Fostering Compassion Satisfaction Among College & University Title IX Administrators

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Abstract
This study, completed for the author’s master’s degree in public administration capstone in the Program on Gender-Based Violence in the University of Colorado Denver’s School of Public Affairs, explores the compassion satisfaction and fatigue of Title IX administrators through a thorough review of the literature on emotionally intense jobs, administration of a Web-based survey, and completion of a series of interviews with Title IX administrators. Title IX administrators were found to have low to average burnout and secondary traumatic stress, as well as average to high levels of compassion satisfaction. Administrators pointed to several organizational and structural barriers to maintaining their wellbeing, as well as suggestions for how their supervisors, their universities, and the field could help them work more effectively. Implications for research and practice are discussed.

Acknowledgments
Thank you to my committee members, Malcolm Goggin, Barbara Paradiso, and Brian Van Brunt. This study was supported by an Association of Title IX Administrators (ATIXA) research grant.
Introduction
Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 is a federal law that prohibits discrimination based on sex in any federally funded education program or activity (Department of Justice, 2015). In 2011, a letter now known as the “Dear Colleague Letter” (Ali, 2011) specified that Title IX should also be applied to gender-based violence (GBV). This led to an up-tick of Title IX administrator positions.

Title IX administrators are particularly vulnerable to scrutiny and liability, and professionals may encounter a steep learning curve entering into what is on most campuses a relatively new role. Title IX offices are often understaffed and have limited budgets. These administrators are also frequently confronted with the realities of the pervasiveness of trauma in their communities. The aforementioned factors can combine to leave these professionals particularly prone to burnout, a psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job, as well as secondary traumatic stress (STS), the presence of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms caused by indirect exposure to trauma (Figley, 2002; Leiter and Maslach, 2004). Burnout and STS combined can lead to compassion fatigue (CF), or a state of tension and preoccupation and dulled compassion.

Despite these risk factors, Title IX administrators may lack experience with or education in coping with CF. Title IX administrators may not have received education or training on CF and may fear judgment from colleagues. They may also be unaware of how to foster compassion satisfaction (CS), the ability to receive gratification from their roles dealing with traumatized individuals and communities (Simon, Pryce, Roff, and Klemmack, 2006).

Purpose
This study focused on four central research questions. Title IX administrator compassion satisfaction, burnout, and compassion fatigue, as well as vicarious trauma, are new areas for study. Therefore, the first step was assessing current levels of these facets of professional wellbeing through the Professional Quality of Life (Pro-QOL V), administered via an online survey. Second, interview questions sought to ascertain how Title IX administrators cope with their roles. Third, through the emerging Trauma-Informed Organizational Culture (TIOC) instrument and interviews, this study also sought to assess organizational and institutional dimensions to fostering compassion satisfaction and fatigue. Fourth, this research sought recommendations to improve training for Title IX administrators.

Review of the Literature
In her seminal study, Hothschild (1983) defined emotional labor as “inducing or suppressing feelings in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others” (p. 3). She expressed that this labor is “sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value,” stressing that it is just as important a skill set as more rational job skills (Hothschild, 1983, p. 4). Emotionally intense jobs typically involve interfacing with the public, production of an emotional state in someone else, and exposure to environments with emotional activity expectations for workers. Building on Hothschild’s (1983) initial study, researchers have explored the skills inherent in emotional labor, as well as the potential for the negative or positive impact of working in an emotionally intense job.

Figley (2002) created a model of compassion stress and fatigue that emphasizes that exposure to suffering, empathic ability, and concern combine to produce an empathic response. Jobs that involve high emotions tend to also involve trauma or “disruption of the usually integrated functions of consciousness, memory, identity, and perception of the environment” (Bloom, 2006, p. 7). Hothschild (1983) posited that stress results from over-identification, fraudulence, and compartmentalization. Over-identification involves not separating work issues from the clients, increasing stress and risk of burnout. Fraudulence involves separating oneself from the job but feeling bad about it. Compartmentalization involves separating from the job too much, which at its most extreme makes it impossible to perform well at it.

