federal level. If so, this may

address the question raised in the previous section about the lack of evaluation requirements

connected to the grant program that funded the population of this study. One thing is clear,

investigation into the decision-making process related to the evaluation/lack of evaluation

regarding the Grants to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus is a fruitful topic for future

research.

Epilogue

Throughout the course of this research many staff members and colleagues have asked

me: "So,what is the best way to evaluate campus-based victim services programs?" It has been

difficult for me to provide an answer. I did not have any focus group members describe a

comprehensive and systematic approach to evaluating their programs and the results of the survey

do not point to any model. Riger and colleagues (2002) warn against a best practices model due

to differences in context and event interpretation and the questionable utility of standardized

research procedures across programs that are dissimilar. That being said, I have directed persons

interested in direct-services evaluation to several sources including the Office for Victims of

Crime training manual "Program Evaluation: Assessing Victim Services Programs and Measuring

Success," the training manual developed by the Michigan Public Health Institute titled

"Introduction to Evaluation Training and Practice for Sexual Assault Delivery," the impressive

"Victim Services Program Evaluation Manual" developed by the Pennsylvania Coalition Against

Rape, the work of Sullivan (2000) for the campus-based program at Michigan State University, and my own evaluation efforts conducted at the University of Minnesota.

It is my plan to share the findings of this research with colleagues at campus-based programs across the country and invite input on the development of a standard program theory and evaluation plan. Such a plan would not be a mold to place on campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs, but rather a starting point for individual campus consideration of how to best approach program evaluation.

References

Abbey, A., Zawacki, T., Buck, P. O., Clinton, A. M., & McAuslan, P. (2001). Alcohol and sexual assault. *Alcohol Research and Health*, *25*(1), 43-51.

Alkin, M.C. (1990). *Debates on Evaluation*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Alkin M. C., & Christie C. A. (2004). An evaluation theory tree. In *Evaluation Roots*, Alkin M.C. (Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Alkin, M. C., Daillak, R., & White, P. (1979). *Using evaluations: Does evaluation make a difference?* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Alkin, M. C., & Taut, S. M. (2002). Unbundling evaluation use. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 29*(1), 1-12.

Altheide, D. L., & Johnson, J. M. (1994). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 2-17.

American College Health Association (2004). *National college health assessment: Reference group executive summary, Spring 2004*. Baltimore, MD: American College Health Association.

Amo, C. A., & Cousins, J. B. (2007). Going through the process: An examination of the operationalization of process use in empirical research on evaluation. *New Directions in Evaluation, 4* (116), 3-26.

Anderson, L. A., Stoelb, M. P., Duggan, P., Hieger, B., Kling, K. H., & Payne, J. P. (1998). The effectiveness of two types of rape prevention programs in changing rape supportive attitudes of college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 39*, 131-142.

Anderson, L. A., & Whiston, S. C. (2005). Sexual assault education programs: A meta-analytic examination of their effectiveness. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 29*(4), 374-388.

Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., & Plante, E. G. (2007). Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: An experimental evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology, 35*(4), 463-481.

Banyard, V. L., Plante, E. G., Cohn, E. S., Moorhead, C., Ward, S., & Walsh, W. (2005). Revisiting unwanted sexual experiences on campus: A 12-Year Follow-Up. *Violence Against Women, 11*(4), 426-446.

Banyard, V. L., Plante, E. G., & Moynihan, M. M. (2004). Bystander education: Bringing a broader community perspective to sexual violence prevention. *Journal of Community Psychology, 32*(1), 61-79.

Berkowitz, A. D. (2002). Fostering men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault. In P.A. Schewe (Ed.), *Preventing violence in relationships: Intervention across the lifespan*, 163-196. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Bevacqua, M. (2000). *Rape on the public agenda: Feminism and the politics of sexual assault*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.

Bober, C. F., & Bartlett, K. R. (2004). The utilization of training program evaluation in corporate universities. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 15*(4), 363-383.

Bowker, L. H. (1988) The effect of methodology on subjective estimates of the differential effectiveness of personal strategies and help sources used by battered women. In Hotaling, G. T., Finkelhor, D., Kirkpatrick, J. T., Straus, M.A. (Eds) *Coping with family violence: Research and policy perspectives* (pp.80-92). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bowker, L. H., & Maurer, L. (1986). The effectiveness of counseling services utilized by battered women. *Women Therapy, 5*, 65-82.

Breitenbecher, K. H. (2000). Sexual assault on college campuses: Is an ounce of prevention enough? *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 9*(1), 23-52.

Breitenbecher, K. H., & Gidycz, C. A. (1998). An empirical evaluation of a program designed to reduce the risk of multiple sexual victimization. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 13*, 472-488.

Brownmiller, S. (1975). *Against our will: Men, women and rape*. New York: Simon, & Schuster.

Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J.(1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Campbell, D. T. (1984). Can we be scientific in applied social science? In R. F. Conner, D. G. Altman, & C. Jackson, *Evaluation Studies Review Annual*, (pp.26-48) Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Campbell, R., Dienemann, J., & Kub, J. (1999). Collaboration as a partnership. *Violence Against Women*, *5*(10), 1140-1157.

Campbell, R., Dorey, H., Naegeli, M., Grubstein, L. K., Bennett, K. K., & Bonter, F. (2004). An empowerment evaluation model for sexual assault programs: Empirical evidence of effectiveness. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 34*(3), 251-262.

Campbell, R., Sefl, T., Barnes, H.E., Ahrens, C.E., Wasco, S.M., & Zaeagosa-Diesfeld, Y. (1999). Community services for rape survivors: Enhancing Psychological well-being or increasing trauma? *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 67*, 847-858.

Campbell, R., & Yancey-Martin, P. (2001). Services for sexual assault survivors: The role of rape crisis centers. In *Sourcebook on Violence against Women* (pp. 227-241). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Carr, J. L. (2005, February). *American College Health Association campus violence white paper*. Baltimore, MD: American College Health Association.

Chelimsky, E. (1997). The coming transformations in evaluation. In E. Chelimsky & W. Shadish, (Eds.), *Evaluation for the 21st Century: A Handbook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Christie, C. A. (2007). Reported influence of evaluation data on decision makers' actions. *American Journal of Evaluation*, *28*(1), 8-25.

Cousins, J. B. (2003). Utilization effects of participatory evaluation. In T. Kellaghan, D. Stufflebeam, & L. A. Wingate (Eds.), *International Handbook of Educational Evaluation* (pp. 245-268). Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Cousins, J. B., & Leithwood, K. A. (1986). Current empirical research on evaluation utilization. *Review of Educational Research, 56*(3), 331-364.

Cousins, J. B., & Whitmore, E. (1998). Framing participatory evaluation. *New Directions for Evaluation, 80(Winter)*, 5-23.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39* (3) 124-130

DeKeseredy, W. S., Schwartz, M. D., & Alvi, S. (2000). The role of profeminist men in dealing with woman abuse on the Canadian college campus. *Violence Against Women, 6*(9), 918-935.

