"What does sexual harassment education have to do with sport management courses?": An analysis of sexual harassment and sexual assault education in sport management curriculum

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Dedication

To my parents: this journey would not have been possible without your unwavering support and encouragement. I cannot say thank you enough to show how truly grateful I am to have you both continue down this crazy path with me.

To Madelyn and Elliette: may your futures be brighter and your opportunities be greater. My heart would never be happier than if I knew you never had to experience gender discrimination in sport, and every facet of your life.

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Abstract

Sexual harassment and sexual assault have gained a great deal of media attention throughout the past several years. More than 200 colleges and universities across the US have been under federal investigation for Title IX violations. Between 20% and 25% of women attending higher education institutions will be the victim of completed or attempted sexual assault during their college careers (Fisher et al., 2000). Sport has been described as a space possessing a permissive rape culture due to its overtly masculine culture (Kidd, 1990). Further demonstrating this belief, research has shown that male athletes were overrepresented in reports of perpetrators of sexual assault, abuse, and intimidation (Fritner & Rubinson, 1993). Both sport organizations and sport management programs in higher education have been found to be male-dominated students (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Jones et al., 2008; Lapchick, 2014a; Lapchick 2015). Industries that are male-dominated in nature have higher levels of sexual harassment, incivility, and passive aggressive behaviors compared to gender even or female-dominated organizations (Willness et al., 2007).

The current research project examined the extent to which undergraduate and graduate sport management students were exposed to education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault in the classroom and internship setting. Results indicated that less than 50% of students are exposed to education on sexual harassment (46.1%) or sexual assault (35.9%) in the classroom, and less than 40% are exposed to training on sexual harassment (39.6%) or sexual assault (28.4%) in the internship setting. Students indicated discussing these topics in most classes offered in sport management departments including: gender in sport, introduction to sport management, sport marketing, sport ethics, sport law, HR management, organizational behavior, and intercollegiate athletics. However, percentages were relatively low for most courses. Students also indicated discussing and being trained on these issues in the following ways: definitions of sexual harassment, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place and on college campuses, ways to decrease sexual harassment, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resource management. However, many student only learned about definitions, legal consequences, and statistics on prevalence.

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Chapter 1

Introduction and General Information

Throughout the past year there has been increased media attention and legal action surrounding issues of sexual harassment and assault on college campuses around the United States. Campus sexual assault was even No. 3 on the American Association of State Colleges and Universities Top 10 Higher Education State Policy Issues for 2015 (Hurley, Harnisch, & Parker, 2015). Research shows that between 20% and 25% of women attending higher education institutions will be the victim of completed or attempted sexual assault during their college careers (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Rape and Sexual Assault, 2014). The 2008 National Crime Victimization Survey (2009) found more than 75% of women who report being sexually assaulted nationwide were under the age of 25 at the time of the assault.

Even more alarming is the number of sexual assaults committed by non-strangers. Sexual assault scenarios are typically believed to play out as follows: an attractive female is walking home from the bar after a night of drinking, she is scantily clad and before she can reach her house she is attacked by a man in an alley (Brownmiller, 1975; Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974). Studies consistently show more than 80% of victims are assaulted by non-strangers (i.e., friends, boy-friends, ex-boy-friends) (Fisher et al., 2000; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). Although two-thirds of victims report incidents to a friend, family member or school official, less than 5% are reported to law enforcement (Krebs, et al., 2007). Report rates of sexual assaults on college and university campuses is much lower than the average population, where 40% of rapes are reported (Krebs et al., 2007). Further, there are alarming rates of sexual harassment on college campuses as well. More than 60% of female college students report experiencing sexual harassment at their university, and 80% indicate that the harassment was

peer-to-peer (Hill, & Silva, 2005). Additionally, male college students are not typically shy about admitting to participating in the sexual harassment of their peers. Approximately 51% of male college students admit to participating in sexual harassment behaviors, and 22% of those men report harassing someone often or occasionally (Hill, & Silva, 2005). Women and men are almost equally likely to experience sexual harassment on a college campus, but they are harassed in different manners and have different responses. Female students are more likely to be the object of sexual jokes, remarks, or gestures, while men are likely to be called a homophobic name such as gay (Hill, & Silva, 2005). Additionally, women are more likely to be upset, feel embarrassed, angry, less confident, afraid, or worried by sexual assault (Hill, & Silva, 2005). Similar to sexual assault, more than one-third of sexual harassment victims do not tell anyone of their experiences, and less than 10% of all students report incidents of sexual assault (Hill, & Silva, 2005).

College Athletes and Sexual Assault

Sport is an industry that is so embedded in American society that there is no escaping it. Americans are exposed to sport continuously either through participation, fandom, or consumption (Coakley, 2009). Sport is considered to be an extremely masculine and gendered domain. Male athletes learn from an early age that they are supposed to exhibit high levels of masculinity possible in order to be successful athletes, and those athletes who do not are often mocked with homophobic slurs and thought of as less than (Messner, 1992). Successful male athletes are taught to be powerful and are rewarded for embodying traits of competition, aggression, and the sexual exploitation of women (Martin & Hummer, 1989; Messner, 1992; Murnen & Kohlman, 2007; Stombler, 1994). The ideal male athlete is strong, fast, and able to dominate or overtake his opponents physically. Take for example boxing, one athlete defeats another, and wins the competition, by physically overpowering him until he can no longer stand

and fight. On the other hand, based on traditional societal norms created through patriarchal views, women are taught they are supposed to exhibit characteristics that are traditionally thought of as feminine (e.g., emotional, empathetic, needy) and participation and success in sport can be discouraged. This division between masculine boys and men and feminine boys, men, as well as girls and women creates a power dynamic in sport that is unmatched. Intercollegiate athletic departments actively promote the kinds of masculine behavior that makes their male student-athletes involvement in sexual assaults of women more probable (Harkins & Dixon, 2010; Sanday 1990, 1996). Due to the popularity, masculine culture, and the nature in which boys and men are taught to act in sport it is an industry that is ripe of issues of sexual harassment and sexual assault. Since the Jerry Sandusky scandal at Penn State, a number of college and youth coaches have been charged with sexual assault of minors (Hardin & Taylor, 2015). Additionally, it isn't uncommon to hear stories of male athletic directors harassing their female employees or women they work closely with. Recently, the University of Minnesota fired their athletic director for engaging in sexual harassment behaviors on women at local news outlets who worked closely with the athletic department (Nelson & Cox, 2015). In addition to hearing of sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape committed by coaches and athletic administrators there has been an increase in reported allegations of sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape committed by male athletes, as well (Siers-Poisson, 2014). These allegations have been brought upon athletes at both the intercollegiate and professional level. Despite hearing recent stories of Jameis Winston at Florida State, Sam Ukwuachu at Baylor, and several men's basketball players from the University of Oregon, allegations of sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape committed by college male student-athletes dates back to the 1970s. Most allegations that are reported and heavily publicized are committed by male student-athletes from revenue generating

sports like football and men's basketball (Siers-Poisson, 2014). In 2001, a female student at the University of Colorado was allegedly gang-raped by current football players as well as recruits at an off-campus apartment where the players and recruits had gathered for a night of drinking (Sanders, 2007). This case set into motion legal action created to protect victims of sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape who may have to face their attacker(s) on a consistent basis, such as in class or on campus.

The low percentage of reporting may stem from techniques of victim blaming that often occur, especially when the accused individual is a high profile student-athlete (Gavey, 2005). Instead of placing blame on the rapist or attacker, the character of the victim is called into question (Gavey, 2005). The victim's alcohol consumption may be called into question or her clothing choices scrutinized. Take, for instance, the case of Jameis Winston. Despite that fact that his accuser took all the right steps by undergoing a rape kit and reporting the alleged crime to the police, there was an 11-month gap between when the crime was reported and when police began questioning witnesses. Additionally, despite the fact that Winston's DNA was found inside the victim, questions of promiscuity arose because another man's DNA was also found inside the victim.

The case of Baylor football player, Sam Ukwuachu, reads in a similar manner. In 2013 Ukwuachu transferred to Baylor from Boise State after being dismissed from the team for violating team rules (Nocera, 2015). After sitting out one season, in accordance with NCAA transfer rules, Ukwuachu proceeded to sit out another season for violating unspecified team rules. It wasn't until recently that the reason for his suspension was released, despite that fact that both the university and athletic department had known for several years. In October 2013, a female Baylor soccer played accused Ukwuachu of raping her (Nocera, 2015). Similar to the

victim in Winston's case, Ukwuachu's victim reported the assault and underwent a rape kit the day after the alleged rape. Just as Winston's victim saw a delay in police action, it wasn't until eight months after the incident was reported that the district attorney decided to pursue felony sexual assault charges. Baylor University handled the case in a similar manner, claiming it had no legal right to inquire about the rape kit, and Ukwuachu went unpunished by the university. Unlike Winston, however, Ukwuachu was ultimately found guilty of second degree sexual assault and will serve 180 days in jail, 10 years of felony probation, and 400 hours of community service.

The combination of high rates of accusations of sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape on male athletic administrators, coaches, and athletes paired with the mishandling of these situations bares the question of proper training on unethical conduct. The question arises if athletes, across all levels of youth, intercollegiate, and professional sport, are being made aware of the issues regarding sexual harassment and sexual assault, and also whether there is proper training for coaches and athletic administrators on how to handle these situations. Additionally, the organizational culture of male-dominated industries such as sport needs to be evaluated, and change those cultures that may be hostile toward women, because hostile environments may be permissive toward and even encourage unethical and perhaps illegal behavior such as sexual harassment and sexual assault.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Organizational Culture

The relationship between culture and successful functioning of an organization has been a popular line of research in the social sciences for a number of years now. The study of organizational culture is a recurring line of work because of the implications that stem from

research on the topic. With increased competition in all industries, the need for innovation and creativity are at an all time high. Research on organizational culture may shed light on how to operate successful businesses, regardless of the industry.

According to Schein (1984) organizational culture can be defined as, "the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration" (p.3). External adaptation refers to the organizations ability to adapt the external environment whereas internal integration refers to employees ability to integrate into the organization as an accepted member. Organizational culture is an evolved milieu within which explicit circumstances are embedded (Bock, Smud, Kim, & Lee, 2005). Therefore, it is rooted in history, communally held, and adequately complex to defy attempts at manipulation from organizational members (Bock et al., 2005). These basic assumptions that influence decision making, have been shown to work well and are adopted as valid, and are then portrayed to group members as the proper way to think and react in relation to common problems that arise (Chelladurai, 2014; Schein, 1984). A main component of organizational culture is that the assumptions and acceptable behaviors are socially transmitted (Chelladurai, 2014; Keesing, 1974; Wolsey, Minten, & Abrams, 2012). Therefore, just as in a group organized by nation of origin or ethnicity, cultural practices in organizations are passed on from supervisor to subordinate or employee to employee. If this chain of communication is severed, the organizational culture cannot withstand or may be more prone to change. .

There are a number of observable events and fundamental forces that build models of organizational culture. For example, group norms are encompassed in organizational culture. Group norms refer to the embedded standards or values that evolve in a particular group (Schein, 1984; Wolsey et al., 2012). These group norms help shape the organizational culture of a

business or industry, and influence the actions of the employees. Additionally, the formal philosophy of the organization aids in creating the organizational culture. Formal philosophy includes the organizational-wide policies and ideological principles that influence a group's actions toward their stakeholders (i.e., stockholders, employees, or customers)(Schein, 1984). This formal philosophy may be highly publicized, or simply shared among those working within the organization.

Organizational culture is also influenced by the implicit, unwritten rules that guide organizations. These unwritten rules also guide behaviors, and must be displayed by new group members in order to be an accepted member (Chelladurai, 2014; Schein, 1984). Unlike formal philosophy, new team members must learn these implicit rules through observation or current team members. Since these rules are not documented, new team members will not be able to find them in any training manual. Climate also influences organizational culture. Climate refers to the mood or emotions that are conveyed in a group by the way the members interact with each other, the customers, and outsiders (Wolsey et al., 2012; Schein, 1984). Although organizational culture and organizational climate address a common phenomenon, they are different. Organizational climate is more situational than organizational culture, and can be linked to an organizational member's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors at a specific point in time (Bock et al., 2005).

Gender Skewness in Sport Organizations

Despite the fact that there has been a steady increase in female athlete participation at all levels of competition during the past 40 years, there has not been growth in the percentage of female coaches and athletic administrators and in fact has actually declined during that same time span (Acosta & Carpenter 2014; National Federation of High School Associations, 2014). For instance, in 2014, only 43.4% of women's teams at the NCAA level were coached by women

(Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Additionally, less than 25% of athletic directors across all three divisions of the NCAA are women, and that percentage drops to less than 10% at the Division I level. Eleven percent of athletic departments do not have a woman in their administrative structure (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). Although generally few or no differences have been identified between the traits, abilities, education, motivation, and ambition of men and women professionals or managers (Powell, 2011), women have been stereotyped as not being as capable as leaders as men (s, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008), and sport is the one most accepted domains for male leadership and decision-making (Whisenant, Pedersen, & Obenour, 2002). Men have historically been perceived the norm in coaching and athletic leadership positions in sport organizations with the perception women are not viable candidates for leadership positions (Walker & Sartore-Baldwin, 2013). This perceived norm is due to the fact that leadership traits like authority and assertiveness are also traits that we as a society associate with mansculinity. Women working in athletic departments are put in charge of the "soft" areas of the department such as academic advising, life skills, and women's sports (Grappendorf, Pent, Burton, & Henderson, 2008; Hoffman, 2010). Women may be funneled into these areas of the athletic department because of the belief that women should possess more feminine, motherly characteristics such as empathy, sensitivity, and a nurturing nature. However, this funneling limits advancement opportunities for women because they are unable to gain experience in the areas most valued by hiring committees tasked with hiring athletic directors (e.g., fundraising, managing a successful football program) (Hardin, Cooper, & Huffman, 2013). Without the proper skill set for tasks such as revenue generation or managing a football team, women working in athletic departments will be unable to reach optimal levels of career mobility.

Career mobility theory is characterized by the multiplicity of employment opportunities that are accessible for individuals within a firm (intrafirm career mobility; e.g., promotion) as well as across firms (interfirm career mobility; Sicherman & Galor, 1990). Conceptually career mobility can be viewed as all job movement possibilities for individuals and the related attitudes and behaviors (Vardi, 1980). Attaining a high degree of career mobility is essential for career advancement and achieving success in one's industry. The ability to change jobs, within an organization as well as between organizations, allows an individual to locate better quality job matches and receive higher pay (Jovanovic, 1979; Parsons, 1973). However, professional advancement through career mobility is only a possibility if the individual can find available and accessible employment opportunities within an industry in which they are qualified to work. Differences in career paths are thought to vary based on ability and schooling across individuals, and the progression of occupations of an individual. However, a great deal of literature explores the possibility that gender plays a role in possible (and improbable) career paths for females (Jacobs, 1999; Smith, 2002; Trentham & Larwood, 1998). Hiring from a principle of similarity and society's traditional gender roles may play a large role in the career paths that women decide to pursue.

Hiring from a principle of similarity, which results in homogeneity of demographic characteristics, occurs through homosocial reproduction (Stafsudd, 2006). Homosocial reproduction refers to the phenomenon where people prefer to work with those who are similar to themselves (i.e., individuals who are similar race and gender, and have a similar cultural background), and therefore recruit and hire those individuals to their organization (Ramirez, 2004; Stafsudd, 2006). In industries that are male-dominated (e.g., corporate firms and intercollegiate athletics) it is difficult for females to get hired into decision-making positions due

to male managers wanting to hire employees similar to themselves, as well as the need for high levels of trust and interdependence.

Hiring from a principle of similarity is easily illustrated in male-dominated industries such as intercollegiate athletics. Prior to the implementation of Title IX, athletic departments were divided by gender into completely separate men's and women's athletic departments run by two different athletic directors. Often the athletic director of the women's athletic department was a female because funding for the position, and entire women's athletic department, was limited. In 1972, when women's athletic departments were typically overseen by women, 90% of women's teams were coaches by women (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). However, after Title IX was implemented the majority of men's and women's athletic departments were combined and the number of females coaching women's sports began to decrease. In 2014, only 43.4% of women's teams are coached by women (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014). There are a number of reasons for the dramatic decrease in the percentage of women coaching women's sports including: increased pay for coaches of women's teams and an increased acceptance of men coaching women's sports. Nevertheless, the fact that almost 80% of athletic directors, across all divisions, are male, hiring from a principle of similarity definitely plays a role (Embry, et al, 2008; Walker & Sartore-Baldwin, 2013).

Similar to the NCAA, we also see a limited number of women in administrative roles within professional sport. When looking at Major League Baseball (MLB), we find that women make up only 29.4% of the entire workforce, and 22.6% of senior executive level positions (Lapchick, 2015). Similarly, in the National Football League (NFL) only 29.6% of management positions are held by women, which is the highest percentage in history (Lapchick, 2014a). The National Basketball Association (NBA) is no different. In 2014, women held only 16.6% of vice

president positions and only 21.9% of team senior administration positions, both down from the 2012-2013 season (Lapchick, 2014b). Even looking at the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), a league created so women could play basketball at the professional level, we find similar issues. In 2014, only 37% of WNBA senior team administrators were women, an 11% decrease from 2013 (Lapchick, 2014c). Furthermore, there are no female head coaches in the MLB, NFL, or NBA (Lapchick, 2014a; Lapchick, 2014b; Lapchick, 2015). It wasn't until the most recent NBA season that a female was hired as a paid assistant coach, prior no paid female assistant coaches could be found in the MLB, NFL, or NBA. The Associated Press may paint the most depressing picture for gender diversity. In 2014 only 13.3% of total staffs at the Associated Press were women (Lapchick, 2014d). Further, less than 10% of Associated Press sports editors are women (Lapchick, 2014d). These results show that men continue to dominate key positions in organizations that govern and represent sports, and the higher the organizational level, the fewer number of women (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012).

Women often experience barriers to entrance when trying to break into the industry as well as when trying to secure more senior, decision making positions (Sibson, 2010). These barriers include unequal assumption of competence, hiring from a principle of similarity, homophobia, and lack of female mentors (Kamphoff, 2010; Kilty, 2006). Women working in athletics often describe experiencing difficulty working in a hostile, male-dominated environment (Norman, 2010). In addition, women in intercollegiate coaching and administration positions often decide to leave the profession at an early age due to lack of time and support, family responsibilities, and burnout (Kamphoff, 2010). These challenges are similar to those faced by women working in other male-dominated industries. It is not uncommon for women working in male-dominated industries to attract increased attention, be evaluated more critically,

and experience less support, especially when they are new to their organization (Embry, et al., 2008; Kanter, 1977; Walker, & Sartore-Baldwin, 2013). Additionally, practices of passivity of employees and administrators in terms of skewed ratios ensures that any efforts to change gender inequality at the institutional level are not taken (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012). Further practices of gender normalcy (i.e., women accepting their position as token female) suggest that any adopted practices to eliminate gender inequality would be ignored, even by women (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012).