Professionals in emotionally intense jobs tend to witness events many people only experience indirectly by watching television or movies (Craig and Sprang, 2010, p. 319). While this paper focused specifically on implications for professionals working with issues of interpersonal and gender-based violence trauma, other examples of emotionally intense jobs can include police, 911 operators, trauma counselors, responders to natural disasters, military personnel, nurses, and others who engage directly with crisis moments and human suffering.
These workers have a greater potential for vicarious trauma and burnout because of the high level of human emotion with which they must engage. Vicarious trauma involves a change in a worker’s inner experience of the work through empathic engagement with a trauma survivor (Figley, 2002). Emotions are contagious, and increased interaction and emotional labor involving highly traumatized clients can continue to increase this vicarious trauma, resulting in symptoms that mirror experiencing trauma directly. This vicarious trauma can lead to secondary traumatic stress, which involves the presence of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms (Figley, 2002). Thus, emotionally intense jobs have significant impact not only on worker performance, but on worker health as well.

Burnout, a psychological syndrome that involves a prolonged response to interpersonal stressors on the job, may result from this exposure (Leiter and Maslach, 2004). Burnout exists at the confluence of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). The stress dimension is exhaustion and involves a cognitive distancing from work-related tasks. This can lead to poor service delivery. The interpersonal dimension is cynicism, which can then lead to depersonalization when engaging both with clients and with colleagues. The self-evaluative dimension is inefficacy, resulting in decreased productivity and increased feelings of incompetence (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). Burnout also predicts increased turnover intentions and frequently leads to the loss of critical experienced human capital (Leiter and Maslach, 2009).

As Eschenfelder (2012) mentioned, the exact passion that can lead to burnout for these workers can also lead to increased job satisfaction, improved services for clients, and other positive outcomes. Compassion fatigue and compassion satisfaction are two sides to the same coin. Compassion fatigue is a state of tension and preoccupation with traumatized survivors by re-experiencing the traumatic events, avoiding reminders, and persistent arousal related to trauma (Figley, 2002).

**Negative Impacts of Emotionally Intense Jobs**

Much existing research presents emotional labor, particularly with trauma survivors, as having a myriad of potential negative consequences, including vicarious trauma, compassion fatigue, burnout, and secondary traumatic stress. Employees may lack the experience of satisfaction when there is closure to an interaction because their clients face ongoing, complex, and emotionally laden issues (Guy et al., 2008). Due to this high-stress environment, many researchers, including Salston and Figley (2003), have pointed to compassion fatigue as a constant risk of working in an emotionally intense job. Emotional labor can result in increased absenteeism, increased use of health benefits, poor performance, high turnover rates, more workers’ compensation claims, lower morale, and increased substance abuse or misuse (Jacobson, Paul, and Blum, 2005).

Workplaces that have a significant number of persons experiencing emotional labor may become trauma-organized (Bloom, 2006). Trauma-organized workplaces have high levels of burnout and secondary traumatic stress, and low levels of compassion satisfaction. The conditions present in trauma-organized workplaces may lead to high absenteeism, high employee turnover, and professional misconduct, including boundary violations (Bloom, 2006).

Compassion satisfaction involves the ability to receive gratification, as opposed to vicarious traumatization, from providing care to others who are suffering or who have experienced trauma (Simon, Pryce, Roff, and Klemmack, 2006). Emotionally intense jobs do not only have negative consequences, but can result in positive, affirming outcomes as well.

**Positive Impacts of Emotionally Intensive Jobs**

While researchers and practitioners alike often focus on the negative impacts of emotionally intense jobs, this review was particularly focused on the positive impacts, specifically compassion satisfaction. A focus on the deficits of emotionally intense jobs ignores the power that passion and emotion have to energize and sustain workers (Wendt, Tuckey, and Prosser, 2011). There are people who seek out emotionally intense jobs and view them as exciting or rewarding due to a desire for meaningful and altruistic work helping others, an adrenaline rush, an enjoyment for fixing problems, or feeling an enhanced sense of meaning (McCann and Pearlman, 1990; Sansbury, Graves, and Scott, 2015; Schuler and Sypher, 2000; Tehrani, Osborne, and Lane, 2012). Workers in emotionally intense jobs mitigate burnout if they are in environments that help them focus on these positive aspects of helping people (Brotheridge and Grandy, 2002).
Frederickson’s (2004) broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions postulates that, if emotionally intense situations are paired with positive personal change, they can actually promote resiliency, increase joy, encourage creativity, and combat the aforementioned narrowing of worldview perpetuated by frequent trauma exposure for individuals. Compassion satisfaction mitigates burnout, which mitigates the impact of secondary traumatic stress (Conrad and Kellar-Guenther, 2006; Samios, Abel, and Rodzik, 2013).