Denzin N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Entering the field of qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 2-17). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dillman, D. A. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored method design, 2nd edition.* Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Edleson, J. L., & Bible, A. L. (2001). Collaborating for women's safety. In C. M. Renzetti, J. L. Eldeson, & R. Kennedy-Bergen (Eds.), *Sourcebook on Violence Against Women* (pp. 73-95). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Fetterman, D. M. (2000). *Foundations of Empowerment Evaluation: Step by Step.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fink, A. (1995). *The Survey Handbook.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fischer, G. J. (1986). College student attitudes toward forcible date rape: Cognitive predictors. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, *15*, 457-466.

Fisher, B. S., Cullen F. T., & Turner, M. G. (2001). *The Sexual Victimization of College Women* (Research Report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington D.C. No. (NIJ 182369).

Fogg, P. (2009). Rape prevention programs proliferate, but it's hard to know whether they work. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved on 11/23/09 from chronicle.com/article/Rape-prevention-programs-49151/?sid=at&utm_source=at&utm.htm

Foubert, J. D. (2000). The longitudinal effects of a rape-prevention program on fraternity men's attitudes, behavioral intent, and behavior. *Journal of American College Health, 48*, 158-163.

Fowler, F. J. (1993). *Survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Frazier, P. A. (1999). *Current research on sexual assault prevention and interventions with survivors*. St. Cloud, MN: Keynote address for PREVENT Conference III.

Frazier, P. A., & Haney, B. (1996). Sexual assault cases in the legal system: police, prosecutor, and victim perspectives. *Law and Human Behavior 20*(6) 607-628.

Frazier, P. A., & Seales, L. M. (1997). Acquaintance rape is real rape. In M. D. Schwartz (Ed.), *Researching Sexual Violence against Women: Methodological and personal perspectives* (pp. 54-64). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Frazier, P. A. (1990). Victim attributions and post-rape trauma. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 298-304.

Garner, J., & Fagan, J. (1997). Victims of domestic violence. In R. C. Davis, A. J. Lurigio, & W. G. Skogan (Eds), *Victims of Crime, Second Edition* (pp. 53-85). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gibbons, R. E. (2008). Campus violence. In C. M. Renzetti & J. L. Edleson (Eds.) *Encyclopedia of Interpersonal Violence*. Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage.

Gibbons, R. E. (2009). The role of the rape care advocate. In D. M. Barry, & P. Cell (Eds.), *Campus Sexual Assault Teams: Program Development and Ongoing Operations*. Kingston, NJ: Civic Research Institute.

Gidycz, C. A., Layman, M. J., Rich, C. L., Crothers, M., Gylys, J., & Matorin, A., (2001). An evaluation of an acquaintance rape prevention program: Impact on attitudes, sexual aggression, and sexual victimization. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence,* 16, 1120-1138.

Gidycz, C. A., Lynn, S. J., Rich, C. L., Marioni, N. L., Loh, C., & Blackwell, L. M. (2001). The evaluation of a sexual assault risk reduction program: A multisite investigation. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 69*(6), 1073-1078.

Gidycz, C. A., Rich, C. L., Orchowski, L., King, C., & Miller, A. K. (2006). The evaluation of a sexual assault self-defense and risk-reduction program for college women: A prospective study. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 30*(2), 173-186.

Gordon, J. S. (1996). Community services for abused women: A review of perceived usefulness and efficacy. *Journal of Family Violence, 11*(4), 315-328.

Greene, J. C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Greene, J. C., & Caracelli, V. J. (1997). Defining and describing the paradigm issue in mixed-method evaluation. *New Directions for Evaluation*, (88), 5-17.

Guba E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln, (Eds) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guerra, N. G., Boxer, P., & Cook, R. C. (2006). What works (and what does not) in youth violence prevention: Rethinking the questions and finding new answers. *New Directions for Evaluation,* (110), 59-71.

Hamilton, M., & Yee, J. (1990). Rape knowledge and propensity to rape. *The Journal of Sex Research*, *24*, 111-122.

Hanson, K. A., & Gidycz, C. A. (1993). An evaluation of a sexual assault prevention program. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 61*, 1046-1052.

Harding, S. (1991). *Whose Science? Whose Knowledge? Thinking from Women's Lives*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Hart, B. (1993). Battered women and the criminal justice system. *American Behavioral Scientist, 36*, 624-638.

Heck, R. H. (2004). *Studying educational and social policy: Theoretical concepts and research methods*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbraum Associates.

Henry, G. T., & Mark, M. M. (2003). Beyond use: Understanding evaluation's influence on attitudes and actions. *American Journal of Evaluation, 24*(3), 293-314.

Henry, G. T. (2003). Influential evaluations. *The American Journal of Evaluation, 24*(4), 515-524.

Heppner, M. J., Humphrey, C. F., Hillenbrand-Gunn, T. L., & DeBord, K. A. (1995). The differential effects of rape prevention programming on attitudes, behavior, and knowledge. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 42*(4), 508-518.

Heppner, M. J., Neville, H. A., Smith, K., Kivlighan, D. M., & Gershuny, B. S. (1999). Examining immediate and long-term efficacy of rape prevention programming with racially diverse college men. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*(1), 16-26.

Hollander, J. A. (2004). The social contexts of focus groups. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 33*(5), 602-673.

House, E. R. (1994). Integrating the qualitative and the quantitative. *New Directions for Evaluation,* (61), 13-22.

Huberman, A. M., & Miles, M. B. (1994). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.428-444) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Johnson, K., Greenseid, L.O., Toal, S. A., King, J.A., Lawrenz, F., & Volkov, B. (2009) Research on evaluation use: A review of the empirical literature from 1986 to 2005. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 30(3), 377-410.

Johnson, R. B. (1998). Toward a theoretical model of evaluation utilization. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 21*(1), 93-110.

Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation (1994). *The Program Evaluation Standards: How to assess evaluations of educational programs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Karjane, H. M., Fisher, B. S., & Cullen, F. T (2002). Campus Sexual Assault: How America's Institutions of Higher Education Respond, final report, *National Institute of Justice*.

Karjane, H. M., Fisher, B. S., & Cullen, F. T. (2005). Campus sexual assault: What colleges and universities are doing about it. Washington, D.C.: *National Institute of Justice*.

Katz, J. (1995). Reconstructing masculinity in the locker room: The mentors in violence prevention project. *Harvard Educational Review*, *65*(2), 163-174.

Katz, J. (2006). *The Macho Paradox: Why some men hurt women and how all men can help.* Naperville, IL: Sourcebook Trade, Inc.

Kelley, M. L., Schwerin, M. J., Farrar, K. L., & Lane, M. E. (2005). An evaluation of a sexual assault prevention and advocacy program for U.S. Navy personnel. *Military Medicine, 170*(4), 320-326.

Kilbourne, J. (1999). *Deadly persuasion: Why women and girls must fight the addictive power of advertising*. New York: Touchstone.

King, J. A. (1988). Research on evaluation use and its implications for evaluation research and practice. *Studies in Educational Evaluation,* 14, 285-299.