University classrooms in sport management programs are similar. For example, Jones, Brooks, and Mak (2008) reported 66% of sport management programs had fewer than 40% female faculty members, and 81.39% of sport management programs had fewer than 40% female students. Women comprised 32.8% of the membership in the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), the professional organization for sport management faculty (R. Ammon, personal communication, June 9, 2015). From academia to intercollegiate athletics to professional sports, women are in the minority. Males dominate the sport management classroom, teaching profession, as well as coaching and administrative positions across all levels of sport.

Due to the masculine nature of sport, gender is deeply embedded into sport organizations, which creates the skewed gender ratios in coaching and administration positions across all levels of sport which has been previously discussed. Leadership skills are often constructed in terms of masculinity, creating a situation where women are eliminated from the selection process of jobs that hold leadership duties (Hovden, 2000). These gendered practices take place at both the institutional and individual level. For example, at the institutional level, individuals making hiring decisions may look at their industry as masculine or feminine which can influence the idea

of who fits into the job they are hiring for (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012). Using sport to illustrate this concept, we can think of an athletic director who is hiring a football coach. Since sport is a masculine domain, and football is a hyper-masculine sport, the image of a football coach would be a man. At the individual level, gendered practices refer to how individuals explain, justify, or resist gendered skewness within their organizations (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012). For example, many women working in the sport industry find it normal to be the only woman in their department while men find it normal to be in the majority (Claringbould & Knoppers, 2012).

Organizational Culture in Male-Dominated Organizations

The nature of the industry influences the organizational culture of a business or department. For instance, industries that are male-dominated (e.g., sport or business) may embrace an organizational culture that is different from industries that are female-dominated (e.g., elementary education or nursing). Further, organizational culture encompasses group norms and acceptable behavior. Therefore, we can speculate that the nature of the industry can influence group norms and acceptable behavior in an organization. Group norms and acceptable behaviors are not always ethical and professional, however. This male-dominated organizational structure may create a "gendered culture" (Bagihole, 2014). In addition to be sex-segregated and sex-discriminatory (i.e., men in power positions, women in support positions), these male-dominated organizations may also be misogynistic, patriarchal, and resistant to change (Bagihole, 2014). It is not uncommon for male-dominated industries to possess cultures where unethical and unprofessional behaviors such as sexual harassment, bullying, and passive-aggressive behaviors can be adopted into an organization's culture and recognized as accepted behavior (McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). When this happens organizations face consequences that span across institutional and individual levels.

The evolution of organizational culture is a slow process. It can take years for policies to become fully adopted into culture, even when the policy is banning a behavior or action that has proscription in legal jurisdiction such as sexual harassment. Organizations and industries that are male-dominated may experience a greater number of issues with unethical or unprofessional conduct due to the high value that is placed on masculine characteristics such as power, dominance, competitiveness, aggressiveness, and toughness (Vogt, Bruce, Street, & Strafford, 2007). In order for women to see success in male-dominated organizations they must form high-quality relationships with their male colleagues, which can be difficult because these colleagues see them as invaders (Bagihole, 2014). Men in these organizations and industries feel the need to display these masculine characteristics, and female employees (or male employees who display less masculine, more feminine characteristics) often fall victim to their bullying and harassment Men may be threatened by women who are successful in male-dominated industries because these women may blur the lines between masculinity and femininity (Bagihole, 2014). Studies consistently show that women in male-dominated industries experience higher rates of sexual harassment than women in gender balanced or female-dominated industries (McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). In these male-dominated organizations and industries, women and racial minorities are perceived as organizational intruders, potentially reducing the benefit of being part of the hegemonic group (i.e., white men) which triggers higher rates of harassment type behaviors (Bergman & Henning, 2008). Women working in these male-dominated industries often times become expecting of this type of behavior. McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone (2012) found that women working in these male-dominated industries reported they believed this harassment came with the territory. Some women working in male-dominated industries describe their experience as a "constant battle" because male colleagues

cannot accept the idea of a female co-worker (Bagilhole, 2014). In some male dominated industries such as sport, men have been the dominant sex for decades so deviating from the norm can create hostility in employees.

Similarly, research has shown that when working in male-dominated industries, women who possess characteristics that may be considered masculine (e.g., leader-like or assertive) may be the targets of these unethical or unprofessional behaviors such as sexual harassment (Berdahl, 2007). By breaking traditional gender norms and displaying masculine characteristics, these women threaten their male co-worker's or superior's masculinity or manhood. Male employees in male-dominant industries may also feel as though they are uniquely qualified to work in these industries simply because of they are male. Women attempting to work in these industries may be threatening the assumptions of men, belief about holding unique qualifications based on sex or gender, which may undermine men's status. Sexual harassment is a way in which male employees can reassert their dominance and control over their female co-workers who would otherwise be considered their equals (Bagilhole, 2014). Organizations and organizational work life were created by men, for men (Marshall, 1984), and women are merely travelers through this "man's world". Organizational culture may serve to include some (i.e., men) while excluding others (i.e., women) (McDowell, 1997). Further, there is a relationship between tolerance shown for these harassing behaviors by the organization and frequency of harassing incidents as well as effectiveness in combating the problem (Gallivan Nelson, Halpert, & Cellar, 2007; Minor-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). If managers show a high level of tolerance for unethical or unprofessional behaviors such as bullying and sexual harassment, employees around the organization will begin to consider these behaviors acceptable and the prevalence will increase. For instance, women who report being sexually harassed or bullied in their first year on the job

are six and a half times more likely to be harassed in year two (McLaughlin etl. al., 2012). Additionally, the longer these behaviors go without consequence, the more difficult it will be to remove them from the culture of the organization. Corresponding, employee perceptions of tolerance at the organizational level have been found to have greater influence on employee behavior and attitudes than the creation or existence of formal organization policy (Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Drawsgow, 1996; Pryor, Giedd, & Williams, 1995). This shows that the creation of formal of policies is not enough to ensure change in organizational culture. Managers must distribute consequences appropriately when policies are broken. Until managers and a majority of an organization's employees stand up against unethical and unprofessional behaviors such as bullying and sexual harassment, the culture will not change.

For good reason, research on workplace bullying and sexual assault has been increasingly prevalent. Studies report that as many as 88% of employees experience some form of workplace bullying within a six month time frame (Mikkelson & Einarsen, 2006). Workplace bullying encompasses a large range of negative behaviors including, but not limited to: verbally offensive remarks, ridicule, social exclusion, and slander (Einarsen, 2000). Sexual harassment can also be found under the workplace bullying umbrella although research is conducted solely about sexual harassment, as well. In the United States, research indicates that 40% to 75% of women and 1% to 31% of men have experienced sexual harassment at some point during their career (Aggarwal & Gupta, 2000). These numbers are staggering, but what is more disturbing is current trends in workplace bullying and sexual harassment. Despite increases in research on the topics, and legal policies against such negative behavior, we continue to see an increase in unethical and unprofessional behaviors in the workplace. Longitudinal research shows that prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace has actually been increasing over the last number of years,

with the exception of female employees feeling pressure for dates from their male colleagues and supervisors (USMSPB, 1981; USMSPB, 1988; USMSPB, 1994). In addition to not seeing a decline in any type of sexual harassment behavior except one, an increase in the most severe category, 'actual or attempted rape or assault', was found (USMSPB, 1981; USMSPB, 1988; USMSPB, 1994). Researchers found a fourfold increase in the prevalence of this category (USMSPB, 1981; USMSPB, 1988; USMSPB, 1994). Additionally, claims of sexual harassment filed with US federal and state agencies rose 19% between 1992 and 2005 (Elkins, Phillips, & Ward, 2008).

One challenge that arises when conducting research on bullying and sexual harassment is the ability of the participants (i.e., organizational employees) to label behaviors as bullying or sexual harassment. Recent studies have shown that organizational culture can influence an employee's willingness or ability to label a behavior as sexual harassment (Welsh, 1999). As previously discussed, if an employee works in an organization that shows tolerance for behaviors such as bullying and sexual harassment, employees will be less likely to report that they have been bullied or sexually harassed. Additionally, if employees feel as though bullying and sexual harassment come with the territory of working in a certain industry or organization, they may also be less likely to report experiencing bullying and sexual harassment. Finally, when organizations become tolerant of these unethical and unprofessional behaviors, the line between acceptable and unacceptable behavior gets blurred. Employees may be less confident in their abilities to correctly classify behaviors as bullying and sexual harassment. In order to combat these unethical behaviors organizations across the United States, and around the world, spend billions of dollars on training programs for their employees

Purposeful Training

Training programs allow organizations to innovate, excel, adapt, improve services, and reach goals. Through training programs, organizations can learn to reduce errors and speed up production. When facilitated correctly, training and development programs can have a considerable impact on an organization's bottom line (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012) However, training programs also allow more conventional organizations the opportunity to stay competitive by continually educating their workforce. These organizations understand that investing in their employees will yield greater results in the end. This training is not limited to individual skill building, it can also provide employees with the skills they need to work with any team of people (Smith-Jentsch, Salas, & Baker, 1996), or can improve the cohesion of a specific group of teammates who are already working together (Smith-Jentsch, Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 2008). However, many organizations have come to the realization that training employees is not as simple as it may seem.

Before employee training begins, it is important for management do assess what needs to be trained and for whom. The first step should include (a) anticipated learning outcomes, (b) an outline for training design and delivery, (c) possible ways to evaluate the training, and (d) information on organizational factors that may assist or hinder the effectiveness of the training (Salas et al., 2012). Moreover, managers and trainers need to complete a needs assessment at the individual, job, and organizational level before beginning training (Arther, Bennett, Edens, & Bell, 2003). Completing this initial needs-based assessment will indicate characteristics of individuals, jobs, and the organization that could influence the effectiveness of the training program. Additionally, the climate of the organization must be assessed before training can begin. It is important to look at the organizational climate surrounding the purposed training to assess the expectations of organizational employees. This can difficult, however, especially if the

leaders or managers assessing the organizational culture are privileged and unaware of issues of harassment or bullying. Research has shown that unmet expectations can lead to lower post-training commitment, motivation, and self-efficacy (Sitzmann, Bell, Kraiger, & Kana, 2009) in addition to reduced performance (Hoilberg & Berry, 1978). These findings indicate that managers and trainers should be sure to not oversell the training in order to avoid the creation of false expectations. Employees who will be completing the training should be educated on how the training is relevant to job performance success, but also need to be informed realistically about what the training will include (Salas et al., 2012). Additionally, it is important to communicate with the trainee how and why the training matters. It is important to illustrate the training as an opportunity that can help one's career and enhance her or his learning, instead of a test because that can create a mastery orientation in the trainee (Ford, Smith, Weissenbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998). Finally, it is important to understand the best way to advertise the training to organizational employees. Research has shown that advertising the training as mandatory may be more positively viewed by trainees rather than advertising the training as optional (Tannenbaum & Yulk, 1992).

After the trainees are educated about the objectives, purpose and intent of the training, the actual content of the training must be presented in a meaningful manner with examples, exercises, and assignments that are relevant to their job (Colquitt, 2002). It is also important that employees participating in the training are provided with tools to help them not only learn and organize the material being presented, but to also recall the content at a later date (Colquitt, 2002). This is important if managers want the material learned during training to be adopted into the culture of the organization. Interactional models (e.g., role play, small group exercises) have been shown to be most effective for the acquisition and retention of interpersonal skills, attitudes,

and knowledge (Sogunro, 2004). Conversely, passive methods of training (e.g., lecture) are less effective in changing trainees' attitudes and behaviors (Sogunro, 2004). This passive method of training was found to improve knowledge about a specific topic (e.g., sexual harassment), but did not change attitudes related to the tendency to harass others (Perry, Kulik, & Schmidtke, 1998).

It is not enough to simply learn the material, trainees must be able to effectively organize, store, and recall the materials when the training has finished. In order to ensure trainees can organize, store, and recall the content, a safe environment for practice must be provided (Colquitt, 2002). Without practice, it cannot be assumed that employees will know how to appropriately handle situations discussed in training back in their everyday environment. This practice opportunity will also give trainers, observers, and peers the ability to provide feedback for the trainee which is also imperative (Colquitt, LePin, & Noe, 2002). It is important, however, to ensure that practice opportunities are structured with objectives, appropriate stimulation, and useful feedback. When trainees engage in practice that is lacking structure, the wrong messages can be portrayed, and the effectiveness of the training can be dulled (Cannon-Bowers, Rhodenizer, Salas, & Bowers, 1998). Effectively running a training program allows trainees to learn and retain the largest possible amount of information, potentially creating a larger change in employee behavior as well as organizational culture.

After the training is complete, it is then important for managers to reinforce the learning objects taught to the trainees, otherwise they will not be adopted into the organizational culture. Salas, Wilson, Priest, and Guthrie (2006) suggest the more supervisor support given and transfer climate present, the greater motivation experienced by trainees to transfer what they learned to their everyday work. The transfer of training to the workplace is the endgame of all training and development programs, however without proper follow-up and reinforcement transfer is

impossible. Managers must ensure employees are being held responsible for their actions and the content of the training they completed. Additionally, it is important for on the job training to continue. Research has shown that only 7-9% of skill development comes from formal training programs (Salas et al., 2012; Tannenbaum, 1997). This shows the importance of continued opportunity for skill acquisition and growth which must be fostered by managers and leaders within the organization.

Learning on the job is more complex than simply following the lead of a supervisor or leader, however. The more post training research-recommended activities an organization hosts, the more valuable the training is likely to be (Perry et al., 2012). This learning must be guided. Team leaders have been found to be an important aspect of effectively learning on the job, and these leaders can greatly influence an employee's performance and retention at an organization. Training has been shown to be most effective when the training program is highly visible to employees, goals for training are clearly defined, employees are willing to contribute resources, and there is a high degree of involvement from multiple levels in the organization (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000).

Fostering Individual and Organizational Change

Training and development programs are among the most pervasive techniques for enhancing employee performance and productivity (Arthur et al., 2003). However, enhancement of performance and productivity are not the only benefits gained from training and development programs. Beyond increases to an organization's bottom line, training and development programs can positively change individual and organizational culture and decrease unethical and unprofessional behaviors such as bullying and sexual harassment.

With the passage of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act we saw a change in the landscape of workplaces around the country. With this passage, creating outright barriers to the

employment of racial minorities and women in certain workplaces and positions became illegal. Where discrimination once lived, formalized employment practices have been established. However, this is not to say that racism and sexism in the workplace no longer exist. Sadly, workplace segregation of jobs and hostile work environments toward women and racial minorities of all genders do still exist. For this reason, it is important to continue education and training on discrimination, segregation of jobs, and hostile work environments.

Training and education programs about sexual harassment are particularly difficult because sexual harassment is subjective and takes on many different definitions. According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) sexual harassment can be defined as "unwelcomed sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature" that impedes with one's employment or work performance or creates a "hostile or offensive work environment" (US EEOC, 2011). What makes defining sexual harassment so difficult is its subjective nature, as previously stated. What one employee believes to be sexual harassment, another may find to be innocent flirting. Additionally, the decision as to what constitutes sexual harassment is in the eyes of the harassed employee, not the harasser. Even if someone doesn't intend to cause harm to another employee through sexual harassment, it can happen. Further, when working in an organization with a permissive culture toward harassment and bullying attitudes and actions employees can become accepting of those attitudes and actions (Vogt et al., 2007). In these instances, even if an employee deems an action as sexual harassment they may not report the action because they have come to expect it. This expectation may cause the employee to consider the action as less harmful.

There are several important learning outcomes that should be addressed when conducting training and educational programs on sexual harassment that can foster individual and

organizational change. As mentioned above, sexual harassment is both subjective and difficult to define. Research has shown that sexual harassment is not always intentional, or motivated by hostility, but rather fueled by cognitive development and routine behaviors (Deitch & Hegewisch, 2013). Formalization and accountability in employment practices can reduce the exercise of these biases, whether they are intentional or not (Deitch & Hegewisch, 2013). When organizational culture becomes permissive of behaviors such as bullying and sexual harassment, individuals may begin to forget the behaviors they are routinely engaging in are unethical and unprofessional.

For this reason, the most basic learning outcome of sexual harassment training programs to foster organizational and individual change is education about the existence of sexual harassment in the work place. Enlightening employees about the prevalence of sexual harassment, and the seriousness of such behaviors is an important place to start. Ensuring that trainees understand that research indicates 40% to 75% of women and 13% to31% of men have experienced sexual harassment at some point during their career, and the experience of this harassment has negative consequences for both the harassed employee as well as the organization (Aggarwal & Gupta, 2000; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997). On an individual level, experiencing sexual harassment can cause mental and physical health consequences that range from irritation and anxiety to depression and post-traumatic stress disorder (Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina, & Fizgerald, 2002; Crocker & Kalembra, 1999; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Organizations also face numerous negative consequences when their employees experience sexual harassment. Beyond the expenses of legal costs that arise from investigating the complaint and actions brought against the organization when sexual

harassment is reported and found, organizations also incur costs from turnover and the resulting recruitment, and training and development of new employees (McDonald, 2012).

Trainees also need to be educated about the fact that sexual harassment is subjective. What one employee perceives to be sexual harassment, another employee at the same organization may perceive to be harmless flirting. For this reason, another learning outcome of sexual harassment training programs that can change organization and individual culture is awareness about who decides what constitutes sexual harassment. Employees must be taught that sexual harassment is in the eye of the employee who feels as though they have been sexually harassed. Even if the harassment is unintentional, damage can still be done. Although the harasser may not perceive his or her actions as sexual harassment, the employee at which they are directing the behavior might disagree. Employees need to be taught that once an action is thought to be sexual harassment by a fellow employee, supervisor, and subordinate, the action must cease, immediately.

Finally, employees need to be educated about the definitions of sexual harassment in order to foster organizational and individual culture changes. As previously stated, the EEOC defines sexual harassment as "unwelcomed sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature' that impedes with one's employment or work performance or creates a "hostile or offensive work environment" (US EEOC, 2011). However, since this definition is subjective there are many parts to it. Behaviors that define sexual harassment are wide-ranging and diversely categorized (McDonald, 2012). Sexual harassment includes both verbal comments (e.g., sexual/sexist comments) as well as non-verbal actions (e.g., sexual gestures), in addition to sexual coercion (e.g., offering pay raises for sexual favors; quid pro quo)(McDonald, 2012). Training programs developed around sexual harassment must

include a discussion of the wide variety of behaviors and actions included under the umbrella definition of sexual harassment in order to be effective.