Post-traumatic growth can foster resilience, increase positive emotions, and broaden focus, which enhances compassion satisfaction (Samios, Abel, and Rodzik, 2013). Not if someone survives trauma, but how they survive it, determines the outcome for a worker. Counter-transference, or a worker’s emotional enmeshment with a client, can actually lead to positive growth for the worker (Figley, 2002; Gibbons, Murphy, and Joseph, 2011; Kanter, 2007). Therefore, it is vital for workplaces to nourish these dimensions to shift the impact on workers. Environments and training programs can help enhance these protective factors to foster secondary traumatic growth instead of exacerbating secondary vicarious trauma (Shoji et al., 2014).

Campus Gender-Based Violence (GBV) Professionals

There is little research on compassion satisfaction, specifically among GBV workers, and none about campus GBV professionals in particular. Work with trauma survivors and the inherent sacrifice in the work of these professionals links them to other emotionally intense professions (Bemiller and Williams, 2011). Studies specific to GBV workers indicate that they experience changes in worldview, feelings of isolation, fear for clients’ safety, feelings of powerlessness, confusion of rape and sex, tightening of personal boundaries, distrust, and feelings of personal vulnerability (Bemiller and Williams, 2011; Clemans, 2004). In particular, workers in the GBV field reported that their jobs increased their assertiveness, gave them greater control over their anger, and led to positive changes in their parenting skills (Ben-Porat and Itzhaky, 2009). Larger systems change is also a part of the job, requiring employees to not only work with individuals, but to also advocate for systems change (Davies and Lyon, 2013). This need for work on multiple levels involves highly skilled labor, as well as individual and organizational fostering of compassion satisfaction.

Methods

This mixed-methods study included: 1) a Web-based survey; and 2) semi-structured phone interviews. The Association of Title IX Administrators (ATIXA) provided a research grant that funded incentives for survey and interview completion.

Web-Based Survey

The Professional Quality of Life (ProQOL V) is a valid and reliable instrument that is the most frequently used measure of compassion satisfaction and fatigue (Stamm, 2016). The fifth edition was the most current version at the time of this study (Stamm, 2009). This instrument asks for the frequency with which respondents have experienced a range of feelings, thoughts, and actions within the past 30 days. It consists of 30 statements about which participants indicate their level of agreement on a Likert-type scale. The Trauma-Informed Organizational Culture (TIOC) instrument was a new instrument developed by Handran (2013) to address the organizational-level factors of compassion fatigue and satisfaction. It consists of 30 questions, with response choices on a Likert-type scale, and with one open-ended question.

Recruitment. Due to the relatively small size of the field, the survey was distributed directly to Association of Title IX Administrators (ATIXA) members with a two-week completion window and two reminders (at one week and one day remaining). If they chose to provide contact information, participants were entered to win one of 20 $25 gift cards. The author assigned each entrant a number and used a random number generator for the drawing. All gift card incentives in this study were disseminated directly through Amazon, which provides reading and redemption verification. The data was analyzed using SurveyMonkey and Excel based on scoring systems embedded in the ProQOL and looking for patterns emerging in the TIOC.

Participants. A total of 104 members of ATIXA participated in the Web-based survey. As nine responses were incomplete due to the respondents skipping one or two questions, those nine responses were not used, resulting in 95 completed surveys. Of respondents with completed surveys, 84 percent were women, 15 percent were men, and 1 percent was gender-queer. The highest levels of degree completion for respondents was as follows: 14 percent had bachelor’s
degrees; 48 percent held master’s degrees; 21 percent had a juris doctorate; 15 percent had Ph.D.s, Ed.D.s, or Psy.D.s; and 2 percent were in the process of completing their Ph.D.s. The majority of respondents indicated that they served in Title IX Coordinator roles (63 percent), while 16 percent served as Investigators and 14 percent as Deputy Coordinators. Respondents who served in other Title IX team member roles made up the remaining 7 percent of the sample.