King, J. A. (1998). *Making sense of participatory evaluation practice*. New Directions in Evaluation, (80), 57-67.

King, J. A. (2005). A proposal to build capacity at the Bunche-Da Vinci Learning

Partnership Academy. *New Directions for Evaluation,* 106, 85-97.

King, J. A. (2007). Developing evaluation capacity through process use. *New Directions for Evaluation,* (116), 44-59.

King, J. A., & Pechman, E. M. (1982). *The process of evaluation use in local school settings* No. Final Report of National Institute of Education Grant G-91-0900). New Orleans: New Orleans Public Schools.

Kirkhart, K. E. (2000). Reconceptualizing evaluation use: An integrated theory of influence. *New Directions for Evaluation,* (88), 5-23.

Koss, M. P., Gidycz, C.A., & Wisniewski, N. (1987). The scope of rape: Incidence and prevalence of sexual aggression and victimization in a national sample of higher education students. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55*, 162-170.

Koss, M. P., Leonard, K. E., Beezeley, D. A., & Oros, C. J. (1985). Nonstranger sexual aggression: A discriminant analysis of the psychological characteristics of undetected offenders. *Sex Roles*, 12, 981-992.

Krebs, C. P., Lindquist, C. H. Warner, T. D., Fisher, B. S., & Martin, S. L. (2007). *The campus sexual assault (CSA) study*. Research Report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington D.C. No. (NIJ 221153).

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000.) *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*.Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lawrenz, F., King, J. A., & Greenseid, L. O. (2005). "The relationship between involvement and use/influence in large multi-site evaluations," Presentation at the American Evaluation Association & Canadian Evaluation Society Conference: Toronto.

Levin, R. (1999). Participatory evaluation: Researchers and service Providers as collaborators versus adversaries. *Violence Against Women, 5*(10), 1213-1227.

Leviton, L. C. (2003). Evaluation Use: Advances, challenges and applications. *The American Journal of Evaluation, 24*(4), 525-535.

Leviton L. C., & Hughes E. F. (1981). Research on the utilization of evaluations: A review and synthesis. *Evaluation Review, 5*, 497-519.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lisak, D., & Miller, P. M. (2001). Repeat rape and multiple offending among undetected rapists. *Violence and Victims, 16*, 115-130.

Lonsway, K. A. (1996). Preventing acquaintance rape through education: What do we know? *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 20*(2), 229-265.

Lonsway, K. A. & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1994). Rape myths: In review. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18*(2), 133-164.

Lonsway, K. A. & Kothari, C. (2000). First year campus acquaintance rape education: Evaluating the impact of a mandatory intervention. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 24*(3), 220-232.

Madigan, L., & Gamble, N. (1991). *The second rape: Society's continued betrayal of the victim.* New York: Lexington.

Malamuth, N. M., & Check, J. V. (1981). The effects of mass media exposure on acceptance of violence against women: A field experiment. *Journal of Research in Personality, 15*(4), 436-446.

229

Mark, M. M., & Henry, G. T. (2004). The mechanisms and outcomes of evaluation influence. *Evaluation, 10*(1), 35-57.

Mark, M.M., Henry, G. T., & Julnes, G. (2000). *Evaluation: An integrated framework for understanding, guiding, and improving policies and programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Messick, S. (1995a). Standards of validity and the validity of standards in performance assessment. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice, 14*(4), 5-8.

Messick, S. (1995b). Validity of psychological assessment: Validation of inference from persons' responses and performances as scientific inquiry into score meaning. *The American Psychologist, 50*(9), 741-749.

McGovern, P. M., Gerberich, S. G., Kochevar, L. K., Nachreiner, N. M., & Wingert, D. A. (1998). A survey of community-based violence prevention and control efforts in Minnesota. *Journal of Public Health Policy, 19*(2), 219-231.

Morgan, D. (1998). Practical strategies for combining qualitative and quantitative methods: Applications to health research. *Qualitative Health Research, 8*(3), 362-376.

Morgan, D.L. (1996). Focus groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 22, pp.129-155.

Morse, J. M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research, 40*(1), 120-123.

Mowbray, C. T., Bybee, D., Collins, M. E., & Levine, P. (1998). Optimizing evaluation quality and utility under resource constraints. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 21*(1), 59-71.

Norris, J., & Cubbins, L.A. (1992). Dating, drinking and rape: Effects of victim's and assailant's alcohol consumption on judgments of their behavior and traits. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 16, 179-191.

O'Brien, K. (1993). Improving survey questionnaires through focus groups. In D.L. Morgan (Ed.) *Successful focus groups: Advancing the state of the art*, (pp.105-117). Newbury Park, CA. Sage, pp. 105-117.

O'Donohue, W., Yeater, E. A., & Fanetti, M. (2003). Rape prevention with college males: The roles of rape myth acceptance, victim empathy, and outcome expectancies. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*(5), 513-531.

Orher, L.T. (2005). *Conducting Research: Social science and behavioral science methods*. Glendale, CA: Pyrzak Publishing.

Patten, M.L. (2005). *Proposing Empirical Research: A guide to the fundamentals*. Glendale,CA: Pyrczak Publishing.

Patton, M. Q. (2008). *Utilization focused evaluation, 4th Ed.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks,CA: Sage.

Patton, M. Q., Grimes, P. S., Guthrie, K.M., Brennan, N.J., French, B.D., & Blyth, D.A. (1977). In search of impact: An analysis of the utilization of federal health evaluation research. In C. H. Weiss (Ed.), *Using social research in policy making* (pp. 141-163). Lexington, MA.

Paulozzi, L.J., Saltzman, L.A., Thompson, M.J., & Holmgreen, P. (2001). Surveillance for States, 198101998. *CDC Surveillance Summaries, 50*(SS-3), 1-16.

Payne, D. L., Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999). Rape Myth Acceptance: Exploration of Its Structure and Its Measurement Using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. *Journal of Research in Personality, 33*(1), 27-68.

Preskill, H., & Torres, R. T. (2000). The learning dimension of evaluation use. *New Directions for Evaluation, 2000*(88), 25-37.

Preskill, H., Zuckerman, B., & Matthews, B. (2003). An Exploratory Study of Process Use: Findings and Implications for Future Research. *The American Journal of Evaluation, 24*(4), 423-442.

Ronan, G. F., Senn, J., Date, A., Maurer, L., House, K., Carroll, J. (1996). Personal Problem-Solving Scoring of TAT Responses: Known-Groups Validation. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 67*(3), 641.

Schewe, P. A., & O'Donohue, W. (1993). Rape prevention: Methodological problems and new directions. *Clinical Psychology Review, 13*(7), 667-682.

Schewe, P. A., & O'Donohue, W. (1996). Rape prevention with high-risk males: Short-term outcome of two interventions. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 25*(5), 455.

Schwartz, M. D., & Dekeseredy, W.S. (1997). *Sexual assault on the college campus: The role of male peer support*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Leviton, L. C. (1991). Foundations of of program evaluation. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage.