Measuring Training Effectiveness

Evaluation of training programs is crucial to the effectiveness of these programs. By frequently evaluating programs, organizations can continue conducting training and development that work and can modify or suspend programs that do not (Salas et al., 2012). There are several aspects of training programs that must be evaluated in order to determine effectiveness. An assessment of whether or not learning and instructional outcomes were met should be included. Questions on this topic may require multiple measurements to assess different types of outcomes. For instance, measures evaluating change in declarative knowledge (i.e., whether trainees know more post-training), in skill behavior (i.e., whether or not trainees are completing tasks better), and in self-efficacy for transfer (i.e., whether or not trainees have experienced a positive change in affect) should all be included in post training assessment and evaluation (Salas et al., 2012).

As previously stated, creating quality training and development programs is not as easy as it may seem. Ineffective employee training can stem from creating training programs that do not incorporate much of what researchers have learned about how to successfully design, deliver, implement, and evaluate training programs. Salas and Kosarzycki (2003) found a gap between research and practice exists in regards to the creation of training programs. If this gap persists, and organizations do not utilize best training practices, their employees may not experience the benefits and receive the greatest understanding of training and development programs (Kraiger, McLinden, & Casper, 2004).

Feminism and Feminist Theory

The principle of female subordination and male domination in our society isn't a new phenomenon; it dates back hundreds of years. As America developed as a nation women

continually found themselves in a position of subordination and oppression, with (Caucasian) men at the helm. As men deferred decisions to God, women were expected to defer decisions to men. For many years women were unable to vote, own land, or even divorce their husbands. After marriage, women were relegated to the status of a minor or slave. Women were, and often still are, consistently thought to be inferior to men because of their perceived limited physical strength, small physique, inadequate intelligence, and tendency to depend upon their emotions as opposed to intellect. Women are continually taught they should portray characteristics such as: emotional, empathetic, and needy rather than traditionally male characteristics like strength, aggression, and forcefulness. Further, our society has time and again reinforced the notion that women should be confined to domestic spaces (e.g., maintaining the house, cooking), nurturing children, and taking care of their husband's needs.

It was in the mid-1800s when a group of women determined to fight for their own freedom began the women's movement with what is commonly referred to as the first wave of feminism (Hyde & Else-Quest, 2013). The first wave of feminism is marked by the first Women's Rights Convention which was held in Seneca Falls, New York in 1848 (Madsen, 2000). Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Margaret Fuller are cited as driving forces behind the organization of the conference after they were denied access to the international anti-slavery convention that was held in 1840 in London. During this first wave of feminism women began publishing foundational pieces about their forced subordination and oppression that served as a plea for the elimination of all intellectual and economic limitations imposed with gender as the rationale (Madsen, 2000). These early pieces begin the discussion, that is still prominent in feminist theory today, of how prejudices affect the lives of men and women differently. Additionally, these women ask women around the country reject the external

regulation of their minds and lives, and seek greater fulfillment through education, property ownership, and even divorce or separation from their husbands (Fuller, 1845). The premise of the arguments in these pieces is allowing women to develop further will benefit humanity as a whole, not just women. In 1869 the National Women's Suffrage Association and American Women's Suffrage Association were established to promote a suffrage amendment to the constitution, which became the 19th Amendment in 1920 (Madsen, 2000). These organizations, later merged together, and also fought for reforms to divorce laws and better working conditions for women. It was these women who laid the intellectual foundation for the second wave of feminism when they proposed the Equal Rights Amendment to Congress in the early 1920's (Humm, 1992). Although the movement was unsuccessful, it laid the groundwork for later feminists as they pushed for federal equity for women. Although the Civil Rights act, and affirmative action, are successes given to the second wave of feminism, it is here that they got their footing.

The second wave of feminism emerged in the early 1960s (Hyde & Else-Quest, 2013). This wave of feminism focuses on sexism from men and the oppression of women, specifically on the exclusion of women from the public arena and discrimination in the work place on the basis of sex or gender (Madsen, 2000). It was during this time period that the government started playing a role in women's fight for equality and equity. In 1972 the Educational Amendment Act was passed which made it mandatory for all colleges and universities to investigate admissions, hiring, and athletics for affirmative action purposes (Educational Amendment Act of 1972). Additionally, that same year, the marker decision in the Roe v. Wade Supreme Court case was overruled (Madsen, 2000). However, second wave feminists came under fire later in the decade for failing to ratify the Equal Rights Amendment which subsequently expired in 1982. It was

during this wave of feminism that the discussion of sexual violence against women, as a tactic for upholding patriarchal power, rose to prominence (Madsen, 2000). During this time, feminists put forth the notion that men commit acts of sexual violence against women not for the sexual satisfaction they might experience, but in order to maintain power and the traditional patriarchal system that was currently in place. Activists during this time put forth the radical notion that all women represent a single class, and therefore have the same experiences of oppression (Brownmiller, 1975). However, this wave of feminism faced criticism over their inability to expand feminism beyond the middle class and Caucasian race, as well as their failure to unify the divisions between moderate and radical feminists (Archer-Mann & Huffman, 2005). In the context of rape, during this wave of feminism, it was thought that all women had the same experiences from rape and post rape thoughts and emotions.

The third wave of feminism began in the 1990s, largely in response to the critiques and backlash received by second wave feminists about their inability to encompass women with a wide variety of races, ethnicities, religions, socioeconomic classes, and culture backgrounds (Tong, 2009). Third wave feminists take a broader approach to the goals of feminism, focusing on issues such as queer theory, the interctionality of identites, and abolishing gender role stereotypes and expectations (Snyder, 2008). That is not to say however, that third wave feminists aren't continuing many of the efforts of second wave feminists. Third wave feminists still strive to create milieus of justice, freedom, and self-actualization for all people while focusing on gender-related issues (Snyder, 2008). However, feminists in the third wave have embraced the diversity of women, and rather than taking a single woman standpoint, as second wave feminists tended to, third wave feminists have celebrated the differences between women and accepted that women have multiple identities beyond gender (Mack-Canty, 2004). It is also

important to note that multiple oppressed identities should not be looked at as discrete identities, but as intersecting and interlocking (Daly, 1997). Therefore, according to third wave feminists, it is possible for women to associate with multiple (oppressed) identities.

Feminist Theory and Sexual Violence

Stemming from discussions of power, traditional patriarchal views, and violence against women that began during the second wave of feminism, campaigns around and research into sexual violence have been placed at the forefront of the public agenda and feminism. When these discussions began, feminists criticized scholars in the psychological sciences for the invisibility of rape in the professional literature (Ward, 1995). Throughout history, feminist theory and research on sexual violence has centered around the definition, nature, causes, and consequences of rape (Ward, 1995). The predominant view within feminism is that sexual violence against women, whether it be rape, sexual assault, sexual harassment, or pornography, is a key element in male power and control over women (Griffin, 1971; Madsen, 2000). Women are viewed as men's property, and female sexuality is recognized as a good that should be enjoyed by men (Millett, 1969). It is believed that this gender inequality operates at both a structural (i.e., women's limited access to and low positions within society) and ideological level (i.e., norms, values, and attitudes about the class and roles of women within society) (Dobash &Dobash, 1979). Rape is believed to be the result of entrenched social traditions or male dominance and female exploitation which stem from unequal gender roles (Rose, 1977). Research has also shown this to be true. Studies have found the status of women in a country is negatively correlated to the prevalence of sexual violence against women (Yodanis, 2004). Therefore, as the status of women in a country increases, the prevalence of sexual violence decreases, and vise versa.

Feminists believe that men learn to rape, and the primary motive for rape is not sexual desire but rather the desire to dominate women in an attempt to preserve male supremacy (Brownmiller, 1975; Buchwald, Feltcher, & Roth, 2005). Therefore, rape is not the product of a few sick minds (i.e., the men who rape), but rather the product of an ill society that has been pushing forth patriarchal views. Although feminists do recognize certain characteristics increase the likelihood that someone may commit rape or sexual assault (i.e., imbalances of power or resources in a relationship, endorsement of violence, addiction to substances such as alcohol or drugs, etc.) (Jasinski & Williams, 1998), they are also aware that these individual characteristics will flourish in a male-dominated society (Yodanis, 2004). In addition to the increased likelihood of presence of the aforementioned individual characteristics, the probability of the possession of the characteristics lead to violent behavior also increases in a male-dominated society (Yodanis, 2004). The power and control men hold over women is the result of this traditional patriarchal, male-dominated structure. Although numerous advancements have been made throughout history, seemingly decreasing sex based discrimination and increasing women's rights, there are a number of structures still in place that allow men to continue their power hold over the female gender. Feminists believe that challenging the patriarchal order of our society and confronting men's violence can be done through increasing women's autonomy (Hester, Kelly, & Radford, 1996).

Moreover, feminists consider acts of sexual violence, such as rape and sexual assault, tools used by men to create fear in women, which allows them to better maintain control. Even though men are more likely than women to fall victim to violent crimes, women continue to be more fearful of the possibility of victimization (Pain, 1997). Although some believe women's fear to be irrational, in terms of acts of sexual violence there are warrants for this fear. When

compared to men, women have been found to be a more probable target for crimes of rape and sexual assault (Catalano, 2004). Further, males commit crimes of sexual violence at a much higher rate than women (Greenfeld, 1997). According to feminist theory, men use fear to control women's behaviors, thereby maintaining control of social foundations and patriarchal order (Yodanis, 2004). Not all men must be violent, nor all women be on the receiving end of such violent behavior in order to maintain fear, however. Simply, being aware of the fact that some women fall victim to horrific violence (both sexual and non-sexual) is sufficient for men to benefit from a system of privileges that positions women as victims and men as aggressors. As the number of acts of sexual violence against women increases, the likelihood of hearing about said instances also increases. Showing support for the preceding statements, research has illustrated that as the prevalence of sexual violence in a country increases women become more fearful (Yodanis, 2004). It is through this culture of fear that some men continue preserve their status over women (Brownmiller, 1975; Riger & Gordon, 1981; Stanko, 1995). The power differentials created through this fear affects all social interactions and relationships between men and women.

The phrase 'sexual violence' identifies the violence to be a gendered incident within the framework of patriarchal social relations (Kelly, 1988). Most often, in cases of rape or sexual assault, the victim is a female and the perpetrator is a (white) male. In 2003, the U.S. Department of Justice found that nine out of every 10 victims of rape were female (Catalano, 2004). Further, research has shown that one in five (19.3%) women will be the victim of rape during their lifetime and 43.9% of women will fall victim to other forms of sexual violence (Breiding, Smith, Basle, Walters, Chen, & Merrick, 2014). Additionally, almost 99% of rapists are male, with six of 10 being white (Greenfeld, 1997). The previous statistic is alarming, but not surprising, when

taking a feminist view of rape and placing focus on the power dynamic of the event. Viewing sexual violence as a gendered term also allows for the recognition of the fact that violence committed by men toward women is likely to be sexual, such as rape or sexual assault, or sexualized, since this may be a power 'turn on' for men (MacKinnon, 1982; Hester, 1992). In order to combat the gendering of sexual violence, an increasingly popular response is to de-emphasize the gendered distribution of those who are victims and those who are abusers (Madsen, 2000). Instead of emphasizing a female victim and male rapist, the discussion is centered around people raping, sexually assaulting, or abusing people. By doing this, the emphasis of the crime (i.e., rape or sexual assault) is not decreased, but the genderedness of the transgression is. This de-emphasis of the gendered distribution allows for men and traditional patriarchal systems of power to be removed from the spotlight.

"Real Rape"

Feminist researchers and scholars have also worked to change the attitude and outlook of how people think about the demographic characteristics of rapists and those who commit sexual assault. Prior to the 1980s the term rape suggested a scene where a perilous man grabbed a woman in a dark alley, or broke into her home in the middle of the night, using force to rape or sexually assault her (Gavey, 2005). Although the method of capturing the women or entering her home could vary, 'real rape' was thought to involve a dangerous stranger. This idea of stranger rape as 'real rape' created an image that rape had to be a vicious action in which the victim was attacked at knifepoint or gunpoint by a stranger, and that all victims had the same experiences and post-rape thoughts and emotions (Gavey, 2005). However, as feminism began to look at women in terms of their diverse identities (e.g., different races, ethnicities, ages, sexual orientations, etc), research on rape and sexual assault began to do the same and explore the different experiences of women who have been victims of sexual violence.

With the rise of the third wave of feminism, and increased availability of statistics about rape and sexual assault victims and perpetrators, terms like acquaintance rape, date rape, and marital rape entered the discussion (Gavey, 2005). Prior to this time period, limited amounts of research had been conducted looking at the demographics of rape victims and perpetrators due to the fact that 'real rape' was thought to be committed by a stranger in a violent manner. In addition to the traditional profile of rapists created by the idea of 'real rape,' the concept of date rape and marital rape hadn't yet entered the discussion because many men (and women) assumed implied consent in romantic relationships. The thought that a husband could rape his wife wasn't a widely accepted idea until third wave feminism was in full swing, and still isn't an accepted belief in many countries around the world. However, recent studies have found that between 78-80% of college-aged women (ages 18-24) who have been victims of rape or sexual assault were attacked by a non-stranger (e.g., boy-friend, ex-boy-friend, friend) (Krebs et al., 2007; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). With this changing demographic profile of rapists, rape no longer seems to be a rare occurrence, rather an almost ordinary event. For feminists, the discussion comes back to power as the lines between rape and what was once thought to be just sex have started to blur.

Adding to the ambiguity are studies that found men who admitted they would likely commit rape or sexual assault if they knew they wouldn't get caught. Several studies published in the late 1970's and early 1980's found that approximately 35% of men indicated having some level of likelihood (2 or higher on a 5-point likert scale) of raping if they could be assured of not being caught or punished (Check & Malamuth, 1983; Malamuth, Haber & Feshbach, 1980; Malamuth, Reisin, & Spinner, 1979). Additionally, 40% of both female and male high school students reported believing it was acceptable for a male to hold down a female and force her to have intercourse under various conditions (e.g., he bought her an expensive dinner, they had

done it before, they were dating) (Giarrusso, Johnson, Goodchilds, & Zellman, 1979). Similar results were found in a more recent study. A survey of college students found that one in three college men admitted that they would use force to get a woman to have sex with them (Edwards, Bradshaw, & Hinsz, 2014). This willingness to engage in rape and sexual assault may be a possible reason behind the shift from defining 'real rape' as those acts committed by a dangerous stranger to viewing rapists as a more diverse population.

One of the major difficulties associated with research on rape and sexual assault, as well as the prosecution of rapists and those who commit sexual assaults, is the varying definitions of these actions. Throughout history it has been difficult to pinpoint the exact actions that must occur in order for rape or sexual assault to have taken place. Changing definitions of rape, sexual assault, sexual harassment, and consent have created confusion in both men and women. Additionally, feminists have also attempted to address the dilemma of the wide variety of experiences victims of rape and sexual assault have, even when they are victims to similar types of sexual violence. In order to increase statistical reporting of rape nationwide, the definition was recently changed. The Department of Justice now defines rape as 'the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim,' (Department of Justice, 2012). Further, the Department of Justice (n.d.) defines sexual assault as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault (Department of Justice, n.d.). Although these definition seem straight forward, it is the diverse experiences of the victims which makes defining the acts problematic under feminist theory. Not all women have the same experiences, thoughts, and emotions from the same acts of sexual violence. Feminists use these diverse experiences and the behaviors

women have found to be abusive to expand their definitions of sexual violence (Hester et al., 1996). Beyond rape and sexual assault experienced as an adult, women experience sexual violence in the form of sexual harassment, physical battering, childhood sexual abuse and intimidation, as well as obscene phone calls, and an overflow of pornographic material, which creates a vast profile of experiences, thoughts, and emotions.

Additionally problematic with defining rape is the fact that men may differentiate between rape and forcible sex. Moreover, men may misunderstand or have a disregard for sexual consent. As previously discussed, a 2014 study showed that nearly one third of college men admitted they would use force to get a women to engage in sexual intercourse with them, which is consistent with previous literature dating back a number of years (Edwards et al., 2014). However, during this portion of the survey, the word 'rape' was not used in the scenario. When the word 'rape' was specifically used to describe the actions being investigated and previously asked about (i.e., using force to get a women to engage in sexual intercourse) the percentage dropped to only 13.6% (Edwards et al., 2014). This points to a misunderstanding of the definition of rape, which according to the Department of Justice, is forcible penetration without consent. Although the definition of these crimes put forth by the Department of Justice seem straightforward, there appears to be some uncertainty in men. Feminists and feminist theory would speculate that this is another way for men to downplay the genderedness of sexual violence and continue to maintain power and control over women. This also further supports the notion that men learn to rape through society's traditional patriarchal values.

Silencing Women through Victim Blaming

During the 1970s and 1980s, as well as today, victims of rape were often subject to victim blaming tactics in order to ensure silence from other women who had experienced rape or sexual assault (Gavey, 2005). Instead of placing blame on the rapists (i.e., the dangerous

strangers), victims received undue scrutiny. If a women fell victim to rape while out during the late hours of night, she was blamed for being out too late or had the appropriateness of the clothing she was wearing was called into question. By utilizing these tactics of victim blaming, and essentially removing the blame from the rapists, such violence is not likely to be stopped or the perpetrator to be punished. The opposite may actually happen, and such sexual violence against women may be subtly or overtly encouraged (MacKinnon, 1979, Walby, 1990). Feminist scholars have argued rape culture not only promotes, excuses, and trivializes sexual violence against women, but also demeans and devalues women who have been victims of rape and sexual assault (Ward, 1995). This allows men and patriarchal societies to position certain groups of women (e.g., rape and sexual assault survivors) to even lower status levels. Further, by engaging in victim blaming tactics, men can continue to hold control and power over women, influencing their willingness to report cases of rape and sexual assault to the authorities. These tactics also work to create fear in female populations. Women understand the high possibility of falling victim to these crimes, and many have also come to accept that they may not be believed or supported by society (or the authorities) if they report instances of occurrence. Unfortunately, these tactics have proven to be effective throughout history and are still utilized to this day. Reports dating back to the 1980s suggest that only 5-10% of women who experience rape or sexual assault report the incident to the police (Brickman, Briere, Lungden, Shepherd, & Lofchick, 1980; Byers & Eastman, 1981). More recent studies have drawn similar conclusions, reporting that less than 5% of victims of rape and sexual assault actually ever report the incident to law enforcement (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007).