The respondents spent an average of 63 percent of their time working on Title IX issues, with a range of 10 percent to 100 percent. They had an average of five years’ experience working with Title IX issues or sexual violence, with a range from less than one year to more than 20 years. Over half of the respondents worked at four-year, private institutions (52 percent), with an additional 29 percent working at four-year, public institutions. The other 19 percent worked at community colleges, system-wide offices, or graduate- and professional-only institutions.

**Interviews**

Creswell (2003) mentioned the importance of thinking beyond quantitative versus qualitative research and of considering mixed methods, particularly in newer areas of inquiry. Including interviews allows for data triangulation without multiple larger studies (Jick, 1979). This allows for one method to inform the other, leaving less room for misinterpretation, and allows for the creation of a more robust narrative (Fowler, 1992; Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989; Mertens, 2003). By using mixed methods, the author was able to pursue a new area of inquiry from multiple angles at once in a limited amount of time.

Phone interviews saved significant time and travel expense (Stoneall, 1991), and they were conducted via Tape-A-Call, an iPhone application that saves recorded calls to a secure location in the cloud. Within 24 hours, recordings were transcribed, double-checked for accuracy, and deleted. The author then uploaded the data to Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) Miner, a computer-assisted qualitative analysis software (CAQDS), and coded it through an iterative qualitative content analysis process (Lieblich, Truval-Mashiach, and Zilber, 1998). This process involved repeated readings of the interview transcripts for themes, which were then combined to form categories. The author developed interview questions based on previous interview studies of compassion fatigue and satisfaction in related fields, as well as on through consultation with the client organization (Bober and Regehr, 2006; Handran, 2010; Harrison and Westwood, 2009; Killian, 2008; Kulbany, 2007; Pack, 2014). As this is the first study of its kind and participants may have had additional information to add about this unique role that may be salient, the author made use of semi-structured interview questions (Lieblich, Truval-Mashiach, and Zilber, 1998). This allowed the author to pursue follow-up questions if unforeseen topics came up in the interviews.

**Recruitment.** The author secured interviewees through a call for participation on the ATIXA member listserv. Each interview participant received a $25 gift card for participating. Interviews ranged from 23 minutes to 79 minutes in duration. Therefore, a total of $875 worth of gift cards was disseminated to participants.

**Participants.** As there is no exact number of preferred interviews in qualitative research, the author conducted interviews until responses became repetitive, with reached saturation. For this pilot study, that point was at 15 interviews (Gaskell, 2000). Participants came from 15 institutions of higher education in 13 states and represented the four major geographic regions of the continental United States. Five respondents were men and 10 were women. Eight respondents had earned a master’s degree, while five had earned a juris doctorate and two had earned Ph.D.s. Nine respondents were Title IX Coordinators, with three of them serving in the role full-time. The other respondents held Investigator or Deputy Coordinator positions, often on top of full-time jobs. Their experience working with Title IX or sexual violence issues ranged from less than one year to 17 years, with an average of six years’ experience. They represented community colleges, four-year, private universities and colleges, and four-year, public universities and colleges, with a student population range of 900 to 43,000. Four respondents worked at religiously-affiliated institutions. Five respondents mentioned previous experience in prevention and advocacy roles as a part of their professional history.

**Results**

This research consisted of semi-structured interviews, as well as the administration of two survey instruments, the Professional Quality of Life Survey and the Trauma-
Informed Organizational Culture Survey. The findings of this exploratory study both provided some intriguing answers and fueled additional questions.