Shulha, L. M., & Cousins, J. B. (1997). Evaluation use: Theory, research, and practice since 1986. *Evaluation Practice, 18*(3), 195-208.

Smith, P.H., White, J.W., & Holland, L.J. (2003). A longitudinal perspective in dating violence among adolescent and college-age women. *American Journal of Public Health, 93*(7), 1104-1109.

Sochting, I., Fairbrother, N., & Koch, W. J. (2004). Sexual Assault of Women. *Violence Against Women, 10*(1), 73-93.

Stein, J. L. (2007). Peer educators and close friends as predictors of male college students' willingness to prevent rape. *Journal of College Student Development, 48*(1), 75-89.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (1994). Empowerment evaluation, objectivist evaluation, and evaluation standards: Where the future of evaluation should not go and where it needs to go. *Evaluation Practice*, *15 (3)*, 321-338.

Stufflebeam, D. L. (1968). *Evaluation as enlightenment for decision making*. Columbus: Ohio State University Evaluation Center.

Sullivan, C. M. (1998). Outcome evaluation strategies for domestic violence programs: A practical guide. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Coalition Against Domestic Violence.

Sullivan, C. M., & Bybee, D. I. (1999). Reducing violence using community based advocacy for women with abusive partners. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 67*(1), 43-53.

Sullivan, C. M., Basta, J., Rumpz, M., & Davidson, W. S. (1992). An advocacy intervention program for women with abusive partners: Initial evaluation.

American Journal of Community Psychology, 20(3), 309-332.

Sullivan, C. M., Campbell, R., Angelique, H. & Davidson, W. S. (1994). An advocacy intervention program for women with abusive partners: Six-month follow-up. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 22*(1), 101-122.

Sullivan, C. M., & Davidson, W. S. (1991). The provision of advocacy services to women leaving abusive partners: An examination of short-term effects. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 19*(6), 953-968.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998) *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thouand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (2000, July). Extent, nature, and consequences of intimate partner violence: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey (*NCJRS Publication no. 181867*). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, national Criminal Justice Reference Service.

Tolman, D. L., & Szalacha (1999). Dimensions of desire: Bridging qualitative and quantitative methods in a study of female adolescent sexuality." *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 23*(1), 7-39.

Torres, R. T., & Preskill, H. (2001). Evaluation and organizational learning: past, present, and future. American Journal of Evaluation, 22(3), 387-395.

Tracy, D. (2000). Programming for Men to Reduce Sexual Violence. *New Directions for Student Services, 2000*(90), 79-89.

Trinpey, M. L. (1989). Self-esteem and anxiety: key issues in abused women's support group. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 10, 297-308.

Tutty, L. M., Bidgood, B. A., & Rothery, M. A. (1993). Support groups for battered women: Research on their efficacy. *Journal of Family Violence, 8*, 325-343.

Ullman, S. (1996). Do social reactions to sexual assault victims vary by support provider? *Violence and Victims, 11*, 143-156.

Ward, K. J. (2001). Mentors in Violence Prevention Program Evaluation 1999-2000. Unpublished dissertation, Northeastern University.

Ward, K. J. (2002). Reflections on a job done: Well? *New Directions for Evaluation, 2002*(96), 41-56.

Wasco, S. M, Campbell, R., Howard, A., Mason, G. E., Staggs, S. L., Schewe, P. A., & Riger, S. (2004). A statewide evaluation of services provided to rape survivors. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19*(2), 252-263.

Weiss, C. H. (1972). *Evaluation research: Methods for assessing program effectiveness*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Weiss, C. H. (1980). Knowledge creep and decision accretion. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization, 1(3)*, 381-404.

Weiss, C. H. (1981). Measuring the use of evaluation: In J.A. Ciarlo (Ed.), *Utilizing evaluation: Concepts and measurement techniques* (pp.17-33). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Weiss, C. H. (2002). What to do until the random assigner comes. In F. Mosteller, & R. Boruch (Eds.) *Evidence matters: randomized trials in education research* (pp. 198-224). Washington, DC: Brookings Institute.

Weiss, C. H., & Bucuvalas M. (1980). *Social science research and decision making*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Weiss, C. H., Murphy-Graham, E., & Birkeland, S. (2005). An Alternate Route to Policy Influence: How Evaluations Affect D.A.R.E. *American Journal of Evaluation, 26*(1), 12-30.

Williams, I., & Bryan, S. (2007). Understanding the limited impact of economic evaluation in health care resource allocation: A conceptual framework. *Health Policy, 80*(1), 135-143.

Wolff, B., Knodel J. & Werasit, S. (1993). "Focus groups and surveys as complementary research methods," in *Successful Focus Group: Advancing the State of the Art*, D.L. Morgan (ed). Newbury Park,CA: Sage, pp. 118-136.

Worthen B. R., Sanders, J. R., & Fitzpatrick J. L. (1997). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines*. White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers.

Appendix A: Announcement of Invitation to Participate in Focus Groups

How do we know we're helping? Focus groups from the front lines

Learning from each other

The July institute will include an opportunity to share your views about what makes for a "successful" program. Roberta Gibbons, project director from the University of Minnesota, will be holding three focus groups during the workshop times to gather information from program staff and/or program evaluators about how they view the success of their direct services and their educational programming. Although these groups will include some discussion of formal program evaluation, equal time will be given to how program staff members themselves think about the success of their services and/or education efforts.

We all work really hard every day to make a difference in the lives of those we serve or to affect change within those we educate. Like many of you, I've been doing this work for a long time, and now as a PhD candidate I am proposing research that focuses on how we – the front line workers – understand the success of our efforts. I am also interested in how this success has been measured, either formally or informally, if at all. Understanding success from an insider's perspective will benefit our efforts to reduce violence against women because it will enable us to talk about effectiveness in a way that is meaningful and reflective of the work we do every day. I hope to draw connections across our many diverse programs for the good of our programs and those we serve. Please join me for a focus group if you are able. Thanks! Please contact me directly at: gibbo005@umn.edu or 612-626-9977 if you are interested in joining in this discussion or if you have any questions. Participation is completely voluntary.

Some Details

These focus groups are for program staff members with at least three years of experience working in direct services or education. It is also for program evaluators who have worked with funded programs on figuring out the tricky work of evaluating direct services or anti-violence education. This is really a "tell us what you think" opportunity. Results from the focus groups and from a survey to be done at a later date will be shared at a later TTI. It is the goal of this proposed research to learn from grantees and then to subsequently inform how we think about the success of our work and how we demonstrate that success to our stakeholders.

Each school is invited to send one representative to the groups. We are hoping for a diversity of voices within each of the groups so that the various rich experiences of programs are represented. Participants will be assigned a group time prior to attending the institute in July. Because the workshops are presented more than once, no one should have to choose between focus group participation and attending the workshops of their choice.

Please respond directly to Roberta Gibbons at gibbo005@umn.edu or 612-626-9977 if you are interested in this opportunity or if you would like to receive more information. Many thanks!