Identifying Rape Myths

The topic of rape comes with a number of associated myths that have been put forth by men and patriarchal societies. The notion of rape myths were introduced by both sociology (e.g.,

Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974) and feminist (e.g., Brownmiller, 1975) scholars in the mid 1970's. Scholars illustrated how a set of intricate cultural values played a large role in supporting and perpetuating male sexual violence against women (Brownmiller, 1975; Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974). These rape myths both distort and govern female sexuality. Burt (1980), defined rape myths as "prejudicial, stereotypical, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists," which then creates "a climate hostile to rape victims" (p. 217). These rape myths serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression and violence against women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Broadly speaking, rape myths range from victim condemnation, vilification, and isolation, to the minimization of sexual violence (Brownmiller, 1975; Ward, 1988). Rape myths include misconceptions such as 1) all women want to be raped, 2) no woman can be raped against her will, and 3) the woman was obviously asking for it (Brownmiller, 1975). Although many rape myths discuss the woman involved (e.g., all women want to be raped, she was obviously asking for it) there are rape myths that discuss how rape is the result of an uncontrollable passion experienced by men (Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974). Similar to the practices of victim shaming, these rape myths serve to frame sexual violence as consensual sex rather than an act of domination or control, attempting to deny the reality of sexual violence (Ward, 1995). Just as feminists believe that men are taught to rape, there is a commonly held belief that these rape myths are also taught through socialization and the perpetuation of gender stereotypical beliefs and patriarchal views of a male-dominated society (Boakye, 2009). By continuing to socialize boys and men using perpetuated gender stereotypical beliefs and patriarchal views, men can ensure they will remain dominant over the female population.

Sexual Violence in Sport

The Coach-Athlete Relationship. The gender skewness, paired with the masculine nature of the sport industry creates a culture that is ripe for acts of sexual violence against

women. Males not only often hold authority positions, with females working as assistant coaches, athletic directors, or administrative assistants, a majority of female teams are coaches by men which creates an intense power dynamic. Public awareness of issues involving coaches and sexual abuse heightened in 2011 with the news of the longtime Penn State University assistant football coach Jerry Sandusky's sexually assaulting underage boys on university property. Sandusky was eventually found guilty on 45 charges of sexual abuse and sentenced to a minimum of 30 years in prison (Glenn, 2013). This incident made national headlines but inappropriate actions involving coaches and their athletes have been an issue plaguing sport administrators for many years. USA Swimming was rocked in 2010 when an ABC television investigation revealed numerous male coaches had been banned for life for alleged sexual misconduct with female swimmers. The investigation led to USA Swimming enacting polices later that year which led to more protection for swimmers. The policies included expanded background checks and mandatory reporting of credible information of sexual abuse (Anderson, Bechtel, & Gorant, 2013). USA Gymnastics also has banned coaches for sexual misconduct (Reid, 2011).

The amount of data available on the frequency and type of sexual abuse between coaches and athletes is sparse and inconsistent (Baker & Byon, 2014; Harthill, 2009). Reports have ranged from 2% to 27% depending on the sport and population examined (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997; Leahy, Pretty, & Tannenbaum, 2002). Athletes are often told or pressured to keep allegations private to protect the team, school, or organization, and to save everyone from public embarrassment which makes the reporting inconsistent (Parent, 2011).

The lack of reporting may have led to the proliferation of sexual abuse between coaches and athletes. Administrators and coaches want to protect their organization or team so they will

not report coaches so as to not hurt their organization's or team's reputation. This has created an environment of secrecy and perhaps an environment of acceptability. Other factors for not reporting include athlete embarrassment, lack of athlete understanding of sexual abuse, lack of physical evidence, lack of oversight for coaches, and parental denial (Gutierrez & McLaren, 2012; Parent, 2011; Tamminen, Holt, & Neely, 2013). There are also no physical characteristics or psychology characteristics that make coaches who sexually abuse athletes easily identifiable. Marital status, gender, age, job performance, and coaching success are not part of the equation when identifying a coach who may be sexually abusing athletes (Fedoroff & Moran, 1997; Hall & Hall, 2007). The power dynamic of the coach-athlete relationship, paired with the gender skewness in coaching of girls and women creates a culture that feminists would speculate is ideal for sexual violence. Since feminists believe that sexual violence against females is fueled by men's attempts at securing power and dominance over girls and women (as opposed to sexual desire), sport is as ideal industry for higher than normal rates of these crimes. Further, the power dynamic of the coach-athlete relationships creates the perfect situation for the perpetrator (i.e., coach) to silence victims (i.e., athletes) because the coach has ultimate power over the athlete's participation and success.

Athletes. Sociologists first began conversations around rape culture when it was discovered that patterns and prevalence of rape vary greatly between culture (Sanday, 1981). It was found that societies that possessed high levels of tolerance for violence, male dominance and female oppression, and sex segregation had the highest rates of rape (Sanday, 1981). Within these cultures there is a lack of social constraints that discourage sexual violence against women. Similar to organizations that are permissive toward and lack punishment for sexual violence, these societies may subtly or overtly encourage acts of sexual violence against women. Sport has

been described as space possessing a permissive rape culture due to its overtly masculine culture (Kidd, 1990). Successful (male) athletes are praised for their strength, stamina, and speed as well as their courage, determination, and intelligence (Crosset, 1999). On the social hierarchy, successful (male) athletes find themselves close to the top. Through sport young boys are encouraged to work through pain, hurt other athletes, and separate themselves from girls and women. Young boys are continually reminded to 'stop throwing/running like a girl' or 'no pain, no gain (Young, 1990; Young, White, & McTeer, 1994).' In sport, victory and success are associated with physical dominance of an opponent. Rewards for violence against opponents combined with gender/sex-segregation from a young age and a male-dominated culture where femininity and weakness are loathed creates a breeding ground for rape (Warshaw, 1988).

Although sociologists have speculated that sport may possess a rape culture permissive of sexual violence against women, research on the topic didn't begin until the 1990s. Early studies showed findings consistent with the hypothesis. An analysis of 925 undergraduate women showed that male athletes were overrepresented in reports of perpetrators of sexual assault, abuse, and intimidation (Fritner & Rubinson, 1993). Additionally, female athletes were disproportionately represented as victims in reports of sexual assault and battery to judicial affairs offices at 10 large universities (Crosset, Ptacek, McDonald, & Benedict, 1996). Research has also found a significant relationship between athletic participation and sexual aggression after controlling for alcohol consumption (Koss & Gaines, 1993). Further, research has shown a relationship between the culture of hockey and approval of violence off the ice. Bloom and Smith (1996) surveyed two levels of hockey players (select and house) as well as non-players. Select players (highest level of players) were less likely to disapprove of violence than house players or non-players. Moreover, research has indicated a relationship between likelihood of

engaging in behaviors that are classified as sexually aggressive and belonging to a community that is conducive or permissive to such behaviors (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). On the other hand, men who belonged to communities that were not conducive or accepting of such behaviors were less likely to engage in them (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). Interestingly, data from this study indicated that other types of sport involvement (e.g., watching sport, following sport-related news stories, and participating in self-regulated work out regiments) were not related with increases in sexual violence (Koss & Gaines, 1993). However, research has shown a relationship between number of violations of residence hall disciplinary codes and whether a football game was recently hosted on campus. There was found to be a significantly higher number of disciplinary violations following a home game versus an away game (Coons, Howard-Hamilton, & Waryold, 1995).

Similar to the findings of research conducted on sexual violence with the general population as well as sexual violence in the work place, the masculine nature of sport and the male-dominated scaffolding of the industry has created a venue for high rates of sexual violence against women. Again, research suggests that sexual violence occurring within the walls of sport encompasses power and domination as they key element as opposed to sexual desire. Male athletic directors, coaches, and athletes are taught from a young age that success and victory come from domination and may be unable to determine when and how to properly shut off the high levels of aggression required for triumph on the field. Further, in sport boys and men are taught that girls and women, as well as feminine males, are less than, and it is important to maintain dominance over them. Sport, as an industry, maintains traditional male patriarchal views of male dominance and power and female submission. These views create a culture that is permissive, and potentially encouraging, of sexual violence against women.

Topic Relevance

As previously noted, sexual assault and sexual harassment are common issues in sporting organizations. Whether they involve athletes, coaches, or administrators, the masculine culture and gender skewness of the sport industry creates an organizational culture that is permissive toward and may even encourage unethical behavior such as sexual assault or sexual harassment. Although topics like organizational culture and Title IX may be discussed in great detail in the sport management classroom, issues like sexual assault and sexual harassment might be left out of the discussion because of their sensitive nature and the resulting uncomfortable emotions created among instructors and students. If students are not being introduced to the seriousness of sexual assault and sexual harassment, they will go into the work place with limited knowledge of these actions, their consequences, and how to handle situations involving sexual assault and sexual harassment. Further, although sport management accreditation bodies may attempt to streamline program curricula, they do not reinforce specific topics that must be taught within classes (H. Alderman, personal communication, July 30, 2015). If students in sport management programs are not being educated about sensitive issues such as sexual assault and sexual harassment, organizational cultures will never see a shift away from acceptance of those behaviors. Thus, the purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the training received on sexual assault and sexual harassment in sport management classrooms and internships as well as perceptions of sexual assault and sexual harassment (i.e., rape myths) in sport management students. The following research questions were explored:

R1: Are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?

R1a: Are there differences in demographic variables of students who are exposed to training and on education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?

R1b: In which classes are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?

R2: Are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management internships?

R3: Does receiving training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths?

R4: Do demographic variables (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, type of student) influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths?

Defining Rape, Sexual Assault, and Sexual Harassment

In order to increase statistical reporting of rape nationwide, the definition was recently changed. The Department of Justice now defines rape as 'the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim,' (Department of Justice, 2012). Further, the Department of Justice (n.d.) defines sexual assault as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault (Department of Justice, n.d.). Legal definitions of and punishment for committing sexual assault can differ state to state, but for the purposes of the current study the definition provided by the Department of Justice will be used. The definition for sexual harassment from The Department of Justice contains two parts. First, sexual harassment occurs if decisions influencing an employee (i.e., hiring/firing, promotions, transfers, etc.) result from submission to or rejection of unwanted sexual conduct (Department of Justice, n.d.). Second,

sexual harassment also occurs when a supervisor or co-worker creates a hostile or intimidating work environment for members of one sex (Department of Justice, n.d.). However, for the purposes of this study, sexual harassment was examined in more settings than just the work place.

Sexual harassment, in a broader sense, can be defined as "unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature" (Rospenda et al., 1998, p.41). Sexual harassment can take many different forms including, gender harassment, seductive behavior, sexual bribery, sexual coercion, and sexual imposition (Paludi , 1996). Gendered harassment consists of sexist remarks, behaviors not designed to elicit sexual cooperation but rather express degrading and insulting thoughts toward women (Paludi , 1996). Seductive behavior includes sexual advances that are unwanted, inappropriate, or offensive (Paludi, 1996). Sexual bribery, or quid pro quo sexual harassment, is the solicitation of sexual activity for the promise of a reward (Paludi, 1996). Quid pro quo is a common form of workplace sexual harassment. Similarly, sexual coercion occurs when sexual activity is performed in order to avoid threat or punishment, and sexual imposition includes sexual assault and rape (Paludi, 1996).

Defining rape, sexual assault, and sexual harassment can be difficult despite the availability of concrete definitions, such as those previously described, due to the fact that victims of these crimes have a diverse set of experiences, especially when they are examined using feminist theory. Not all women have the same experiences, thoughts, and emotions from the same acts of sexual violence. Feminists use these diverse experiences and the behaviors women have found to be abusive to expand their definitions of sexual violence (Hester, Kelly, & Radford, 1996). Beyond rape and sexual assault experienced as an adult, women experience

sexual violence in the form of sexual harassment, physical battering, childhood sexual abuse and intimidation, as well as obscene phone calls, and an overflow of pornographic material, which creates a vast profile of experiences, thoughts, and emotions.

The current study also included discussion of the Clery Act (1990) which requires colleges and universities to disclose information about crimes committed on and around their campuses as well as crimes involving their students, forcing higher education institutions to report cases of sexual harassment, sexual assaults, and rape to the student, staff, and faculty population. Researchers who focus on sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape can thank the Clery Act for forcing increased dialog on these topics due to the fact that universities are now forced to educate their students on the prevalence and details of crimes of this nature. Further, Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in educational programs or programs that receive federal funding, and rape, sexual assault, and sexual harassment are types of sex discrimination when they limit the victim's ability to participate in an educational program or activity.

Chapter 3

Materials and Methods

Survey Research

Survey research was selected as the method of data collection for the current research project because of its ability to gather a sample from a large, diverse population with relative ease. Survey research is a mode of data collection that allows researchers to identify observations on a population and makes inferences about the population from their observations (Brick, 2011). These observations and inferences are accomplished by asking participants a series of questions then analyzing the responses (Fowler, 2014). Various methods of collecting survey research that can be utilized include, but not limited to: in person, telephone, internet, and mail. Cost and time commitment will vary with each mode of delivery will vary as will response rates. The current research project utilized an online survey format in order to keep costs low and allow for data collection from a national sample.

Materials

Construction of Variables. The Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Education Questionnaire was created to assess training and education received in the classroom, or work space, on sexual assault and sexual harassment as well as perceptions and awareness of sexual assault and sexual harassment. The survey instrument contains three parts. The first part contains original questions meant to assess students' training and education received on sexual assault and sexual harassment. The second part of the instrument is the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger, Kley, Bohner, & Siebler, 2007) which assesses students' beliefs of rape myths. The final section contains demographic questions.

Instrumentation. The questions assessing training and education received in the classroom and work space were created through interviews and conversations with experts

including sport management faculty members, sport management accreditation body board of directors members, sport management undergraduate and graduate students, as well as faculty who study sexual assault and sexual harassment. A comprehensive list of questions is provided in Appendix A. A previously published questionnaire (i.e., the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale) was utilized to assess attitudes and awareness of sexual assault and sexual harassment. This questionnaire was used in conjunction with the questions assessing training and education on sexual harassment and sexual assault and a set of demographic questions to assess participant age, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation and several other demographic characteristics.

The Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger, Kley, Bohner, & Siebler, 2007) was included to assess attitudes and awareness of sexual assault and sexual harassment. This scale was created in response to problems associated with classic rape myth acceptance scales (e.g., the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale) and research conducted using college students. Gerger and colleagues (2007) found that when conducting research on college students utilizing rape myth acceptance scales a floor effect (i.e., skewed distributions and means distorted to the low endpoint of the scale) is often produced. Skewed distributions make conducting statistical analyses problematic in some instances because several statistical tests, including correlational tests, require a normal distribution of scores. Although not assessed by the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale, the authors note several possibilities for this skewed distribution. One possibility is social desirability and the negative stigma associated with rape, causing respondents to answer strategically to blatant rape myth acceptance items. Another possibility is that myths about rape and sexual aggression have changed. The Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale is a 30-item scale

that measures endorsement of common myths about rape and sexual aggression. This inventory utilizes a seven-point Likert scale, 1 ("Completely disagree"), 2 ("Disagree"), 3 ("Disagree somewhat"), 4 ("Neutral"), 5 ("Agree somewhat"), 6 ("Agree"), 7 ("Completely agree"), to evaluate the extend participants agree to each of the 30 items. Items include, "Once a man and women have started 'making out', a woman's misgivings against sex will automatically disappear," "Interpreting harmless gestures as 'sexual harassment' is a popular weapon in the battle of the sexes," and "After a rape, women nowadays receive ample support." Higher scores indicate a greater acceptance or endorsement of the rape myth. A Cronbach's alpha of .76 for the English version was found (Gerger et al., 2007). Adequate reliability and validity have been established in studies by the scale's authors (Gerger et al., 2007). Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to examine if meaningful and consistent subscales could be created. A one-factor solution was highly consistent, with all coefficients being greater than .95, whereas for the two- and three-factor solutions, all coefficients fell short of the .90 criterion (Gerger et al., 2007). Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to translate the scale to Spanish, however, the analysis was only conducted for translation purposes (Megías, Romero-Sánchez, Durán, Moya, & Bohner, 2011). The one-factor model was tested and confirmed (Megías et al., 2011). A full list of inventory questions is included in Appendix A.

Development of Scale Items. To create items for this questionnaire, a review of current literature and instruments was conducted. Literature on prevalence of sexual assault and sexual harassment committed by athletes, coaches, and administrators in addition to issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in sport management organizations was reviewed (Aday & Llewellyn, 2006; Fowler, 1995). The high prevalence of these acts committed by athletes, coaches, and administrators, as well as permissive and accepting organizational cultures paired

with failure to correctly handle these instances created a clear need for further research into this area. In addition to a literature review, interviews with current sport management faculty members and sport management accreditation board members were conducted to gain an understanding into sport management curriculum (Thayer-Hart, Dykema, Elver, Schaeffer, & Stevenson, 2010). Additionally, a panel of experts (e.g., sport management faculty and accreditation board members) were consulted prior to survey distribution as well (Thayer-Hart et al., 2010). This panel provided individual commentary and feedback about sport management course curricula and instrument questions. These experts reviewed questions for clarity, ease of read, and appropriateness. This group was able to add comments or suggestions about the training portion of the questionnaire as they have experience teaching sport management courses. See Appendix A for more details.

Scale Items. Pretesting the Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Education Questionnaire took place several times throughout the construction process. After a literature review and interviews with sport management faculty members as well as sport management accreditation body board members variables were constructed for initial pretesting purposes. This group of experts reviewed the questionnaire for questions for clarity, ease of read, and appropriateness. Additionally, they were asked if any additional questions should be added to the first part of the survey about training and education on sexual assault and sexual harassment. This group was selected for participation in questionnaire construction and review because they have experience creating sport management courses and program curricula. They have an in-depth understanding of what courses are offered in programs around the country, and what topics are covered in specific courses. See Appendix B for expert panel qualifications.

Sampling Procedures. A non-random sample (i.e., convenience, snowball sample) of sport management undergraduate and graduate students was utilized for validation testing. Although a convenience sample was utilized, participants in the study were purposefully selected for participation because it was believed they would be able to provide the most accurate information to address the purpose of the study (Creswell, 2013). A convenience sample of sport management instructors and faculty at universities around the country was created from personal contacts. Additionally, sport management, sport sociology, and sport communication list-serves were utilized to distribute the survey. Instructors and faculty were contacted and asked for permission to collect data from the sport management undergraduate and graduate students in their classes. Instructors and faculty were given a link to a Qualtrics survey and asked to share the link with their students. Ideally, students would be given class time to complete the survey. If class time wasn't available, students were be asked to complete the survey on their own time, at their leisure.

An important aspect of validation testing this questionnaire was to get a diverse sample to complete the survey. For this reason, instructors and faculty of both undergraduate and graduate level classes will be contacted. Additionally, national list-serves were used to distribute the survey in order to gather data from students across the country, as well as internationally. All sport management courses offered at each university were included to ensure a diverse sample of students (i.e., racial and gender diversity as well as a wide range in age and year in major).

Data Cleaning. In order to ensure the accuracy of data collected, data should be cleaned before analysis begins. In addition, data cleaning aids in ensuring the data meets the assumptions for certain parametric statistical tests. Data cleaning can assess the data for normality, identify

outliers by checking frequencies and distributions, and assess homogeneity of variances. It also helps to ensures data is valid, reliable and representative.