**Interviews**

**Sustaining personal and professional wellbeing.** Participants shared multiple ways in which they sustained their wellbeing, but nine respondents began the conversation by noting that they did not sustain their wellbeing particularly well and believed that they needed to do more work in that area (see Table 1, right column). Several respondents indicated taking new jobs or shifting their professional roles recently as an attempt to better sustain themselves. Others indicated that their positions did not allow them time to sustain their wellbeing or that they felt guilty taking time away from work that has such a high impact on people’s lives. “I feel like I’m on 24/7. My cell phone is never off,” one participant said. Another stated, “I know I should be doing things to manage stress, but I just can’t seem to find the energy to do so without feeling guilty.” Still another echoed these sentiments: “The stakes are always so high and the emotions are so high. I experience guilt sitting at home when I could be working on a case.” All Title IX administrators interviewed indicated that it was challenging to set boundaries between work and life.

Respondents mentioned 19 methods for establishing boundaries within their roles, including not taking work home, physically leaving the office, not checking email or making calls after hours, taking on varying responsibilities to ensure they are not doing too much work that involves talking to trauma survivors, dedicating time to eat lunch away from their desks, and taking weekends off. Basic self-care practices were often indicated as things with which respondents struggled, as evidenced by one administrator’s statement: “I definitely eat in front of my computer every single day, if I eat lunch at all.” Participants often mentioned the need to be their authentic selves, as they did not feel they could be themselves at work. One respondent expressed that, “neutrality feels like I’m supposed to be a robot, but I have human emotions.” Many of these responses were accompanied by discussions of how difficult it was to simply transition home at the end of the day or to eat lunch without doing work at the same time.

Another key theme that emerged in the responses was the importance of relationships. Participants often mentioned time with family, the need to debrief with colleagues or friends, the importance of participating in a faith community, time caring for pets, and attending counseling as ways that interpersonal connections helped them sustain themselves. As one respondent indicated, “you really need outside relationships. Everyone respects what you do [as a Title IX administrator], but nobody likes you.” Several respondents also mentioned a range of activities and hobbies ranging from physical activity to educational endeavors, that helped them maintain separation between work and life. One participant noted that employee self-care was in the university’s best interest: “If they want me to be my best, I must take care of myself.” Another participant mentioned the importance of colleagues and task delegation to ensure that the non-Title IX aspects of the job get done: “They need to understand why Title IX is important institutionally, even if they don’t understand it as important to them personally.” Respondents often noted that top-down support was considered crucial to Title IX administrator success.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: How do you sustain your wellbeing?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Boundaries</td>
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<td>Relationships</td>
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<td>Activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Barriers</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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Supervisor impact on wellbeing. Participants also mentioned how their supervisors helped or hindered their wellbeing, indicating a slightly more positive influence than negative influence by supervisors. Often, their responses indicated that, overall, their supervisors’ roles were mixed. Respondents indicated that benefits of their supervisors included encouraging them, allowing for days off and use of flex time, recognizing the stress of the job, and respecting their decisions. In managing a full-time job with an investigator role, one participant mentioned that “for our campus to be safe and equitable, [my supervisor] knows I’m going to need to be pulled away” (see Table 2, below). That support was frequently noted as invaluable to maintaining respondent wellbeing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Themes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help</td>
<td>Encouraging</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Allows for days off</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognizes stress of job</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respects decisions</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinder</td>
<td>Does not model self-care</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doesn’t talk about self-care</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stressed</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Works staff beyond capacity</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Administrators also indicated that supervisors typically did not model self-care, did not discuss self-care with them, were constantly stressed, and worked their teams beyond capacity. Five respondents indicated that their supervisors talked about self-care or taking days off, but did not model the behavior themselves in practice, making it challenging for the Title IX administrators to feel true permission to engage in self-care. One participant mentioned that her boss was unsupportive and said, “I’m not sure he can even spell Title IX.” Another stated: “I don’t feel very supported. My supervisor is not familiar with the obligations, and so keeps getting blindsided by basic things. It’s like a roller-coaster.” Others indicated that their supervisors had very different roles, particularly in human resources, illustrated by one respondent’s comment that: “She’s an 8–5 person and doesn’t get emotionally charged work, so I feel guilty asking for a day off. She doesn’t get it.” Similarly, another respondent mentioned that Title IX administrators lacked spaces to speak honestly: “It’s hard to do that when we’re always trying to show that everything’s fine.” Interviewees frequently cited a lack of space to process challenges as a source of stress as well.