Appendix B: Pre-Focus Group Survey

Focus group participants

1. Welcome

Thanks for agreeing to participate in a focus group and for taking a few minutes to answer some preliminary questions about yourself and your program. This survey will take no more than five minutes to complete.

All answers will be kept confidential. You will not be identified by name or university in any way.

237

Focus group participants

2. Participant information

1. Please provide the following information:

Your Name:

University Name:

Approximate university enrollment:

2. How many years have you been working in the field of violence against women?

◯ 0-2 years

◯ 3-5 years

◯ 6-8 years

◯ 9 years or more

3. How many years have you been working for the program or department at which you are currently employed?

◯ 0-2 years

◯ 3-5 years

◯ 6-8 years

◯ 9 years or more

3. Your program

1. How many years has your program received grant funding from the Office on Violence against Women?

◯ One year or less

◯ More than one, but less than three years

◯ More than three, but less than five years

◯ Five years or more

2. How many years has your program been in existence?

◯ Less than one year

◯ More than one, but less than three years

◯ More than three, but less than five years

◯ Five years or more

3. What is the annual budget for the operation of your anti-violence against women program? Include in your answer the total amount of money per year allocated to your program from any and all sources. Also include money that goes through your program to pay another organization (i.e. if you collaborate with a community based agency to provide direct services). If you are part of a consortium, answer this question only for the program at your home school.

◯ $0 – $25,000 per year

◯ $25,001 – $50,000 per year

◯ $50,001 – $75,000 per year

◯ $75,001 – $100,000 per year

◯ $100,001 – $125,000 per year

◯ $125,001 – $150,000 per year

◯ $150,001 – $175,000 per year

◯ $175,001 – $200,000 per year

◯ More than $200,000 per year

Focus group participants

4. Please indicate the approximate percent of your funding that comes from the following sources. Your total should equal 100%:

Percentage that is Institutional(hard) funding from your university:

Percentage that is federal government funding:

Percentage that is state government funding:

Percentage that is private foundation funding:

Percentage that is funding from other sources:

5. Does your program (or a subcontractor/collaborator) provide direct services for survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, or stalking?

◯ Yes

◯ No

Focus group participants

4. Program evaluation for direct services

1. All grantees collect information for semi-annual progress reports. This question is about data collection IN ADDITION TO these reports.
Does your program engage in any formal evaluation of your direct services for survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, or stalking? By formal evaluation I mean a systematic collection of data about the impact of services you provide or about the process of providing such services. Again, only answer YES to this question if you do any evaluation in addition to the data collection which is required for the progress reports.

○ Yes

○ No

○ I am not sure

2. Regardless of whether or not your program engages in formal evaluation, I'd like to know to what extent you believe you have a sense of whether or not your direct services program is successful. Please choose the statement below that best fits with your beliefs about your program.

○ I am sure that the direct services we provide are helpful to the clients we serve.

○ I am not sure, but I have a pretty good idea that the direct services we provide are helpful to the clients we serve.

○ I am not sure, but I have a pretty good idea that the direct services we provide are NOT very helpful to the clients we serve.

○ I am sure that the direct services we provide are NOT helpful to the clients we serve.

○ I do not know if the services we provide are effective or not.

Focus group participants

5. Your program: education and training

1. Does your program (or a subcontractor/collaborator) provide education or training on the topics of sexual assault, relationship violence or stalking?

○ Yes

○ No

6. Education and training evaluation

1. All grantees collect information for semi-annual progress reports. This question is about data collection IN ADDITION TO these reports.

Does your program engage in any formal evaluation of your education or training programs? By formal evaluation I mean a systematic collection of data about the impact of the educational/training programs you provide or about the process of providing such services.

Again, only answer YES to this question if you do any evaluation of your education or training programs in addition to the data collection which is required for the progress reports.

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ I am not sure

2. Regardless of whether or not your program engages in formal evaluation, I'd like to know to what extent you believe you have a sense of whether or not your education/training programs are successful. Please choose the statement below that best fits with your beliefs about your program(s).

- ◯ I am sure that the education/training we provide is effective.
- ◯ I am not sure, but I have a pretty good idea that the education/training we provide is effective.
- ◯ I am not sure, but I have a pretty good idea that the education/training we provide is NOT very effective.
- ◯ I am sure that the education/training we provide is NOT effective.
- ◯ I do not know if the education/training we provide is effective or not.

Focus group participants

7. Thank you

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. I look forward to our discussions in San Diego!

Appendix C: Focus Group Instructions

Focus Group Instructions

Hi everyone. I am Roberta Gibbons from the University of Minnesota. I have been the project director for a campus grant for the past nine years. I am now a PhD candidate and I've decided to focus my research on the assessment of success and use of evaluation by grantees. Thanks to each of you for coming. This is the first of three focus groups that I am holding during this institute. The purpose of the groups is two fold. First, I want to gain an understanding about how programs define and assess success. I am interested in both formal assessments of success – such as program evaluations, and informal assessments of success. Some questions that I ask will be specifically about formal evaluation and how it is used, but most of my questions today will be applicable to everyone here – whether you participate in formal evaluations or not. The second purpose is to lay the groundwork for a survey of project directors that I will be conducting in December. I hope these groups will help me to identify the most salient issues that should be addressed in this survey.

Before I begin asking questions, let me go over a few ground rules.

First, I will keep confidential all of the information that you share today. I will not identify you or your institution in any way in any report of this research. I ask that you grant each other the courtesy of anonymity as well. I expect that some things will be said here today that many of you may want to share with your own institutions. Please check with the speaker before identifying him or her in your post-focus group conversations.

Second, I am recording this group so that I am able to accurately report on the content. Only I and a professional transcriptionist will have access to the audio files. I am using name tents so that you may identify each other by name as we move through our discussion. Also – I

246

am going to ask that you identify yourself before you speak, for example, say "this is Roberta" each time you join the conversation. I know this is a little awkward, but it will be helpful for the transcriptionist and also allows me to follow up with a phone call if I have questions about what was said. I will send each of you a transcript of your own group so that you may check on your quotes and contact me with any clarifications, questions, or concerns.

Third, as you know, your participation in this focus group is entirely voluntary. You should know that neither CALCASA nor OVW is in any way affiliated with this research, although I do plan to present my research at a TTI in the future and I will also have a report or article for public consumption based on this research.

Finally, There are no right or wrong answers. I really would like to hear a multitude of perspectives. I hope everyone feels free to talk. I am going to do my best to invite discussion by each member, but I will not be a major part of the discussion myself as I am here mostly to listen and learn what you all think.   If thoughts similar to your own have not been verbalized by anyone in the group, please share them.

With that, let's begin with a simple question – this is the only time that I will ask you to go around and have everyone answer. Can each of you please briefly introduce yourself, your institution, the number of years you have been in existence? Also briefly describe your victim services program and your educational programming. I'd like each person to take no more than a minute or so to do this – and please remember to identify yourself before you speak.