First a codebook was created. The codebook contained variable names and labels. Additionally, the codebook included citations and scoring for inventories used. This codebook was updated throughout data analysis as variables were transformed and created. After the codebook was created, an analysis plan was created. The analysis plan included research questions to be addressed and data cleaning steps. Additionally, by creating an analysis plan, the researcher was able to compile details of which statistical tests were used as well as SPSS syntax. This makes data analysis easier because syntax can be copied and pasted from the analysis plan into SPSS. After the analysis plan was created, initial frequencies were ran. This is done in order to check for initial errors and get a quick view of the collected data. From the frequencies you can see sample size for variables and response categories, extreme values, and missing data. This initial frequency also helped to check for coding mistakes. Checking for coding mistakes helps to determine what to do with missing data. If the missing data can be verified, an attempt to replace it was made. Data coding was assessed and coding mistakes were removed to ensure the mistakes did not skew the data. During this step, variables were modified and created when necessary.

After checking for coding mistakes, frequencies and descriptives were conducted again. This allowed the researcher to check for measures of central tendency (i.e., mean, median, mode), measures of validity (i.e., standard deviation), normality (i.e., skewness and kurtosis), minimum and maximum values, and standard scores (i.e., z-scores) Next, a check for outliers was made. If outliers were found, the researcher first checked to make sure there wasn't a data entry error. If an error was found, it was corrected. For example, some text entry questions (e.g.,

age, race/ethnicity) contained misspellings of ages and racses/ethnicities. If a data entry error wasn't the reason for the outlier, the outlier was winsorized (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). When winsorizing data, outliers are considered any values that are more than +/- three standard deviations outside the mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). These outliers are replaced with the value that is exactly +/- three standard deviations away from the mean. After values are winsorized, frequencies and histograms were reran and examined again.

Next, missing data was dealt with. First, it was determined if missing data was random or non-random. Missing data was found to be random. Randomness of missing data was assessed using SPSS. Pairwise deletion was used to deal with missing data. Under pairwise deletion, cases are used only for questions in which they answered. You do not delete the participant completely, only for the specific questions in which they didn't answer.

After missing data is dealt with, an examination of cell size was completed. This is done in order to ensure anonymity. As a researcher you cannot aggregate your data too much otherwise individuals or groups will be able to be identified. A Levene's test was used to assess cell sample size. Levene's test assesses if the unequal sample sizes contribute to unequal variances. Sample sizes were found to be equal. It is important to assess cell size in order to run certain statistical analysis as well. A large enough cell size for each subgroup of a variable must be collected. If cells are collapsed, this sample size may be able to be reached. Although you may lose richness of data by collapsing your variables, it is a better option than ignoring the problem. Within this sample, variables did not need to be collapsed.

Next, frequency and descriptive tests were ran. The results of these tests were used to test assumptions for parametric tests. During this stage, charts, tables, and graphs were created in order to get a visual representation of data. This final set of frequency and descriptive tests is to

ensure all data has been correctly transformed and handled. Assumptions were also be tested before beginning data analysis. Homogeneity of variance was be assessed by conducting a Levene's test. Violating the homogeneity of variance assumption can increase rates of type 1 error, so it is important to assess this possible violation before beginning analysis. Normality has already been assessed, but was checked one more time before data analysis began. Data was also be assessed to ensure an independent, random sample is utilized. No assumptions were violated.

Quantitative Analysis

Upon completion of data collection data was be transferred from Qualtrics to SPSS in order for data cleaning and analysis. Dichotomous questions (i.e., "Yes"/"No") questions were recoded as "0" and "1" in order to allow for means and standard deviations to be calculated. When assessing which classes students were exposed to training and education frequencies were conducted. Likert data was considered interval so that parametric tests could be ran. Since parametric tests can be ran, the mean, standard deviations, and high and low values were reported. Specific analysis for each research questions are discussed in Appendix C.

Qualitative Analysis

A constant comparative data analysis method was used. During constant comparative data analysis one segment of data is compared to another in order to find similarities and differences (Merriam, 2009). Data are grouped together based on a similar dimension; these groups become the themes of the study. The overall goal of this type of data analysis is to find patterns (Merriam, 2009). "Meaningful and manageable themes" were formed through grouping of quotes of related experiences, challenges or ideas (Patton, 1987, p. 150). Exact wording was used as often as possible in order to retain and reflect the meaning of quotes portrayed by the participants during the interviews (Berg, 1998). During constant comparative analysis the first step is to perform open coding. Open coding consists of the researcher coding the data for major

categories of information (Creswell, 2013). From there, axial coding begins. In axial coding, the researcher identifies one open coding category to focus on (Creswell, 2013).

Creswell (2013) provided eight criteria that need to be met in order to ensure trustworthiness of the data and at least need to be met. The criteria for this study was prolonged engagement and rich and thick description. The author was engaged in the data analysis as they read the survey responses several times during . The results were presented with multiple quotes in an attempt to provide rich and thick descriptions. The data analysis style used by the researchers in this study is a widely used method for analyzing qualitative research (Patton, 1987).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factory analysis was conducted on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger, Kley, Bohner, & Siebler, 2007) in order to decide whether or not the scale was best used a unidimensional measure or if subscales were appropriate. Since an exploratory factor analysis has already been conducted, confirmatory factor analysis serves as a more sophisticated technique used in the end stages of research to confirm data. Confirmatory factor analysis tests a theory of latent processes and is useful when a clear hypothesis has been established. Factor analysis was used because it analyzes only the overlapping variances between the variables. Additionally, factor analysis searches for constructs that are not readily apparent. A larger sample size was sought during data collection. According to Comrey and Lee (1992), a sample of at least 300 cases is necessary to successfully conduct factor analysis. An inadequate sample size can produce unreliable and non-valid results (Osborne & Costello, 2004). A large enough sample size was secured. Correlations between variables was conducted. If correlations exceeded .30 this provided enough evidence to justify comprising factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Low correlations and samples that are too homogeneous may result in low variance.

When the exploratory factor analysis was conducted, the first step was to examine the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy. According to Beavers and colleagues (2013) the KMO should have a value of .60 or greater. Barlett's test of sphericity will also be conducted. This test examines the relationship between the correlation matrix of variables in the sample and the identity matrix. Barlett's test of sphericity should be significant, saying the correlation matrix of the variables in the data set are different from the identity matrix. An examination of the scree plot was also conducted and compared to the number of components. Factor loadings were reviewed and those with loadings of less than the absolute value of .32 were deleted. After factors with loadings less than the absolute value of .32 were deleted confirmatory factor analysis was conducted again until all factors have loadings greater than the absolute value of .32. Through confirmatory factor analysis, it was found that the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) is best used as unidimensional measure. Since the results of the confirmatory factor analysis corroborated the findings of the exploratory factor analysis, that the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) is best used a unidimensional measure, no further analysis was conducted as this was not the main purpose of the research study.

Chapter 4

Results

Participants

The respondents were 401 students currently enrolled in an undergraduate or graduate program in sport management or a closely related field (i.e., sport studies, sport administration, sport communication, sport business). Not all of the participants filled out all the demographic questions. Just over 50% (51.1%, *n* = 179) of the participants self identified as male, while 48% (*n* = 168) identified as female, .29% (*n* = 1) identified as genderqueer, and .57% (*n* = 2) identified as other. Although the survey was open to all undergraduate and graduate students in sport management and related field programs, majority of the students indicated they were between the ages of 18 and 21 (48.1%, *n* = 165) and 22 and 25 (38.2%, *n* = 131). Participants predominantly reported being White/Caucasian (79.6%, *n* = 266) or Black/African American (9.6%, *n* = 32). Other races and ethnicities included in the sample were: Asian, Hispanic, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, and Multi Race. Respondents primarily identified their sexual orientation as Heterosexual/Straight (95.1%, *n* = 331). There was a relatively even split between student academic classification: first-year undergraduate (6.9%, *n* = 24), second-year undergraduate (10.0%, *n* = 35), third-year undergraduate (19.2%, *n* = 67), fourth-year undergraduate (24.9%, *n* = 87), fifth-year undergraduate (3.4%, *n* = 12), first-year graduate (16.0%, *n* = 56), second-year graduate (14.6%, *n* = 51), and other (4.9%, *n* = 17) which included doctoral students past their second year of study and non degree seeking students. Sport management programs represented in the sample were predominantly located in Health and Human Science (25.0%, *n* = 86), Kinesiology (20.3%, *n* = 70), and Business (20.1%, *n* = 69) departments. Other departments represented include: Arts and Science, Education, Social Science and Humanities, and other which included Exercise and Sport Science, Recreation

Outdoor Education, and Hospitality, Recreation, and Sport Management. Participants reported taking the following courses within their sport management and related field course work: gender issues in sport, intercollegiate athletics, international foundations of sport, organizational behavior, introduction to sport management, personnel/HR management, sport communication, sport economics, sport ethics, sport finance, sport for community development, sport governance, sport history, sport law, sport leadership, sport management principles, sport marketing, sport psychology, sport sociology/sociocultural studies, strategic management/policy, theory to practice, and women in sport. The competitive sport participation of participants ranged from no experience (i.e., zero years) to more than 40 years and represented a wide variety of levels of competition. A majority of participants participated in high school sport (41.9%, *n* = 145) or college sport (46.8%, *n* = 162). Mean scores for the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) for the current sample were M = 3.23 (SD = .045) which is similar to previously published studies (Gerger et al., 2007). A Chronbach's alpha of .922 was found for the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) in the current population. See Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3 for personal, academic, and athletic demographic characteristics.

Quantitative Analysis of Research Questions

RQ1 addressed the issue of sport management students' exposure to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses. Less than 50.0% (46.1%, n = 185) of students who participated in the current survey indicated they had received training and education on sexual harassment in the sport management classroom. This question also sought to address the courses in which students received the training and education on sexual harassment in addition to the capacity they discussed sexual harassment in the classroom. Courses where training and education on sexual harassment

occurred in the following courses: gender issues in sport, intercollegiate athletics, international foundations of sport, organization behavior, introduction to sport management, personnel/HR management, sport communication, sport economics, sport ethics, sport finance, sport for community development, sport governance, sport history, sport law, sport leadership, sport management principles, sport marketing, sport psychology, sport sociology/sociocultural studies, strategic management/policy, theory to practice, and women in sport. See Table 4 for percentages and number of students who have previously completed or are currently enrolled in the aforementioned courses. Students discussed sexual harassment in the following capacities in the sport management and related field classroom setting: definitions, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place, prevalence on college campuses, ways to decrease sexual harassment, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act , risk management, and human resources management. See Table 5 for percentages and number of students who discussed the above mentioned topics in their sport management courses. Differences based on demographic variables were also assessed in students who are exposed to training and on education on issues of and sexual harassment in their sport management courses. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between exposure to sexual harassment education and training in the classroom and student academic classification. The relation between these variables was significant, χ^2 (7, N = 349) = 20.56, p = .004. Students who were further along in their academic program were more likely to be exposed to education and training on sexual harassment in the classroom. However, no other differences were found in terms of demographic variables (i.e., gender, race, age, sexual orientation, department classification, or sport participation). See Tables 6 and 7.

Less than 40.0% (35.9%, n = 144) of students who participated in the current survey indicated they had received training and education on sexual assault in the sport management classroom. Courses where training and education on sexual assault occurred in the following courses: gender issues in sport, intercollegiate athletics, international foundations of sport, organization behavior, introduction to sport management, personnel/HR management, sport communication, sport economics, sport ethics, sport finance, sport for community development, sport governance, sport history, sport law, sport leadership, sport management principles, sport marketing, sport psychology, sport sociology/sociocultural studies, strategic management/policy, theory to practice, and women in sport. See Table 8 for percentages and number of students who have previously completed or are currently enrolled in the aforementioned courses. Students discussed sexual assault in the following capacities in the sport management and related field classroom setting: definitions, legal consequences, prevalence in the workplace, prevalence on college campuses, ways to decrease sexual assault, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resources management. See Table 9 for percentages and number of students who discussed the abovementioned topics in their sport management courses.

Differences based on demographic variables were also assessed in students who are exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relationship between exposure to sexual assault education and training in the classroom and student academic classification. The relation between these variables was significant, χ^2 (7, N = 349) = 22.08, p = .002. Students who were further along in their academic program were more likely to be exposed to education and training on sexual assault in the classroom. However, no

other differences were found in terms of demographic variables (i.e., gender, race, age, sexual orientation, department classification, or sport participation). See Table 10 and Table 11.

RQ2 addressed the issue of sport management students' exposure to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their internships. Students in sport management programs across the country are encouraged to complete internships in the sport industry during their time as undergraduate and graduate students. There internships may be required to graduate from their specific program, and completed for credit, or may be completed outside of the classroom. In the current sample, 57.0% (*n* = 224) of the population indicated they had or were currently completing a fully or part time internship in a sport related discipline. Participants indicated they were completing internships in the following areas of sport: intercollegiate athletics (33.4%, n = 134), professional sport (14.2%, n = 57), semi-professional sport (5.5%, n = 22), recreational sport (10.7%, n = 43), non-profit sport (10.2%, n = 41), and other areas of sport (6.2%, n = 25) which included high school sport, youth sport, sport camps, and Olympic sport.

Of those participants that indicated they had previous or were currently completing an internship, 39.6% (n = 88) said they had received training or education on sexual harassment in their internship setting. Students discussed sexual harassment in the following capacities in their internships: definitions, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place, ways to decrease sexual harassment, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resources management. See Table 12 for percentages and number of students who discussed the above mentioned topics in their sport management internship. Differences based on demographic variables were also assessed in students who are exposed to training and on education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their internships. A chi-square test of independence

was performed to examine the relation between exposure to sexual assault education and training in the internship setting and demographic variables. However, no differences were found in terms of demographic variables (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, student academic classification, department classification, or sport participation). See Table 13 and Table 14.

Of those participants that indicated they had previous or were currently completing an internship, 28.4% (n = 62) said they had received training or education on sexual assault in their internship setting. Students discussed sexual assault in the following capacities in their internships: definitions, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place, ways to decrease sexual assault, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resources management. See Table 15 for percentages and number of students who discussed the abovementioned topics in their sport management internship. Differences based on demographic variables were also assessed in students who are exposed to training and on education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their internships. A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between exposure to sexual assault education and training in the internship setting and demographic variables. However, no differences were found in terms of demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, student academic classification, department classification, or sport participation). See Tables 16 and 17.

RQ3 assessed the differences in student endorsement of rape myths based on whether or not the student received education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault in the classroom or internship setting. Independent t-tests were conducted in order to analyze the difference in composite Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) scores based on whether or not the student had received education and training on

sexual harassment and sexual assault in the sport management classroom and internship setting. Results indicate significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) for those students who had been exposed to education and training on sexual harassment in the sport management classroom (M = 3.34, SD = .85) than those students who had not been exposed to education and training on sexual harassment in the sport management classroom (M = 3.14, SD = .87), t(369) = 2.25, p = .025. No differences were found based on exposure to education and training on sexual assault in the sport management classroom. No differences were found based on exposure to education and training on sexual harassment in the internship setting. No differences were found based on exposure to education and training on sexual assault in the internship setting. See Table 18.

RQ4 assessed the differences in student endorsement of rape myths based on demographic variables (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, student academic classification, department classification, or sport participation). A t-test for gender, and one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) for all other demographic variables were used to analyze the data for RQ4. Male students reported significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) (M = 3.46, SD = .85) than did female students (M = 3.02, SD = .79), t (344) = 4.95, p = .000. An analysis of variables showed that heterosexual/straight participants had significantly higher composite scores on the significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) (M = 3.29, SD = .84) than gay/lesbian participants (M = 2.38, SD = .73), bisexual participants (M = 2.40, SD = .80), asexual participants (M = 2.80), pansexual participants (M = 1.80), and queer participants (M = 1.67), F(5, 342) = 4.47, p = .001. however post hoc tests couldn't be conducted because at least one group had fewer than two

cases. An analysis of variance indicated significant differences in composite scores on the significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) based on students academic classification, $F(7, 342) = 4.33$ $p = .000$. Students who were further along in their academic program scored lower on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale. An analysis of variance indicated significant differences in composite scores on the significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) based on age, $F(6, 336) = 4.43$ $p = .000$. No significant differences were found in composite scores on composite scores of the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) based on race. An analysis of variance indicated significant differences in composite scores on the significantly higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) based on department classification, $F(6, 337) = 2.84$ $p = .011$. Students from departments located in colleges of education or arts and science scored significant lower than students from departments located in colleges of business and social science and humanities. See Table 19 and Table 20 for means and standard deviations.

Qualitative Analysis of Research Questions

A final open ended qualitative question (i.e., Is there anything else you would like to share about your experience with training and education on sexual harassment and sexual assault?) was analyzed for themes. Eighty-seven comments were reviewed and coded for content. Several themes emerged from the analysis including: training received outside the classroom and internship setting, student experiences of sexual harassment and sexual assault, participant expressions of lack of training or insufficient training, and confusion about the reason/work of education and training on these topics. A number of participants indicated that they have received training on sexual harassment and/or sexual assault in places outside of the

classroom or internship setting such as a residence hall or other on campus job. One participant stated,

> I was a Resident Advisor for a time and we received ample training. Also all new students have to go through a sexual assault/harassment training before they can receive an ID. Much of the training I have received was not in the classroom.

Other participants made similar statements, " The university conducts campus wide mandatory programming, it is not left to the discretion of a particular school." Finally, some participants mentioned receiving training "through the U.S. Army Sexual Harassment/Assault Response and Prevention program." Several participants disclosed instances of sexual harassment or sexual assault in the internship setting. One participant divulged experiencing sexual harassment while completing an internship in intercollegiate athletics,

> I have felt very uncomfortable in two of my intercollegiate internships/jobs due to male coaches making passes at me, sending me texts which were essentially "sexts" [sic] about how my ass looked in those jeans or how my chest really made them hard. I feel this is common practice for male coaches (given my experience). Most of these coaches are married too.

Another participant reported, " I didn't receive it (training) at my job and was sexually assaulted there and did not receive support." Participants also expressed concern for the lack of training they had received in their classes and internships. One participant said, "As a survivor of sexual assault, I think more should be done in the workplace - both in terms of preventative measures and also post-assault care for victims." Another participant mentioned, " its [sic] is surprisingly lacking from most of the internship job trainings I have received." One participant stated, " I can't think of ANY training I have ever received during school or at a job." Finally, some participants

expressed confusion about the survey topic and made statements like, " I'm still not sure what sexual harassment training has to do with sport management education."

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

Exposure to Education and Training

Results of this study expose a lack of formal education and training about sexual harassment and sexual assault in the sport management classroom and internship setting. Fewer than half of the students who participated in the survey indicated that they had received education and training on sexual harassment and/or sexual assault in the sport management classroom and/or their internship setting. With increasing instances of sexual harassment and sexual assault in the sport industry (Siers-Poisson, 2014) it is important that students are exposed to current events as well as the proper way to handle these issues. When students are uneducated they are forced to make ill informed decisions that can lead to negative consequences not only for themselves but for their sport organization as well.