University impact on wellbeing. Respondents also discussed how their university helped or hindered their wellbeing. Again, the responses were mixed, with slightly more helpful than harmful methods indicated. They indicated that benefits packages (including health and wellness benefits and leave time), a culture that values the importance of Title IX, being treated as experts, and the provision of funding for professional development were helpful to sustaining their wellbeing. One participant said: “I know that people above me think highly of me. Those individual reactions make all the difference.” However, six respondents couched the benefit of professional development funding with the belief that the funding would not be available in the near future (see Table 3, below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Themes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help</td>
<td>Benefits package</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Values Title IX</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treats as expert</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Funds professional development</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinder</td>
<td>Expectation to go above and beyond</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always in crisis mode</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Under scrutiny</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does not care if I stay</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not given decision-making authority</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inadequate staff</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They also mentioned that the university culture often prevented them from being able to take care of themselves, including by sending contradictory messages. While they were provided leave time, they did not feel as if they could take it. They felt the expectation was to
“go above and beyond” and to respond after hours and on weekends. Several respondents mentioned that their institutions were under scrutiny and in crisis mode all the time, leading to an inability to take time away. Others noted that they lacked authority, evidenced by one participant’s statement that, “there is a lot that is written as collaborative, so I feel like I’m always herding cats.” Individual participants also mentioned inadequate staffing, a lack of decision-making authority, and a disregard for the Title IX administrator position as negatively impacting personal wellbeing. One expressed that “the university does not seem invested in keeping someone qualified in this job.” Still another described the double-edged sword of her university seeing her as an expert while not funding her ongoing professional training: “They treat me like an expert, but I think this places me at constant risk of being thrown under the bus.” Another expressed that staff were typically recognized for workaholism, and “no one is going to be honored for good work-life balance.” Organizational factors certainly affected respondents’ priorities.

University support is needed to work more effectively. Respondents also mentioned the need for consistency and resources from their institutions to work more effectively (see Table 4, top-right). They indicated the importance of shared messaging, clarification of roles, and placing more value on Title IX compliance. They expressed the importance of how administrators portrayed their roles and authority to others. A respondent mentioned a sentiment echoed by many: “There needs to be that idea of shared responsibility, that [Title IX] is not just my thing.” Others also mentioned the need for more staff and a dedicated budget. Three respondents indicated that they had to ask for funding any time they needed resources, as they had no budget to use at their discretion. One mentioned the need for “someone to do triage” and support in “finding people out in the community who want to take time from their busy day jobs to be my investigators.” Without those front-line staff, Title IX administrators indicated that they were absorbing more trauma.

Web Survey
Overall, respondent scores on the ProQOL indicated average to high compassion satisfaction, and low to average burnout and secondary traumatic stress.

Compassion satisfaction. Twenty-three percent of the Title IX administrators surveyed scored in the high range for compassion satisfaction, indicating that they derived a great deal of satisfaction from their work. The rest of the respondents, 77 percent, scored at average levels of compassion satisfaction. The average score for this sample was 53, which is three points higher than the average for the general population on which the ProQOL is scaled.

Burnout. No administrations surveyed received scores that indicated burnout, with 37 percent in the low range and 63 percent in the average range. The average score was 40, which is significantly lower than the national average of 50.

Secondary traumatic stress. Again, respondents indicated a low to average level of secondary traumatic stress, with one respondent scoring in the high range. Forty-eight percent scored in the low range, while 51 percent scored in the average range. This makes the average score for this sample 37, which is much lower than the national average.