Appendix D: Focus Group Questions

Focus Group Questions

1) Briefly describe your victim services program.
   a. Are services provided by a campus agency or a community-based agency?
   b. Whom do you serve?
   c. How many people do you serve each year?

2) Briefly describe your violence prevention/educational programming.
   a. Who is the audience for these programs?

3) How would you define the goals of your victim services program?
   a. Who are your stakeholders and are there different goals related to different stakeholders?
   b. How formal are these goals? Are they written down in program materials (including annual reports)? Are they considered in meetings/discussions about current services or long range planning?

4) How would you define the goals of your educational program?
   a. Who are your stakeholders and are there different goals related to different stakeholders?
   b. How formal are these goals? Are they written down in program materials (including annual reports)? Are they considered in meetings/discussions about current educational programming, curriculum planning or long range program planning?

5) Tell me about a specific program, whether it be related to victim services or education, that has been successful.

6) How would you define "success" of your victim services program?
   a. Does success look different from the perspective of different stakeholders? For example: success for clients may be staying in school, maintaining a healthy self-image, etc. Success for administrators may be the very existence of a program that serves a certain number of survivors each year.

7) How would you define "success" of your educational programming? Does success look different from the perspective of different stakeholders? For example: success may be individual attitude or behavioral change, or at the level of the institution it may be successful simply to say "We have a program that provides anti-violence education and they reached 2000 students this year."

8) Who in your program is responsible for collecting the data for and submitting semi-annual progress reports?
    a. For those of you who do this, can you comment on the extent to which the process of setting up the system for and collecting this data has affected:
        i. the way you think about your programming
        ii. the actual provision of victim services or educational programs
        iii. anything else
    b. Has anyone used the results of the progress reports in way in addition to providing them to Muskie and OVW. For example, do you use the data that you collect for progress reports to demonstrate a need for funding or to show that your program is functioning at an acceptable or better capacity?

9) Outside of these progress reports, to what extent are you expected demonstrate success to any or all of your stakeholders? How do you do this?

10) OPTIONAL How important is "accountability" to your work and funding? Is this a concept that is at forefront of your work? What are the expectations of your university with regard to your accountability and your success as a program?

11) If you do formal evaluation of either victim services or educational programming, please talk about this. If you do not do formal evaluation, why not?

12) For those who do formal evaluation, can you discuss how the evaluation – either the process of conducting it or its results – has influenced your thinking, your practice, your decision making, your funding etc.
    a. Who conducts the evaluation? Internal or external?
    b. Do staff members participate? Is it collaborative?
    c. How has evaluation been used? What are the constraints & challenges to using the results of the evaluation or what you have learned from going through the process of evaluating?

What else would you like to tell me about this topic? What have I forgotten to ask?

Appendix E:Survey

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

1. Welcome

Thanks for taking a few minutes to answer some questions about your program and your thoughts regarding its goals and effectiveness. This survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete. Each part of this survey is important to the research. The first part of this survey asks you to answer questions related to your program's education and training. The second part of the survey focuses on direct services for survivors of violence. The final part of the survey asks questions related to your experience and your institution. **The survey will be easiest to read if you maximize the survey window on your computer.**

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

2. Your program: Education and Training

The first part of this survey asks questions about your education and training programs related to sexual assault, relationship violence, or stalking.

1. Does your program (or a subcontractor/collaborator) provide <u>education or training</u> on the topics of sexual assault, relationship violence or stalking?

○ Yes

○ No

253

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

3. Education and Training

2. Which of the following groups do you reach with the education or training programs provided by your program or your community-based partner? Please read each option and check all that apply:

☐ Students

☐ Faculty

☐ Staff

3. More specifically, please indicate which groups you reach with your education or training programs. Check all that apply:

☐ On-campus police or security force

☐ Community police

☐ Student judicial affairs staff

☐ Residence hall staff

☐ Athletes

☐ Greek organizations

☐ Student organizations

☐ Volunteers (for your program, if any)

Other (please specify)

4. Are education and training programs <u>primarily</u> provided by your campus program OR are they <u>primarily</u> provided by a community-based agency or other partner?

○ The **campus program** is the primary provider of education and training

○ A **community-based** agency or other partner is the primary provider of education and training programs

○ Both the campus program and a community partner provide an **equal amount** of education and training

4. Program Goals: Education and Training

5. Think about the education and training related to sexual assault, relationship violence, and stalking that is provided on your campus. Please indicate the extent to which the following goals are important or not important with regard to the education or the training.

	This is a **very important** goal of our program	This is a **somewhat important** goal of our program	This is **not a goal** of our program	I don't know
1) Audience/participant satisfaction	○	○	○	○
2) Audience/participant engagement	○	○	○	○
3) Raising awareness about your program and direct services	○	○	○	○
4) Raising awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relationship violence, and/or stalking	○	○	○	○
5) Increasing knowledge of audience members/participants	○	○	○	○
6) Changing attitudes (i.e. decreasing "rape-supportive" attitudes")	○	○	○	○
7) Changing intended behavior, including bystander/ally behavior	○	○	○	○
8) Changing actual behavior, including bystander/ally behavior	○	○	○	○
9) Recruiting volunteers	○	○	○	○
10) Encouraging survivors to seek help from the campus or community victim-services program	○	○	○	○
11) Improving the response to violence against women on campus	○	○	○	○
12) Improving the campus climate regarding violence against women	○	○	○	○
13) Reducing violence against women on	○	○	○	○

campus

6. Are there any other goals you would like to add?

256

5. Success and Effectiveness: Education and Training

7. Colleges and universities have different ways of defining the success and effectiveness of their education and training programs. In the following list, it is possible that you will consider each option as a positive choice, however, please use this section only to indicate the degree to which you believe the statements below are <u>evidence of the success</u> of your education and training programs.

	This is an **important** indicator of success	This is a **somewhat** important indicator of success	This is **not an indicator** of success	I don't know
1) The goals of the program (indicated in question #5, above) are met	◯	◯	◯	◯
2) There are increasingly frequent requests for education/training programs	◯	◯	◯	◯
3) Audiences/groups ask you to come back	◯	◯	◯	◯
4) Audience members/participants remain after the presentation to talk further	◯	◯	◯	◯
5) Audience members/participants contact you at a later date with an issue related to violence against women	◯	◯	◯	◯
6) Good things are said around campus about your education or training program	◯	◯	◯	◯

257

6. Methods used to measure: Education and Training

8. There are many ways to measure and track program success and effectiveness. Please indicate how often <u>your program uses</u> the following methods to measure or track the effectiveness of your education and training programs.

	This method is always used	This method is frequently used	This method is sometimes used	This method is seldom used	We do not use this method	I don't know
1) Someone **observes** the education or training program with the purpose of assessing audience engagement, educator competence, etc.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
2) **Debriefing with the educators** who do the presentations to discuss their perceptions of "how it went"	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
3) A **narrative response**, such as a 2-3 page "reaction paper" written by audience members/participants (This is different from a survey)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
4) Audience/participant **verbal feedback** solicited at the end of the presentation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5) Post-presentation **focus groups** with audience members	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6) **Pre and post surveys** administered to audience members/participants	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7) **Post-only** surveys administered to the audience members/participants	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8) Pre and post surveys with an **additional post follow-up survey or focus group**	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
9) **A campus climate survey** is administered	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

258

to the campus
community

9. Please list any other method you use to gather information about the success of your education and training programs.

10. Which of the following items do you measure with the methods indicated above? Be sure to provide an answer for each item.