The Commission on Sport Management Accreditation (COSMA) is an accreditation body whose purpose is to recognize and support excellence in sport management programs in colleges and universities across the United States (cosmaweb.org). According to COSMA principles, "Excellence in sport management education requires that the design of each program offered by the academic unit/sport management program be consistent with current, acceptable practices and the expectations of professionals in the academic and sport management communities" (p. 14). COSMA requires undergraduate programs cover five Common Professional Component (CPC) topics: (1) foundations of sport history, sociology, and psychology, (2) foundations of sport management (e.g., management concepts, governance/policy, international sport), (3) functions of sport management (e.g., sport marketing, sport communication, sport finance/economics); (4) sport management environment (e.g., legal aspects, ethical aspects, diversity issues); and (5) integrative experiences and career planning (e.g.,

internship/practica/capstone experience) (Accreditation Principles Manual and Guidelines For Self Study Preparation, 2015). Although COSMA requires courses within these five CPCs be offered by accredited sport management programs, there is no language about whether or not students are required to take these courses or what topics should be covered within each course.

Although students indicated having discussed the topics in each of the courses listed in the survey (i.e., gender issues in sport, intercollegiate athletics, organization behavior, introduction to sport management, etc.) many of the courses where discussions on sexual harassment and sexual assault fit best into the course curriculum had relatively low representation. For instance, only 22 of 185 (11.9%) and 13 of 144 (9.0%) students discussed sexual harassment and sexual assault in an organizational behavior class and only 21 of 185 (11.3%) and 16 of 144 (11.1%) students discussed these topics in a personnel/HR management course. Given what we know about the organizational culture of male-dominated industries (i.e., cultures more accepting of sexual harassment, bullying, and passive-aggressive behaviors) (McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Willness et al., 2007) it would seem crucial to educate our students about issues such as sexual harassment and sexual assault, especially in these specific courses. Sport law was the course where sexual harassment was discussed the most which makes sense given the legal guidelines associated with issues of sexual harassment and sexual assault (e.g., Title IX and the Civil Rights Act). Participants indicated discussing a variety of topics surrounding the issue of sexual harassment in the classroom setting. For example, students specified they discussed: definitions of sexual harassment, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place and on college campuses, ways to decrease sexual harassment, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resource management. Despite that fact that all these topics were covered, it is troubling that the discussion on ways to decrease sexual harassment

and human resource management were discussed the least, 42.1% and 35.7% of students reported having these discussions in class, respectively. These issues were also discussed less than most other topics when students were educated and trained about sexual assault, 41.0% and 29.9% of students reported having discussions on ways to decrease sexual assault and human resource management in classes, respectively. This illustrates that concepts about sexual harassment are being presented to our students (i.e., definitions, statistics about prevalence) but application of the material is not being discussed. If our students plan to pursue careers within the sport industry it is not enough to present them with concepts and statistics about sexual harassment and/or sexual assault, we must teach them how to apply these concepts to real world settings and issues. Further, thanks to recent increases in attention given to sexual harassment and sexual assault on college campuses, especially involving student-athletes, many students may feel bombarded with concepts and statistics on these issues from popular press sites and social media. As educators, we must help our students sort through the information and apply it to their current positions and future careers.

There wasn't only a lack of education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault in the classroom, but a majority of students reported not receiving education and training on these issues in their internship setting either. Of those students who completed internships in a sport setting, only 39.6% said they had received training or education on sexual harassment in their internship setting while even less, 28.4%, indicated they had received training or education on sexual assault in their internship setting. The lack of education and training on these issues is interesting given the language of Title IX and the Civil Rights Act. As previously stated, Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in educational programs or programs that receive federal funding, and rape, sexual assault, and sexual harassment are types of sex discrimination when they limit

the victim's ability to participate in an educational program or activity. Although not all sport organizations have to follow Title IX law, the 33.4% of students who reported working in intercollegiate athletics should have educated and trained on the law and its requirements. Less than 60% of the students who reported previously or currently completing internships in the sport setting indicated they had received training on Title IX in their internship setting. Further, all internships should have received education and training on the Civil Rights Act in their internship. The Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Not only does this law protect women from sex based discrimination in hiring practices, but it also prohibits organizations and businesses from possessing a culture that is hostile toward women. Less than 35% of the students who reported previously or currently completing internships in the sport setting indicated they had received training on the Civil Rights Act in their internship setting

Adequate Education and Training

Additionally, students who had received education and training on sexual harassment in the classroom had higher composite scores on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) which suggests we may need to begin questioning the quality and factualness of the education and training they received. Intuitively you would hypothesize that if students received education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault their belief of rape myths would decrease, leading them to score lower on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007). However, if discussions about sexual harassment are happening in classes, but rape and sexual aggression myths are being perpetuated by the instructor instead of factual information students may begin to adopt the rape myths as their own beliefs. The higher score on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) pose a danger for students who graduate and go on

to work in the sport industry because they may bring their belief of rape myths into the work place and make incorrect decision. Poor workplace training has been linked to increases in workplace problems such as turnover and unethical behaviors (Poulston, 2008). Utilizing this same idea on the classroom, poor classroom training or education could potentially be linked to increases in problems. Additionally, it is possible that students didn't fully understand the importance of the education, therefore didn't pay attention to the lectures or discussions, which would decrease their overall level of knowledge on the topic. It is important for faculty to explain the importance of understanding important issues like sexual harassment and sexual assault (Ford et al., 1998).

Since sport management accreditation bodies, such as the Commission for Sport Management Accreditation, only require programs to offer courses falling under umbrella common professional components (i.e., foundations of sport management, functions of sport management, sport management environment, and integrative experience/career planning), and not specific courses (e.g., sport ethics, sport marketing, HR management) it's possible instructors haven't been educated on the topics of sexual harassment and sexual assault in their educational career. If an instructor hasn't received training on the specific topic (i.e., sexual harassment or sexual assault) they may not be well versed on the topic (i.e., sexual harassment or sexual assault), forcing them to teach unclear or inaccurate information that may aid in perpetuating rape myths. It is important that accreditation bodies, departments, colleges, and universities are offering training opportunities and teaching tools for instructors who teach on difficult topics like sexual harassment and sexual assault in the classroom.

It's not only important that instructors are well versed on the topics they discuss in the classroom, they must also assess students levels of knowledge before beginning lectures and

activities on certain topics (Arther et al., 2003). It's important to assess students' knowledge on the topic before beginning education and training to ensure you are providing them with the proper foundation on the topic. If a student has no current knowledge on topics such as sexual harassment and sexual assault instructors must start from the beginning and teach students about definitions. For instance, in a state where students go through an abstinence only health education course they may not learn about consent, therefore before you can talk about sexual harassment and sexual assault you must help them understand consent. Many instructors may assume students have a general knowledge base on topics such as sexual harassment and sexual assault because they are so widely discussed in the news and on social media, however, not all students will have that general knowledge base.

Outside of the classroom, it is important that organizations are educating their interns and employees on how and why education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault is important. As previously discussed, when facilitated correctly, training and development programs can have a considerable impact on an organization's bottom line (Salas et al., 2012). However, research has shown that unmet expectations can lead to lower post-training commitment, motivation, and self-efficacy (Sitzmann et al., 2009) in addition to reduced performance (Hoilberg & Berry, 1978). It is important that employees are educated on how the training is relevant to job performance success (Salas et al., 2012). Using sexual harassment and sexual assault as the example, it would be important for organizations to communicate with their employees on the importance of receiving education and successfully completing training on sexual harassment and sexual assault for not only the legal reasons (i.e., the Civil Rights Act and Title IX), but also social and organizational culture reasons.

Finally, it is possible that the purpose of the inclass discussion wasn't meant as education or training but rather a random topic of conversation created from another topic. For instance, a faculty or student may have brought up a current event as an example and a discussion was created from said example. In this case, students may be engaging in conversation more than the instructor facilitating an educational lesson or training. Students may be sharing hear-say summaries of the event, rather than actual facts. In this type of situation, students may be the ones perpetuating the rape myth rather than the instructor. Hopefully instructors would be step in if inaccurate information started being presented, but the instructor may also not be well versed on the instance or topic in general so they may not know what is hear-say and what is actual fact. Although respondents were asked in what they discussed and learned about the issues of sexual harassment and sexual assault, it is possible that current event examples stemmed from good intentions lectures on definitions of sexual harassment and sexual assault, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place and college campuses, or ways to decrease sexual harassment and sexual assault.

Organizational Culture

Climate of both the classroom and organization must be assessed before education and training can be completed. This is necessary because it is important to look at the climate surrounding the purposed training to assess the expectations of organizational employees. If a classroom or organization has a culture that is hostile toward discussions about and training on issues of sexual harassment and sexual assault, the educator or trainer may have to carefully craft their lectures and activities in order to best get their message across to those participating in the education and training. Since we know that most sport management classrooms and sport industry organizations are male-dominated, and male-dominated organizations typically have higher rates of sexual harassment, incivility, and passive aggressive behavior (McCabe &

Hardman, 2005; Willness et al., 2007) we can speculate that training in these settings would need to be carefully crafted in order to be useful.

The lack of training received in the classroom and internship setting brings about the question of changing the organizational culture of male-dominated sport management departments and sport organizations. If issues such as sexual harassment and sexual assault are not discussed, students and employees are not educated, and adequate changes to the organizational culture cannot be made. If students and employees are not educated or trained on the topics of sexual harassment or sexual assault, they may not know what acts constitute sexual harassment or sexual assault and they definitely will not know how to handle reported cases of sexual harassment and sexual assault. With a seeming increase in the number of cases of sexual harassment and sexual assault coming up in sport organizations and athletic departments across the country, training and education on how to handle these issues is incredibly important. Handling these issues in an incorrect manner can lead to federal investigation, revoking of federal funds, and lawsuits.

The Feminist Perspective

Although male students were no more likely to have received education or training on sexual harassment or sexual assault in the classroom or internship setting than their female counterparts, consistent with prior research, male students did score significantly higher on the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007). This difference may be created by the masculine nature of sport, which creates a seemingly permissive culture for instances of rape (Kidd, 1990) by not only promoting, excusing, and trivializing sexual violence against women, but also demeaning and devaluing women who have been victims of rape and sexual assault (Ward, 1995) or the way sexual harassment and sexual assault are discussed in the classroom or internship setting. Feminist scholars would argue that

issues such as sexual harassment and sexual assault may not be as discussed or discussed in an accurate manner in order for men to maintain power and control over women in the academic department or organization, especially those that are male-dominated (Griffin, 1971; Madsen, 2000). Research has shown that as the status of women in a country increases, the prevalence of sexual violence decreases, and vise versa (Yodanis, 2004). This same principle can be adapted for the status of women in an organization. In sport, women have been stereotyped as not being as capable leaders as men (Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008), and sport is the one most accepted domains for male leadership and decision-making (Whisenant, Pedersen, & Obenour, 2002). Even in the WNBA we find that only 37% of senior team administrators were women, an 11% decrease from previous years (Lapchick, 2014c). This relatively low worth, or status, of women in sport creates a culture that is ripe for instances of sexual violence.

The idea that rape is committed by men for reasons of power, not sexual desire (Brownmiller, 1975; Buchwald et al., 2005) can be easily illustrated in sport. In a country such as the United States where (male) athletes are viewed as heroes and national icons, one would assume these superstars would be able to engage in sexual relations with any woman they wanted. However, we see male athletes are overrepresented in reports of perpetrators of sexual assault, abuse, and intimidation (Fritner & Rubinson, 1993). Further, certain characteristics are believed to increase the likelihood that someone may commit rape or sexual assault (i.e., imbalances of power or resources in a relationship, endorsement of violence, addiction to substances such as alcohol or drugs, etc.) (Jasinski & Williams, 1998). Many of these characteristics that are thought to increase the likelihood of rape or sexual violence are present in relationships involving male athletes because the nature of sport and the sporting culture. Male athletes are taught from a young age that characteristics such as aggression and strength are of

great value, because they help aid in success in athletics. Contact sports such as football, hockey, and rugby are created around a culture of on field violence against other teams in order to win competitions. This on-field violence can carry-over to off-field instances of violence. Additionally, athletes, especially collegiate, have been found to engage in higher rates of alcohol consumption than their non-athletes counterparts (Lisha & Sussman, 2010). Acceptance of on and off-field violence, coupled with increased rates of alcohol consumption may lead to increased instances of sexual harassment and sexual assault being committed by male athletes (Crosset, 1999).

Victim blaming tactics can be utilized to silence victims when athletes, coaches, administrators, or other sport industry employees are accused of sexual harassment and sexual assault, just as they can be used in non-sport settings. On college campuses around the country, women are warned of the dangers of walking alone at night, or consuming too much alcohol at a party because these actions may lead to them falling victim to acts of sexual harassment and sexual assault. When women do fall victim to these crimes of sexual violence they often receive undue scrutiny by having their character called into question based upon the clothing they were wearing during the incident or how much alcohol they had consumed prior to the incident. This victim blaming serves athletic departments and sport organization by allowing men to continue to hold control and power over women, influencing their willingness to report cases of rape and sexual assault to the authorities.

It should be noted that the discussion of how gender and race intersect as well as the double oppression faced by women of color is missing from this document almost entirely. In addition to facing racism in the workplace, higher education classroom, and society in general women of color are also subject to the same gender or sex discrimination as white women.

Utilizing this idea of double oppression, women of color can be primary targets for harassment and discrimination because they face both sexual and ethnic prejudice (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). However, for the purposes of this project, the sample size was not large enough to do analysis based on gender and race so the conversation takes more of a "womanism" perspective. The term womanism was coined in reaction to the realization that feminism often does not encompass the perspectives of Black women, but rather only middle to upper class white women (Hill Collins, 1996). Although the researcher understands the double level of oppression faced by women of the color the main take away from this project was the lack of education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault as well as the quality and accuracy of that training for all students, not just those who are white or persons of color or those who are male or female. With such a purpose and take aways, the discussion, conclusions, and recommendations focus more on a general discussion, directed toward all sport management students, faculty/instructors, and administration. However, the researcher also acknowledges a one-size fits all model may not be the most appropriate model, therefore future research may want to look into differences based on race in order to gain more understanding in the double oppression faced by women who identify as racial minorities.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Limitations. Every research study has limitations and this study is no exception. Although national organization (e.g., NASSM, NASSS) list-serves were utilized to distribute the Qualtrics link for the survey, it is unknown where the participants were located. It is possible that a national sample wasn't generated although that was the intention. Further, even though national organization (e.g., NASSM, NASSS) list-serves were utilized for distribution it is possible that faculty members from a university with a sport management program may not be members of

those organizations and list-serves. If faculty member were not members of the organization or list-serves it would be impossible for the survey to reach their students.

The survey was also only left open for several weeks at the end of Fall semester 2015 and the beginning of Spring semester 2016. Ideally, data would have been collected over a longer period of time, however Institutional Review Board approval took longer to secure than anticipated and data collection had to be cut short. If data collection could have began sooner or kept open longer, a larger sample may have been secured. The survey asked students questions about a relatively uncomfortable topic: education and training on sexual harassment and sexual assault. Although questions were purposefully worded in a manner that was thought to make the topics easier to talk about it is possible participants were still uncomfortable answering them. It is possible this caused a number of participants to end their participation in the survey prematurely (i.e., before they finished the survey in its entirety).

Finally, although the Acceptance of Modern Myths about Sexual Aggression Scale (Gerger et al., 2007) was selected for inclusion based on its ability to curb floor effects (i.e., skewed distributions and means distorted to the low endpoint of the scale) previously found when conducting research on college students utilizing rape myth acceptance scales (Gerger et al., 2007), it is possible students selected answers for social desirability instead of selecting answers for actual perceptions and beliefs. Social desirability, and the negative stigma associated with rape, may cause respondents to answer strategically to blatant rape myth acceptance items. Although means, standard deviations, and Chronbach's alphas found in their study are similar to other studies and suggest reliability this is always a possibility. Future research may want to include social desirability measures to avoid this possibility.

Recommendations. Although it would be impossible for accreditation bodies to streamline all courses and require which topics are covered in each individual class, it may be helpful for these bodies, along with departments, colleges, and universities, to provide training and materials for instructors who are teaching courses where topics such as sexual harassment and sexual assault could be discussed, as well as other controversial topics like gender, race, sexual orientation, and gender identity in sport. These training sessions could be handled at the university level, for example, Title IX coordinators could conduct them or an Office of Equity and Diversity. Or they could be handled individually by each department. This would ensure that instructors are provided with at least basic information about these topics. For instance, training documents (e.g., podcasts, sample lectures, handouts) could contain the following information for instructors to utilize in their courses: definitions, legal consequences, prevalence in the work place, ways to decrease sexual harassment and sexual assault, Title IX, the Civil Rights Act, risk management, and human resources management. Additional citations for research and popular press articles as well as videos and podcasts could be provided from university officials or individual departments. There is a great deal of materials on sexual harassment and sexual assault however, it may be difficult to find if you do not know where to look. This would allow accreditation bodies, departments, colleges, and universities to assist instructors on course formation without attempting to completely reorganize or restructure their courses.

Future Research. Utilizing a qualitative research methodology may be useful for future research. This methodology would allow the researcher to gain a greater depth into what courses students were discussing the issues of sexual harassment and sexual assault as well as in what capacity they discussed the issues both in the classroom and internship setting. Although a larger sample size was gathered in the current study than could be gathered in a qualitative study, the

current study only provided a snapshot of courses where discussion on sexual harassment and sexual assault occurred and topics covered as well as topics covered in the internship setting. Additionally, no questions about academic departmental or organizational culture were addressed, which could be addressed in a qualitative study. A culture more permissive of harassment type behaviors may discourages faculty and managers from educating and training their students and employees on issues like sexual harassment and sexual assault. Student participants could be questioned about their perceptions of culture in their academic department and internship organizational culture.

Future research should also survey or interview sport management and related field instructors about whether or not they cover topics of sexual harassment and/or sexual assault in their classrooms. Additionally, instructors should be asked about why they do or do not include theses topics in their courses. It is important to also research instructors in order to understand if they are as uneducated as their students on these topics or if they are purposefully leaving them out of course curricula because of the awkward and uncomfortable discussions that stem from these topics.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Development of The Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Education Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions about your sport management coursework and internship experience. Your participation in this study is voluntary, you may decline to answer any question	
1.(Yes/No) Is your current, or intended, major sport management or a related field? _____ Yes _____ No If no, they will be prompted to the end of the survey.	This survey seeks to assess students currently majoring, or those who intend to major in sport management. Students from other majors will not be asked further questions.
2. What is name of your current, or intended, major? _____	This survey seeks to assess students currently majoring, or those who intend to major in sport management. Students from other majors will not be asked further questions.
3. (Choose all that apply) What sport management courses have you completed or are you currently enrolled in? _____ Gender issues in sport _____ Intercollegiate athletics _____ International foundations of sport _____ Organizational behavior _____ Personnel management (HR Management) _____ Sport communication _____ Sport economics _____ Sport ethics _____ Sport finance _____ Sport for community development _____ Sport governance _____ Sport history _____ Sport law _____ Sport leadership principles _____ Sport management principles _____ Sport marketing _____ Sport psychology	This question seeks to understand what courses the participant has completed or is currently enrolled in. This information can be used to assess where they may be learning about sexual assault and/or sexual harassment. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum.