	YES we usually measure this	NO we usually do not measure this	I don't know
1) Audience/participant satisfaction	○	○	○
2) Audience/participant engagement	○	○	○
3) Awareness about your program and direct services	○	○	○
4) Awareness about the dynamics of sexual assault, relationship violence, and/or stalking	○	○	○
5) Knowledge of facts related to violence against women	○	○	○
6) Attitudes (i.e., "rape-supportive" attitudes")	○	○	○
7) Intended behavior, including bystander/ally behavior (i.e., How audience members predict they will act in the future)	○	○	○
8) Actual behavior, including bystander/ally behavior (i.e., How audience members/participants do act in the future)	○	○	○
9) The campus climate regarding violence against women	○	○	○
10) The incidence of violence against women on campus	○	○	○

259

7. Direct Services for Survivors

You have completed Part I of the survey. The following questions are related to your direct services for victims/survivors of violence.

11. Does your program (or a subcontractor/collaborator) <u>provide direct services</u> for survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence, or stalking?

◯ Yes

◯ No

260

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

8. Direct Services

12. Which of the following direct services are provided for victims/survivors by your program or your community-based partner? Please read each option and check all that apply:

☐ 24 hour helpline/crisis line

☐ Appointments or walk-in hours on campus

☐ Appointments or walk-in hours at a location off campus

☐ Advocacy for filing police reports

☐ Advocacy at the hospital or a clinic (i.e., for health care or a sexual assault exam)

☐ Student judicial affairs advocacy

☐ Civil court advocacy (i.e., writing restraining orders)

☐ Criminal court advocacy (i.e., for criminal trials)

☐ Academic advocacy (i.e., for survivors having difficulty with coursework)

☐ Referrals

☐ Support groups

☐ Counseling

☐ Coordination with housing/residential life to provide safe housing

☐ A shelter (for survivors who need safe housing)

13. Please write in any other services provided for victims/survivors.

14. Are services for survivors <u>primarily</u> provided by your campus program OR are they <u>primarily</u> provided by a community-based agency or other partner?

◯ Services are primarily provided by my **campus program**

◯ Services are primarily provided by a **community-based agency** or other partner

◯ The campus program and a community partner provide and **equal number** of services for survivors

261

9. Program Goals: Services for Survivors

15. Think about the <u>services provided</u> for victims/survivors of sexual assault, relationship violence and stalking. Please indicate the extent to which the following goals are important or not important with regard to your program and providing direct services for survivors.

	This is a **very important** goal	This is a **somewhat important** goal	This is **not a goal** of our program	I don't know
1) The retention of survivors as students	◯	◯	◯	◯
2) Informing survivors about their options	◯	◯	◯	◯
3) Supporting survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯
4) Increasing the safety of survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯
5) Fulfilling the self-identified needs of survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯
6) Making a report to the police	◯	◯	◯	◯
7) Making a report to student judicial affairs	◯	◯	◯	◯
8) Meeting student development goals established by my institution	◯	◯	◯	◯
9) Avoiding liability/Protecting the university from a lawsuit	◯	◯	◯	◯
10) Systems advocacy (positively affecting the interaction of the survivor with the criminal justice system, student judicial affairs, housing, etc.)	◯	◯	◯	◯
11) Assisting the survivor to a healthy recovery	◯	◯	◯	◯
12) Increasing a survivor's self-esteem, self-efficacy, etc.	◯	◯	◯	◯
13) Changing the campus climate related to violence against women	◯	◯	◯	◯
14) Providing a safe, comfortable space for disclosure	◯	◯	◯	◯
15) Encouraging the survivor to change	◯	◯	◯	◯

262

her/his behavior in
order to reduce the
risk of future
victimization

16. Please write in any other important goal of your direct services program.

263

10. Success and Effectiveness of Direct Services

17. Programs have different ways of defining the success or effectiveness of their services for victims/survivors. In the following list, it is possible that you will consider each option as a positive choice, however, please use this section only to indicate the degree to which you believe the statements below are <u>evidence of the success</u> of your direct services program.

	This is an **important** indicator of success	This is a somewhat **important** indicator of success	This is **not an indicator** of success	I don't know
1) The goals of the direct-services program (indicated in question #15, above) are met.	○	○	○	○
2) When a case related to violence against women surfaces on your campus, your program is involved in a timely manner	○	○	○	○
3) Survivors follow through on their plan for recovery (i.e. seeking counseling or attending a support group)	○	○	○	○
4) A survivor refers others to the program for services	○	○	○	○
5) A survivor offers unsolicited verbal feedback such as "You really helped me" or "I couldn't have made it through school with out you."	○	○	○	○
6) There is wide recognition of your program on campus	○	○	○	○
7) Your program is respected	○	○	○	○
8) A survivor does not sue the university	○	○	○	○
9) The relationship built between the advocate and the survivor is positive for the survivor	○	○	○	○

264

11. Methods used to measure: Direct Services

18. There are many ways to measure and track program success and effectiveness. Indicate how often the following methods are used to measure or track the effectiveness of direct services for victims/survivors.

	This method is always used	This method is frequently used	This method is sometimes used	This method is seldom used	We do not use this method	I don't know
1) Staff meetings with program advocates and counselors to discuss the cases of your program's clients/survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
2) Meetings with campus or community partners (such as the police or student judicial affairs) to discuss the cases you have in common	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
3) Paper or computer-based tracking of client/survivor demographics	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
4) Paper or computer-based tracking of survivor-case details (i.e. type of violence, location of incident)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5) Paper or web-based surveys related to program effectiveness given or sent to program clients/survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6) In-person or on the phone questionnaires are administered to program clients/survivors	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7) Psychological tests administered to program clients/survivors (i.e., self-esteem assessments)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

265

19. Which of the following items do you measure with the methods indicated above? Be sure to provide an answer for each item.

	YES we usually measure this	NO we usually do <u>not</u> measure this	I don't know
1) Satisfaction with services	○	○	○
2) The retention of survivors as students	○	○	○
3) Survivors' knowledge about their options	○	○	○
4) The safety of survivors	○	○	○
5) Student development goals related to survivors	○	○	○
6) Reports made to the police	○	○	○
7) Reports to student judicial affairs	○	○	○
8) The recovery of survivors	○	○	○
9) Behavior change of survivors	○	○	○
10) The comfort of the survivor with the center	○	○	○
11) The survivor's feelings of being supported	○	○	○

266

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

12. Your Program

You have completed Part II of the survey. This final section contains a few questions about your anti-violence program and your experience.

20. How many years has your program received grant funding from the Office on Violence against Women?

◯ 2 years or less

◯ More than 2 years but less than 5

◯ 5 to 8 years

◯ More than 8 years

21. How many years has your program been in existence?

◯ 2 years or less

◯ More than 2 years but less than 5

◯ 5 to 8 years

◯ More than 8 years

22. Is your grant-funded program a <u>consortium</u> project?

◯ Yes

◯ No

23. What is the annual budget for the operation of your anti-violence against women program? Include in your answer the total amount of money per year allocated to your program from any and all sources. If you are part of a consortium, answer this question only for the program at your home school.

◯ $0 - $50,000 per year

◯ $50,001-$100,000 per year

◯ $100,001 - $150,000 per year

◯ $150,001 - $200,000 per year

◯ More than $200,000 per year

267

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

24. Please indicate the <u>approximate</u> percentage of your anti-violence program funding that comes from the following sources.

	0 percent	1-25 percent	26-50 percent	51-75 percent	More than 75 percent
Institutional (hard) funding from your university:	○	○	○	○	○
Federal grants:	○	○	○	○	○
State grants:	○	○	○	○	○
Private foundation funding:	○	○	○	○	○
Funding from other sources:	○	○	○	○	○

268

13. Participant information

25. How many years have you been working in the field of violence against women?

◯ 2 years or less

◯ More than 2 years but less than 5

◯ 5 to 8 years

◯ More than 8 years

26. How many years have you been working for the program or department at which you are currently employed?

◯ 2 years or less

◯ More than 2 years but less than 5

◯ 5 to 8 years

◯ More than 8 years

27. Did you participate in a focus group on the topic of program success and assessment at the Technical Training Institute in San Diego, July, 2008.

◯ Yes

◯ No

◯ I don't remember

28. Providing your name will remove you from the list of people who receive reminders about the survey. This is for record keeping only. Your responses will remain anonymous.

Your Name:

University Name:

29. Please use this space to offer additional information about how you define and assess the success of your program. You may also use this space to clarify any answers or provide comments on the survey.

269

Reducing Violence Against Women on Campus

14. Thank you

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Your response has increased the donation made to the **International Rescue Committee** in recognition of the time given to this research by campus-based program staff members. You will be taken to the the IRC website when you exit this survey.

Appendix F: Pre-Survey Postal Letter

December 23, 2008

Dear Colleague,

You are receiving this letter because you are identified as the project director for The Office on Violence Against Women's *Grants to Reduce Violence against Women on Campus*. I, too, am the project director of such a grant. After working in this field for 15 years, I am now also pursuing my PhD, and I am requesting your help. My research focuses on how campus-based violence prevention and intervention programs define and assess the success of their work. I am interested in this question because I know we do good work, but not much has been written on the effectiveness of our services for survivors. We know more about educational programming, but the insights of the front-line program staff have not been the subject of much research.

On January 8, 2009, you will be receiving an email from me with a link to an online survey. The survey will take 10-15 minutes to fill out. The questions on the survey are based on a series of focus groups I conducted at the July Technical Training Institute held in San Diego, CA. Many of your colleagues participated in these focus groups and I am now asking for your input into this important research that will give voice to the work that we do every day. I plan to present the results of my research at a future Technical Training Institute.

Thank you in advance for your contribution to this research. In recognition of the time and effort given by campus program staff members such as yourself, I have donated $100 to the International Rescue Committee's campaign to end violence against women in war-affected countries, and I will contribute an additional $2 per completed survey. This charitable organization uses 90% of its donations for direct services and programming. You can find it at www.theIRC.org.

Please note that my research is not sponsored by or in any way affiliated with the International Rescue Committee or the U.S. Department of Justice, and I am interested in your opinion even if your program has not been re-funded. All responses will be anonymous.

Sincerely,

Roberta Gibbons,
Project Director, University of Minnesota
PhD Candidate, University of Minnesota
Gibbo005@umn.edu

Appendix G: Email Letter for First Distribution of Survey

Dear Colleague,

You are receiving this email because you have been identified as the project director or coordinator for a *Grant to Reduce Violence Against Women on Campus*. In a letter I sent to you last week, I explained that you would be receiving this email that has a link to a survey. This survey will take 10-15 minutes to complete. Your responses are anonymous. Neither you nor your institution will be identified in any way in any written report or presentation.

The survey contains questions about your campus-based anti-violence program. The goal of this research is to learn more about how campus program staff define and assess the success of their work. As a project director myself, I know the importance of the work we do every day. As a PhD candidate, I am interested in giving voice through research to the front line staff of anti-violence work. Your help is needed so that we can all learn about this important issue. I plan to present the results of my research at a future Technical Training Institute. If you think someone else at your institution is the more appropriate respondent to this survey, please forward this email to her/him.

Thank you in advance for your contribution to this research. In recognition of the time and effort given by campus program staff members such as yourself, I have donated $100 to the International Rescue Committee's campaign to end violence against women in war-affected countries, and I will contribute an additional $2 per completed survey.

You will need a password to access the survey. The password is: campus2009
Here is the link to the survey:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=WdNE1zrGiRdtubQtq07oHg_3d_3d

Please note that this research is not sponsored by or in any way affiliated with The International Rescue Committee or the U.S. Department of Justice, and I am interested in your opinion even if your school has not received continuation funding.

Appendix H: First Reminder: Survey

Greetings,

Two weeks ago I sent you an email asking for your help in my research on campus-based violence prevention programs. You were chosen to participate because you are identified as either a project director or program coordinator for a grant funded by the *Grants to Reduce Violent Crimes Against Women on Campus*.

If you have already completed the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. If you have not, please do so today. The survey will take 15 minutes of your time. I am especially grateful for your help because it is only by learning about the experiences of those who work for campus programs that we can continue to improve our services for survivors and prevention programming.

You will need a password to access the survey. The password is: campus2009

Here is the link to the survey:
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=WdNE1zrGiRdtubQtq07oHg_3d_3d

Thank you for your time and effort. If you believe someone else on your campus is a more appropriate respondent to a survey of this nature, please forward this email to them.

Sincerely,
Roberta Gibbons, Project Director, University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
612-626-9977
Gibbo005@umn.edu

Appendix : Final Reminder of Survey

Greetings,

This is the final reminder regarding the opportunity to share your experiences and insights about violence on campus. Many of your colleagues have already responded and in recognition of that response, over $175 has been donated to the International Rescue Committee. The survey will close at midnight, CST, on Friday February 6.

If you have already completed the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. If you have not, please do so today. The survey will take about 15 minutes of your time. I am especially grateful for your help because it is only by learning about the experiences of those who work for campus programs that we can continue to improve our services for survivors and prevention programming.

You will need a password to access the survey. The password is: campus2009

Here is the link to the survey:
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=WdNE1zrGiRdtubQtq07oHg_3d_3d

Thank you for your time and effort. If you believe someone else on your campus is a more appropriate respondent to a survey of this nature, please forward this email to them.
Sincerely,

Roberta Gibbons, Project Director, University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
612-626-9977
Gibbo005@umn.edu