_____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies _____ Strategic management/policy _____ Theory to practice _____ Women in sport _____ Other (please specify)_____	
4. (Yes/No) **Sexual harassment**, in a broad sense, can be defined as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Have you received training/education about **sexual harassment** in any of the sport management classes you've completed or are currently enrolled in. _____ Yes _____ No Skip to question 8 if no	This question seeks to understand if the participant has been introduced to the topic of sexual harassment in any of their sport management courses. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum.
5. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, which classes did you receive training/education about **sexual harassment** in? _____ Gender issues in sport _____ Intercollegiate athletics _____ International foundations of sport _____ Organizational behavior _____ Personnel management (HR Management) _____ Sport communication _____ Sport economics _____ Sport ethics _____ Sport finance _____ Sport for community development _____ Sport governance _____ Sport history _____ Sport law _____ Sport leadership principles _____ Sport management principles _____ Sport marketing _____ Sport psychology	This question seeks to understand which classes have held discussions about sexual harassment. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum.

_____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies _____ Strategic management/policy _____ Theory to practice _____ Women in sport _____ Other (please specify)_____	
6. Is there anywhere else where you have received training on **sexual harassment** in an educational setting? (e.g., campus workshop) _____	This question allows participants to go into more detail about a specific setting or program where they were educated/received training about the topic of sexual harassment in an education setting. Responses may include: campus workshop, program for residents halls, etc. Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in responses.
7. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 4, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Prevalence on college campuses _____ Ways to decrease sexual harassment _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify) _____	This question seeks to gain understanding at the depth in which the concept of sexual harassment are discussed in the classroom. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum, but the specifics taught in each class are very different depending on the faculty member.
7a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____	Students may have learned about an unlisted aspect of sexual harassment while in the classroom. This question allows them the chance to explain any other ways they have discussed sexual harassment in the classroom.

	Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in responses.
8. (Yes/No) **Sexual assault** can be defined as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault. Have you received training/education about **sexual assault** (any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent) in any of the sport management classes you've completed or are currently enrolled in. _____ Yes _____ No Skip to question 12 if no.	This question seeks to understand if the participant has been introduced to the topic of sexual assault in any of their sport management courses. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum.
9. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, which classes did you receive training/education about **sexual assault** in? _____ Gender issues in sport _____ Intercollegiate athletics _____ International foundations of sport _____ Organizational behavior _____ Personnel management (HR Management) _____ Sport communication _____ Sport economics _____ Sport ethics _____ Sport finance _____ Sport for community development _____ Sport governance _____ Sport history _____ Sport law _____ Sport leadership principles _____ Sport management principles _____ Sport marketing _____ Sport psychology _____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies _____ Strategic management/policy	This question seeks to understand which classes have held discussions about sexual assault. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum.

_____ Theory to practice _____ Women in sport _____ Other (please specify)_____	
10. Is there anywhere else where you have received training on **sexual assault** in an educational setting? (e.g., campus workshop) _____	This question allows participants to go into more detail about a specific setting or program where they were educated/received training about the topic of sexual assault in an education setting. Responses may include: campus workshop, program for residents halls, etc. Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in responses.
11. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 8, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual assault**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Prevalence on college campuses _____ Ways to decrease sexual assault _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify) _____	This question seeks to gain understanding at the depth in which the concept of sexual assault are discussed in the classroom. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many sport management programs follow a set curriculum, but the specifics taught in each class are very different depending on the faculty member.
11a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual assault**? _____	Students may have learned about an unlisted aspect of sexual assault while in the classroom. This question allows them the chance to explain any other ways they have discussed sexual assault in the classroom. Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in

	responses.
12. (Yes/No) Are you currently completing or have you completed an internship in a sport setting? _____ Yes _____ No Skip to next section if no.	This question seeks to gain understanding into training they receive on the job on sexual assault and harassment. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said many programs require students to hold an internship before they graduate.
13. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 13, in what area(s) of sport management is/was your internship? _____Intercollegiate athletics _____Professional sport _____Semi professional sport _____Recreational sport _____Non profit _____ Other (please specify) _____	This question seeks to understand which areas of sport have held discussions about sexual assault or sexual harassment with their interns. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said that although internships are often required, training location, and job duties often greatly differ.
14. (Yes/No) **Sexual harassment**, in a broad sense, can be defined as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Have you received training/education about **sexual harassment** in your internship? _____ Yes _____ No If no, skip to 17.	This question seeks to understand if the participant has been introduced to the topic of sexual harassment in their internship. The Civil Rights Act and Title IX are often discussed in class, but may not be discussed in an applied setting like the work place. However, some organizations may require interns go through formal HR training which should provide information on sexual harassment, the Civil Rights Act, and Title IX (if a federally funded organization).
15. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, in what	This question seeks to gain

capacity did you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Ways to decrease sexual harassment _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify)_____	understanding at the depth in which the concept of sexual harassment are discussed in sport management internships. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said that although internships are often required, training location, and job duties often greatly differ.
16. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____	Students may have learned about an unlisted aspect of sexual harassment while in an internship. This question allows them the chance to explain any other ways they have discussed sexual harassment in an internship. Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in responses.
17. (Yes/No) **Sexual assault** can be defined as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault. Have you received training/education about **sexual assault** in your internship? _____ Yes _____ No	This question seeks to understand if the participant has been introduced to the topic of sexual assault in their internship. The Civil Rights Act and Title IX are often discussed in class, but may not be discussed in an applied setting like the work place. However, some organizations may require interns go through formal HR training which should provide information on sexual harassment, the Civil Rights Act, and Title IX (if a federally funded organization).
18. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, in what	This question seeks to gain

capacity did you talk about **sexual assault**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Ways to decrease sexual assault/sexual harassment _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify)_____	understanding at the depth in which the concept of sexual assault are discussed in sport management internships. Sport management faculty and accreditation board members said that although internships are often required, training location, and job duties often greatly differ.
18a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual assault**? _____	Students may have learned about an unlisted aspect of sexual assault while in an internship. This question allows them the chance to explain any other ways they have discussed sexual assault in an intership. Although the survey is quantitative, this question allows for more depth in responses.

Appendix B: Expert panel qualifications

Expert Panel Member	**Qualifications**
Sport management faculty member	Sport management teaching experience Course development experience
Sport management faculty member	Sport management teaching experience Course development experience
Sport management faculty member	Sport management teaching experience Course development experience Accreditation body membership
Sport management faculty member	Sport management teaching experience Course development experience Accreditation body membership
Accreditation body executive director	Sport management curriculum development

Appendix C: Research question analyses

Research question	**Analysis**
R1: Are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?	Frequencies and descriptives will be conducted to assess whether or not students are exposed to training on sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses.
R1a: Are there differences in demographic variables of students who are exposed to training and on education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?	A series of one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) and t-tests will be conducted to look for differences in demographic variables of students who have and have not been exposed to training and education on sexual assault and sexual harassment.
R1b: In which classes are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management courses?	Frequencies and descriptives will be conducted to assess which courses offer students training and education on sexual assault and sexual harassment.
R2: Are sports management students exposed to training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management internships?	Frequencies and descriptives will be conducted to assess whether or not students are exposed to training on sexual assault and sexual harassment in their sport management internships.
R3: Does receiving training and education on issues of sexual assault and sexual harassment influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths?	An independent samples t-tests will be conducted to assess whether or not training and education on sexual assault and sexual harassment influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths.
R4: Do demographic variables (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, type of student) influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths?	A series of one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) and t-tests will be conducted to assess whether or not demographic variables influence awareness, attitudes, and endorsement of rape myths.

Appendix D: Informed Consent

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Sport Management Students' Training on Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment

INTRODUCTION

You are invited to participate in a research study in which researchers seek to gain an understanding about training you have received in your sport management classes and internships about sexual assault and sexual harassment.

PARTICIPANTS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE STUDY

You will be participating in an approximately 10-15 minute anonymous survey which will ask you a series of questions about training you have received in your sport management classes and internships about sexual assault and sexual harassment.

RISKS

Although risks are minimal, participants may experience discomfort when responding to some of the questions asked by the researcher, particularly those questions regarding personal demographic information such as sexual orientation or political affiliation. Questions regarding perceptions of relationships between men and women may cause participants to experience slight discomfort as well.

BENEFITS

The primary benefit of participating in this research study is to provide greater insight into the training sport management students receive in their sport management classes and internships about sexual assault and sexual harassment. Sexual assault and sexual harassment are increasingly growing issues within sporting organizations, by understanding training received on the subjects curricula can be altered to ensure students are receiving adequate education and training. This research will add to the existing body of literature on sexual assault and sexual harassment in the sport industry as well as sport management curriculum.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Every attempt will be made to keep the information in this study confidential. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons involved the study unless participants specifically give permission to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link participants to the study.

CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, (or you experience adverse effects as a result of participating in this study,) you may contact the researcher, Elizabeth Taylor, at 1914 Andy Holt Avenue, Knoxville, TN 37996, and (865) 974-1281. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact the Office of Research Compliance Officer at (865) 974-7697.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your completion of this survey is your informed consent to participate.

Appendix E: Instrument

The Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Education Questionnaire

The follow survey is meant to assess your training and education on sexual harassment and sexual assault. Below are definitions for sexual harassment and sexual assault.

1. **Sexual harassment**, in a broad sense, can be defined as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature.

2. The Department of Justice defines **sexual assault** as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault

Please answer the following questions about your sport management coursework and internship experience. **Your participation in this study is voluntary, you may decline to answer any question**
1.(Yes/No) Is your current, or intended, major sport management or a related field? _____ Yes _____ No If no, they will be prompted to the end of the survey.
2. What is name of your current, or intended, major? _____
3. Are you an undergraduate or graduate student? _____ Undergraduate _____ Graduate
4. (Choose all that apply) What sport management courses have you completed or are you currently enrolled in? _____ Gender issues in sport _____ Intercollegiate athletics _____ International foundations of sport _____ Organizational behavior

_____ Personnel management (HR Management)
_____ Sport communication
_____ Sport economics
_____ Sport ethics
_____ Sport finance
_____ Sport for community development
_____ Sport governance
_____ Sport history
_____ Sport law
_____ Sport leadership principles
_____ Sport management principles
_____ Sport marketing
_____ Sport psychology
_____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies
_____ Strategic management/policy
_____ Theory to practice
_____ Women in sport
_____ Other (please specify)_____

5. (Yes/No) **Sexual harassment**, in a broad sense, can be defined as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Have you received training/education about **sexual harasment** in any of the sport management classes you've completed or are currently enrolled in.
_____ Yes
_____ No

Skip to question 8 if no.

6. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, which classes did you receive training/education about **sexual harassment** in?
_____ Gender issues in sport
_____ Intercollegiate athletics
_____ International foundations of sport
_____ Organizational behavior
_____ Personnel management (HR Management)

_____ Sport communication
_____ Sport economics
_____ Sport ethics
_____ Sport finance
_____ Sport for community development
_____ Sport governance
_____ Sport history
_____ Sport law
_____ Sport leadership principles
_____ Sport management principles
_____ Sport marketing
_____ Sport psychology
_____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies
_____ Strategic management/policy
_____ Theory to practice
_____ Women in sport
_____ Other (please specify)_____

6a. Is there anywhere else where you have received training on **sexual harassment** in an educational setting? (e.g., campus workshop)

_____

7. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 5, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual harassment**?

_____ Definitions of the terms
_____ Legal consequences
_____ Prevalence in the work place
_____ Prevalence on college campuses
_____ Ways to decrease sexual harassment
_____ Title IX
_____ The Civil Rights Act
_____ Risk management
_____ Human resource management
_____ Other (please specify) _____

7a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual harassment**?
_____

8. (Yes/No) **Sexual assault** can be defined as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault. Have you received training/education about **sexual assault** (any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent) in any of the sport management classes you've completed or are currently enrolled in.
_____ Yes
_____ No

Skip to question 11 if no.

9. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to the previous question, which classes did you receive training/education about **sexual assault** in?
_____ Gender issues in sport
_____ Intercollegiate athletics
_____ International foundations of sport
_____ Organizational behavior
_____ Personnel management (HR Management)
_____ Sport communication
_____ Sport economics
_____ Sport ethics
_____ Sport finance
_____ Sport for community development
_____ Sport governance
_____ Sport history
_____ Sport law
_____ Sport leadership principles
_____ Sport management principles
_____ Sport marketing
_____ Sport psychology
_____ Sport sociology/sociocultural studies
_____ Strategic management/policy
_____ Theory to practice

_____ Women in sport _____ Other (please specify)_____
9a. Is there anywhere else where you have received training on **sexual assault** in an educational setting? (e.g., campus workshop) _____
10. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 8, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual assault**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Prevalence on college campuses _____ Ways to decrease sexual assault _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify) _____
10a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual assault**? _____
11. (Yes/No) Are you currently completing or have you completed an internship in a sport setting? _____ Yes _____ No Skip to next section if no.
12. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 7, in what area(s) of sport management is/was your internship? _____Intercollegiate athletics _____Professional sport _____Semi professional sport _____Recreational sport _____Non profit _____ Other (please specify) _____

13. (Yes/No) **Sexual harassment**, in a broad sense, can be defined as unwanted sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Have you received training/education about **sexual harassment** in your internship? _____ Yes _____ No
14. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 13, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Ways to decrease sexual harassment _____ Title IX _____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify)_____
14a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual harassment**? _____
15. (Yes/No) **Sexual assault** can be defined as any type of sexual conduct or behavior that occurs without explicit consent. Forcible sodomy, fondling, and attempted rape all fall under this definition of sexual assault. Have you received training/education about **sexual assault** in your internship? _____ Yes _____ No
16. (Check all that apply) If you answered yes to question 15, in what capacity did you talk about **sexual assault**? _____ Definitions of the terms _____ Legal consequences _____ Prevalence in the work place _____ Ways to decrease sexual assault/sexual harassment _____ Title IX

_____ The Civil Rights Act _____ Risk management _____ Human resource management _____ Other (please specify)_____
16a. Please explain in more detail what capacity you talk about **sexual assault**? _____

Indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements	Completely Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Completely Agree
1. When it comes to sexual contacts, women expect men to take the lead.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Once a man and a woman have started 'making out', a women's misgivings against sex will automatically disappear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. A lot of women strongly complain about sexual infringements for no reason, just to appear emancipated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. To get custody of their children, women often falsely accuse their ex-husbands of a tendency toward sexual violence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Interpreting harmless gestures as 'sexual harassment' is a popular weapon in the battle of the sexes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. It is a biological necessity for men to release sexual pressure from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. After a rape, women nowadays receive ample support.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Nowadays, a large portion of rapes are partly caused by the depiction of sexuality in the media as this raises the sex drive for potential perpetrators.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. If a woman invites a man to her home for a cup of coffee after a night out this means that she wants to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. As long as they don't go too far, suggestive remarks and allusions simply tell a woman that she is attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Any woman who is careless enough to walk through 'dark alleys' at night is partly to be blamed if she is raped.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. When a woman starts a relationship with a man, she must be aware that the man will assert his right to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Most women prefer to be praised for the looks rather than their intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Because the fascination caused by sex is disproportionately large, our society's sensitivity to crimes in this area is disproportionate as well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Women like to play coy. This does not mean that they do not want sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Many women tend to exaggerate the problem of male violence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. When a man urges his female partner to have sex, this cannot be called rape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. When a single woman invited a single man to her flat she signals that she is not averse to having sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. When politicians deal with the topic of rape, they do so mainly because this topic is likely to attract the attention of the media.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. When defining 'marital rape', there is no clear-cut distinction between normal conjugal intercourse and rape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. A man's sexuality functions like a steam boiler - when the pressure gets too high, he has to 'let off steam'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Women often accuse their husbands of marital rape just to retaliate for a failed relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. The discussion about sexual harassment on the job has mainly resulted in many harmless behaviors being misinterpreted as harassment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. In dating situations the general expectations is that the women ' hits the brakes' and the man 'pushes ahead'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Although the victims of armed robbery have to fear for their lives, they receive far less psychological support than do rape victims.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Alcohol is often the culprit when a man rapes a woman.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Many women tend to misinterpret a well-meant gesture as a 'sexual assault'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Nowadays, the victim of sexual violence receives sufficient help in the form of women's shelters, therapy offers, and support groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Instead of worrying about alleged victims of sexual violence society should attend to more urgent problems, such as environmental destruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Nowadays, men who really sexually assault women are punished justly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographics: Please respond the following questions about yourself.
Your participation in this study is voluntary, you may decline to answer any question.

1. Please describe your gender identity.
_____ Female
_____ Male
_____ Transgender
_____ Other – Please specify: _____

2. What is your current age in years? _____

3. What is your race or ethnicity? _____

4. Please identify your sexual orientation.
_____ Exclusively Heterosexual
_____ Somewhat Heterosexual/Somewhat Homosexual
_____ Exclusively Homosexual
_____ Other – Please specify: _____

5. Please identify your student classification.

_____ First-year undergraduate
_____ Second-year undergraduate
_____ Third-year undergraduate
_____ Fourth-year undergraduate
_____ Fifth-year undergraduate

_____ First-year Master's
_____ Second-year Master's
_____ Other -
Please specify: _____

6. In what college is your department house?

_____ Arts and Science
_____ Business
_____ Education
_____ Health and Human Services
_____ Kinesiology
_____ Social Science and Humanities
_____ Other – Please specify: _____

7. How many years of your life have you participated in competitive sport?

_____0-2 _____2-4 _____4-6 _____6-8 _____8-10 _____11+

8. Select the highest level at which you have participated in competitive sport.

_____ Youth
_____ High School/Secondary School
_____ College
_____ Professional
_____ Other – Please specify: _____

9. Is there anything else you would like to share about your experience with training and education on sexual harassment and sexual assault?

Appendix F: Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

THE UNIVERSITY of TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE
Office of Research & Engagement
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)

1534 White Ave.
Knoxville, TN 37996-1529
865-974-7697
fax 865-974-7400

November 25, 2015

Elizabeth Ann Taylor
UTK - Kinesiology Recreation & Sport Studies

Re: UTK IRB-15-02592-XP
Study Title: Sport Management Students' Training on and Perceptions of Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment

Dear Ms. Taylor:

The Administrative Section of the UTK Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed your **application** for the above referenced project. It determined that your application is eligible for **expedited** review under 45 CFR 46.110(b)(1), Category 7: Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies. The IRB has reviewed these materials and determined that they do comply with proper consideration for the rights and welfare of human subjects and the regulatory requirements for the protection of human subjects. Therefore, this letter constitutes full approval by the IRB of your application version 1.1, as submitted. Approval of this study will be valid from November 25, 2015 to November 24, 2016.

In the event that subjects are to be recruited using solicitation materials, such as brochures, posters, web-based advertisements, etc., these materials must receive prior approval of the IRB. Any revisions in the approved application must also be submitted to and approved by the IRB prior to implementation. In addition, you are responsible for reporting any unanticipated serious adverse events or other problems involving risks to subjects or others in the manner required by the local IRB policy.

Finally, **re-approval** of your project is required by the IRB in accord with the conditions specified above. You may not continue the research study beyond the time or other limits specified unless you obtain prior written approval of the IRB.

Sincerely,

Colleen P. Gilrane

Colleen P. Gilrane, PhD
Chair

Appendix G: Tables

Table 1:

Personal Demographics

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Male	180	51.3
Female	168	47.9
Other	3	.9
Age		
18-21	165	48.0
22-25	131	38.1
26-29	22	6.4
30-33	9	2.6
34-37	7	2.0
38-40	6	1.7
41+	4	1.2
Race		
White/Caucasian	268	79.8
Black/African American	32	9.5
Asian	5	1.5
Hispanic	10	3.0
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	1	.3
Multi Race	18	5.4
Other	2	.6
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual or straight	332	95.1
Gay or lesbian	9	2.6
Bisexual	5	1.4
Asexual	1	.3
Pansexual	1	.3
Queer	1	.3

Table 2:

Academic and Athletic Characteristics

Characteristic	n	%
Academic Class		
First year undergraduate	24	6.9
Second year undergraduate	35	10.0
Third year undergraduate	67	19.1
Fourth year undergraduate	87	24.9
Fifth year undergraduate	12	3.4
First year graduate	56	16.0
Second year graduate	52	14.9
Other	17	4.9
College		
Arts and Science	18	5.2
Business	70	20.3
Education	57	16.5
Health and Human Science	86	24.9
Kinesiology	70	20.3
Social Science and Humanities	11	3.2
Other	33	9.6
Years in Sport		
0-5 years	39	11.4
6-10 years	68	19.9
11-15 years	144	42.2
16-20 years	76	22.3
21+ years	14	4.1
Highest Level of Competition		
Youth	17	4.9
High school/Secondary school	145	41.8
College	163	47.0
Professional	10	2.9
Other	12	3.5

Table 3:

Student Course Completion Characteristics

Characteristic	n	%
Courses Taken		
Sport law	227	56.6
Sport marketing	217	54.2
Sport finance	177	44.1
Sport ethics	173	43.1
Sport management principles	153	38.2
Introduction to sport management	152	37.9
Sport sociology/sociocultural studies	150	37.4
Intercollegiate athletics	136	33.9
Sport psychology	122	30.4
Organizational behavior	117	29.2
Sport governance	100	24.9
Sport history	97	24.2
Gender issues in sport	96	23.9
Sport leadership	94	23.4
Sport communication	94	23.4
Sport economics	92	22.9
Personnel/HR management	68	17.0
International foundations of sport	67	16.7
Strategic management/policy	67	16.7
Women in sport	51	12.7
Sport for community development	38	9.5
Theory to practice	37	9.2

Table 4:

Courses Where Discussion on Sexual Harassment Occurred

Characteristic	n	%
Courses Taken		
Sport law	94	50.8
Sport ethics	47	25.4
Gender issues in sport	47	25.4
Intercollegiate athletics	31	16.8
Sport sociology/sociocultural studies	29	15.7
Organizational behavior	22	11.9
Personnel/HR management	21	11.4
Sport management principles	20	10.8
Sport psychology	20	10.8
Women in sport	19	10.3
Sport governance	13	7.0
Introduction to sport management	11	5.9
Sport communication	10	5.4
Sport history	8	4.3
Sport leadership	8	4.3
Sport finance	6	3.2
Sport marketing	4	2.1
Sport economics	4	2.1
International foundations of sport	3	1.6
Sport for community development	3	1.6
Strategic management/policy	2	1.1
Theory to practice	2	1.1

Table 5:

Topics Covered on Sexual Harassment in Sport Management Courses

Characteristic	n	%
Discussion on		
Title IX	152	82.2
Definitions	149	80.5
Legal consequences	134	72.4
Prevalence in the work place	107	57.8
Prevalence on college campuses	102	55.1
Risk management	84	45.4
Civil Rights Act	82	44.3
Ways to decrease sexual harassment	78	42.1
HR management	66	37.5

Table 6:

Crosstabulations on Personal Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Gender and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	Gender			x^2	ϕ
	Male	Female	Other		
Yes	87	73	1	1.03	.054
No	93	95	2		

Crosstabulation of Race and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	Race							x^2	ϕ
	White/ Cauc	Black/ AA	Asian	Hispanic	Native Haw/Pac Islander	Multi Race	Other		
Yes	115	18	2	5	0	10	1	3.83	.107
No	125	14	3	5	1	8	1		

Crosstabulation of Age and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	Age							x^2	ϕ
	18-21	22-25	26-29	30-33	34-37	38-40	41+		
Yes	73	59	11	5	4	4	3	2.84	.90
No	92	72	11	4	3	4	1		

Crosstabulation of Sexual Orientation and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	Sexual Orientation						x^2	ϕ
	Hetero	Gay/ Lesbian	Bisexual	Asexual	Pansexual	Queer		
Yes	156	2	1	1	1	0	6.73	.139
No	176	7	4	0	0	1		

Table 7:

Crosstabulations on Academic and Athletic Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Academic Class and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	Academic Class								x^2	ϕ
	1st yr under	2nd yr under	3rd yr under	4th yr under	5th yr under	1st yr grad	2nd yr grad	Other		
Yes	7	12	34	53	8	22	16	8	21.02*	.245
No	17	23	33	34	4	34	36	9		

* $p < .05$

Crosstabulation of College and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	College							x^2	ϕ
	Arts & Sci	Bus	Edu	HHS	Kins	SS & Hum	Other		
Yes	7	29	19	49	32	4	18	10.19	.172
No	11	41	38	37	38	7	15		

Crosstabulation of High Level of Sport Competition and Training on Sexual Harassment in the Classroom

Training	High Level of Sport Competition					x^2	ϕ
	Youth	HS	College	Pro	Other		
Yes	5	63	80	5	6	3.03	.093
No	12	82	83	5	6		

Table 8:

Courses Where Discussion on Sexual Assault Occurred

Characteristic	n	%
Courses Taken		
Sport law	74	51.4
Sport ethics	39	27.1
Gender issues in sport	29	20.1
Intercollegiate athletics	28	19.4
Sport sociology/sociocultural studies	26	18.1
Personnel/HR management	16	11.1
Sport management principles	14	9.7
Organizational behavior	13	9.0
Introduction to sport management	11	7.6
Women in sport	11	7.6
Sport governance	13	7.1
Sport communication	8	5.5
Sport psychology	7	4.9
Sport leadership	7	4.7
Sport history	4	2.8
Strategic management/policy	2	1.4
Sport finance	2	1.4
Sport economics	1	.7
Sport for community development	1	.7
International foundations of sport	1	.7
Theory to practice	1	.7
Sport marketing	1	.7

Table 9:

Topics Covered on Sexual Assault in Sport Management Courses

Characteristic	n	%
Discussion on		
Definitions	108	75.0
Legal consequences	103	71.5
Title IX	94	65.2
Prevalence on college campuses	78	54.2
Prevalence in the work place	77	53.4
Ways to decrease sexual assault	59	41.0
Risk management	48	33.3
Civil Rights Act	45	31.3
HR management	43	29.9

Table 10:

Crosstabulations on Personal Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Gender and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	Gender				
	Male	Female	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	68	53	2	2.90	.091
No	111	115	1		

Crosstabulation of Race and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	Race								
	White/ Cauc	Black/ AA	Asian	Hispanic	Native Haw/Pac Islander	Multi Race	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	87	14	1	4	0	7	1	3.08	.096
No	179	18	4	6	1	11	1		

Crosstabulation of Age and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	Age								
	18-21	22-25	26-29	30-33	34-37	38-40	41+	x^2	ϕ
Yes	47	54	8	3	4	2	2	7.32	.146
No	118	77	13	6	3	4	2		

Crosstabulation of Sexual Orientation and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	Sexual Orientation							
	Hetero	Gay/ Lesbian	Bisexual	Asexual	Pansexual	Queer	x^2	ϕ
Yes	118	2	1	1	0	1	5.41	.125
No	213	7	4	0	1	0		

Table 11:

Crosstabulations on Academic and Athletic Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Academic Class and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	Academic Class									
	1st yr under	2nd yr under	3rd yr under	4th yr under	5th yr under	1st yr grad	2nd yr grad	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	2	8	25	41	8	17	15	6	22.08*	.252
No	22	27	42	46	4	39	36	11		

* $p < .05$

Crosstabulation of College and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	College								
	Arts & Sci	Bus	Edu	HHS	Kins	SS & Hum	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	7	20	16	36	29	3	11	6.10	.133
No	13	49	41	50	41	8	22		

Crosstabulation of High Level of Sport Competition and Training on Sexual Assault in the Classroom

Training	High Level of Sport Competition						
	Youth	HS	College	Pro	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	5	44	64	4	5	3.38	.099
No	12	101	98	6	7		

Table 12:

Topics Covered on Sexual Harassment in Sport Management Internships

Characteristic	n	%
Discussion on		
Definitions	70	79.5
Legal consequences	62	70.5
Prevalence in the work place	57	64.8
Title IX	49	55.7
Risk management	46	52.3
Ways to decrease sexual harassment	45	51.1
HR management	43	48.9
Civil Rights Act	22	25.0

Table 13:

Crosstabulations on Personal Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Gender and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	Gender				
	Male	Female	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	36	41	1	.71	.06
No	61	55	1		

Crosstabulation of Race and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	Race						
	White/ Cauc	Black/ AA	Asian	Hispanic	Multi Race	x^2	ϕ
Yes	60	6	2	3	6	1.34	.085
No	93	6	2	3	6		

Crosstabulation of Age and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	Age								
	18-21	22-25	26-29	30-33	34-37	38-40	41+	x^2	ϕ
Yes	22	42	10	2	0	1	1	8.52	.21
No	45	49	7	6	3	3	2		

Crosstabulation of Sexual Orientation and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	Sexual Orientation							
	Hetero	Gay/ Lesbian	Bisexual	Asexual	Pansexual	Queer	x^2	ϕ
Yes	72	2	0	1	1	1	5.61	.17
No	112	5	1	0	0	0		

Table 14:

Crosstabulations on Academic and Athletic Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Academic Class and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	Academic Class								x^2	ϕ
	1st yr under	2nd yr under	3rd yr under	4th yr under	5th yr under	1st yr grad	2nd yr grad	Other		
Yes	3	0	10	18	4	22	18	3	8.25	.205
No	5	6	16	33	3	23	23	9		

Crosstabulation of College and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	College							x^2	ϕ
	Arts & Sci	Bus	Edu	HHS	Kins	SS & Hum	Other		
Yes	4	18	11	19	19	1	5	8.07	.205
No	2	26	32	24	19	3	10		

Crosstabulation of High Level of Sport Competition and Training on Sexual Harassment in their Internship

Training	High Level of Sport Competition					x^2	ϕ
	Youth	HS	College	Pro	Other		
Yes	5	44	28	0	1	8.62	.21
No	6	45	60	4	2		

Table 15:

Topics Covered on Sexual Assault in Sport Management Internships

Characteristic	n	%
Discussion on		
Definitions	48	77.4
Legal consequences	47	75.7
Prevalence in the work place	39	62.9
Ways to decrease sexual assault	38	61.0
Title IX	36	58.1
Risk management	33	53.2
HR management	30	48.3
Civil Rights Act	21	33.9

Table 16:

Crosstabulations on Personal Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Gender and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	Gender			x^2	ϕ
	Male	Female	Other		
Yes	29	29	0	.86	.067
No	67	67	2		

Crosstabulation of Race and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	Race					x^2	ϕ
	White/ Cauc	Black/ AA	Asian	Hispanic	Multi Race		
Yes	46	5	1	1	4	1.34	.085
No	106	7	3	5	8		

Crosstabulation of Age and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	Age							x^2	ϕ
	18-21	22-25	26-29	30-33	34-37	38-40	41+		
Yes	12	34	8	1	0	2	1	12.27	.253
No	54	57	9	7	3	2	2		

Crosstabulation of Sexual Orientation and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	Sexual Orientation						x^2	ϕ
	Hetero	Gay/ Lesbian	Bisexual	Asexual	Pansexual	Queer		
Yes	56	1	0	0	0	0	2.56	.115
No	127	6	1	1	1	1		

Table 17:

Crosstabulations on Academic and Athletic Characteristics

Crosstabulation of Academic Class and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	Academic Class									
	1st yr under	2nd yr under	3rd yr under	4th yr under	5th yr under	1st yr grad	2nd yr grad	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	3	0	8	11	2	17	15	2	8.06	.203
No	4	6	18	40	5	28	26	10		

Crosstabulation of College and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	College								
	Arts & Sci	Bus	Edu	HHS	Kins	SS & Hum	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	2	13	12	15	13	0	2	4.22	.148
No	4	31	31	28	25	3	13		

Crosstabulation of High Level of Sport Competition and Training on Sexual Assault in their Internship

Training	High Level of Sport Competition						
	Youth	HS	College	Pro	Other	x^2	ϕ
Yes	5	29	23	0	1	3.80	.14
No	6	60	64	4	2		

Table 18:

T-tests

T-test Results Across Education/Training and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Sexual Harassment Education in Class		T-Test
	Yes	**No**	
AMMSA Composite	3.34 (.85)	3.14 (.87)	t(369) = 2.25, p = .025

	Sexual Assault Education in Class		T-Test
	Yes	**No**	
AMMSA Composite	3.25 (.90)	3.23 (.85)	t(369) = .20, p = .840

	Sexual Harassment Education in Internship		T-Test
	Yes	**No**	
AMMSA Composite	3.10 (.79)	3.05 (.92)	t(206) = .65, p = .519

	Sexual Assault Education in Internship		T-Test
	Yes	**No**	
AMMSA Composite	3.27 (.79)	3.01 (.89)	t(204) = 1.90, p = .059

Table 19:

T-tests and ANOVAs Across Personal Characteristics

T-test Results Across Gender and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Gender		T-Test
	Male	**Female**	
AMMSA Composite	3.46 (.85)	3.02 (.79)	t(345) = 4.93, p = .000

One-way ANOVA Results Across Age and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Age							F-Test
	18-21	**22-25**	**26-29**	**30-33**	**34-37**	**38-40**	**41+**	
AMMSA Composite	3.33 (.82)	3.31 (.83)	2.64 (.73)	2.37 (.77)	2.97 (.95)	3.32 (1.14)	2.77 (1.10)	$F(6, 337) = 4.40$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .073$

One-way ANOVA Results Across Race and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Age							F-Test
	White/ Cauc	**Black/ AA**	**Asian**	**Hispanic**	**Native Haw/Pac Islander**	**Multi Race**	**Other**	
AMMSA Composite	3.21 (.84)	3.46 (.81)	3.51 (1.03)	3.46 (1.04)	3.17	3.12 (.95)	4.04 (.37)	$F(6, 328) = .98$, $p = .441$, partial $\eta^2 = .018$

One-way ANOVA Results Across Sexual Orientation and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Sexual Orientation						F-Test
	Hetero/ Straight	**Gay/ Lesbian**	**Bisexual**	**Asexual**	**Pansexual**	**Queer**	
AMMSA Composite	3.29 (.84)	2.38 (.73)	2.41 (.80)	2.80	1.80	1.67	$F(5, 343) = 4.47$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$

Table 20:
ANOVAs Across Academic and Athletic Characteristics

One-way ANOVA Results Across Academic Class and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Academic Class								F-Test
	1st yr under	**2nd yr under**	**3rd yr under**	**4th yr under**	**5th yr under**	**1st yr grad**	**2nd yr grad**	**Other**	
AMMSA Composite	3.51 (.78)	3.56 (.77)	3.26 (.80)	3.40 (.88)	3.14 (.89)	3.18 (.86)	2.92 (.73)	2.56 (.92)	$F(7, 342) = 4.36$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .082$

One-way ANOVA Results Across College and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	College							F-Test
	Arts & Sci	**Bus**	**Edu**	**HHS**	**Kins**	**SSH**	**Other**	
AMMSA Composite	3.02 (1.00)	3.47 (.93)	2.92 (.84)	3.21 (.79)	3.34 (.78)	3.49 (.61)	3.26 (.81)	$F(6, 338) = 2.82$, $p = .011$, partial $\eta^2 = .048$

One-way ANOVA Results Across Level of Sport Competition and Rape Myth Inventory Variables

	Level of Sport Competition					F-Test
	Youth	**HS**	**College**	**Pro**	**Other**	
AMMSA Composite	3.04 (.90)	3.19 (.81)	3.33 (1.85)	3.39 (1.01)	2.95 (1.09)	$F(4, 342) = 1.22$, $p = .304$, partial $\eta^2 = .014$

Vita

Elizabeth Taylor, originally from Eau Claire, Wisconsin, is a third-year doctoral student in the Sport Management program at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville (UTK). She has taught physical activity courses along with motor skill and performance labs and has served as a teaching assistant for Health Psychology, Foundations of Sport Psychology, and Leadership Theories in Sport Management. She has also taught several lecture courses including: Sport Governance, Intercollegiate Athletics, and Ethics in Sport Management. Before beginning her studies at UTK under Dr. Rob Hardin, Elizabeth graduated with her bachelor's in Business Administration (concentration: management) from University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point and master's in Kinesiology and Health (concentration: sport psychology) from Miami University (Ohio). While completing her bachelor's Elizabeth was a member of the UWSP varsity volleyball (team captain) and track and field teams. She also served as a peer advisor in the School of Business and Economics as well as a campus ambassador. During her time at Miami she served as a graduate assistant volleyball coach in addition to being a graduate assistant instructor and researcher.

Elizabeth's current research interests include collegiate-athletes and alcohol use, the underrepresentation of women in collegiate coaching and athletic administration, as well as harassment of female faculty members including sexism in the classroom and student education/training on sexual harassment and sexual assault. Outcomes of her research aim to further educate coaches, athletic directors, and support staff on athletes' motivations for and consequences from excessive alcohol use and understanding why females do not occupy more leadership roles in collegiate athletics when the number of collegiate female athletes is

dramatically rising. Additionally, her works aims to decrease sexual assault and sexual harassment on university campuses.

Post graduation, Elizabeth intends to work as a faculty member in higher education.