University role in supporting effective work with people affected by trauma. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents answered an optional question on how their schools could help them work more effectively as they help individuals navigate traumatic situations. Responses focused on three major themes: training, resources, and support. Forty-nine percent indicated a need for more trauma-specific training or more professional development overall. Another 29 percent indicated a need for additional resources such as more staff or increased budget. Individuals also mentioned the need for advocates to support survivors through adjudication processes, dedicated
physical space for conducting interviews, and flexible scheduling options as ways in which their institutions could better support them (see Table 5, below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>n</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>More trauma-specific training</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More time for professional development</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>More staff</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More budget</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexible scheduling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Survivor advocates</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical space for interviews</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Opportunities to debrief</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Access to therapy</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One respondent mentioned that professional development would be an impossibility without a significant shift in work culture:

“I am a department of one. I work 12+ hours a day every day and still can’t get a handle on my workload. It is impossible to take a day off or to travel to a conference without killing myself when I return or being constantly interrupted while I’m away. This defeats the purpose of even taking time off. I’d rather not even bother if I’m going to have to work twice as hard to recover or get caught up than I would have if I hadn’t taken that day or gone to that conference. It’s nice to do challenging and rewarding work and to feel important and needed by your institution, but there has to be a limit, and I don’t have that.”

This sentiment was echoed in another’s statement that a “cultural shift allowing individuals to talk about emotional difficulty at work and the need to take some time away” is necessary, as currently that person would be labeled as “a complainer who can’t hack it.” Respondents frequently noted the tension between wanting to better take care of themselves and the organizational challenges to actually doing so.

Trauma-Informed Organizational Culture (TIOC).
Overall respondent scores indicated that many aspects of a trauma-informed organizational culture on their campus were present, including support from colleagues and the ability to do multiple types of work in their roles. However, there were marked exceptions to this. Fifty-two percent of respondents indicated that their organizations did not compensate them for overtime. Seventy-six percent agreed or strongly agreed that they did not have enough time during work hours to complete their assigned tasks, and 62 percent also felt that they did not have the resources needed to do their jobs. Therefore, it is not surprising that most respondents (81 percent) indicated that they strongly agreed or agreed that they worked in stressful environments.

Title IX administrators surveyed also responded overwhelmingly that they had not received information about compassion fatigue or satisfaction from their universities. No one agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that they had received such information or training, and 76 percent strongly disagreed or disagreed.

Discussion
This research centered on assessing current Title IX administrator levels of compassion satisfaction and fatigue, and how their supervisors and institutions help or hinder their wellbeing with the goal of providing recommendations for ATIXA for its trainings and future practice.

Levels of Compassion Satisfaction and Fatigue
The findings of this research indicate that Title IX administrators are not experiencing high rates of burnout or compassion fatigue, and that many are even experiencing compassion satisfaction. However, survey results also indicate that they lack vital resources that they may need to sustain themselves in what are often new roles on their campuses. No Title IX administrators surveyed indicated that they had received information about compassion satisfaction or fatigue from their universities, and many interviewees mentioned a stigma against self-care or asking for help and time off. These conditions, coupled with structural challenges like high caseloads, limited personnel, and little or no dedicated budget, place many Title IX administrators at risk of burnout. Added training and support for the emotional labor inherent in Title IX work could buffer future burnout or compassion fatigue and
help raise compassion satisfaction levels to the high range for more administrators.

**Recommendations**

Due to the emotional intensity of Title IX administrators’ jobs and the impact of their environments on their wellbeing, it would be helpful for training to address all levels of the social ecology. Thus, interventions at the administrator, supervisor and colleague, organization and institution, and profession-wide level are needed.

**Administrator level.** While the research is the most robust at the individual level, the implications are also the most limited, as the focus is solely on increasing individual capacity and changing personal practices. Several authors stress the importance of self-care (Bemiller and Williams, 2011; Osofsky, Putnam, and Lederman, 2008; Stamm, 1999; Stovholt, 2001). However, the literature is unclear as to whether simply cultivating these practices alone impacts compassion satisfaction. Indeed, several studies of interventions indicate that, while approaches that target individual self-care strategies are the norm, programs that combine individual and organizational strategies are most effective at fostering compassion satisfaction and decreasing burnout (Awa, Plaumann, and Walter, 2010).

Pursuing professional development opportunities to build individual capacity regarding trauma may increase compassion satisfaction (Saltson and Figley, 2003). However, while workers frequently recognize symptoms of vicarious trauma in others, they are unlikely to recognize them in themselves and may only see such training or intervention as reactive for those experiencing symptoms without further education (Bemiller and Williams, 2011). As Dahlberg and Krug (2002) mentioned, interventions at the individual level focus on education and skills training to promote attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that hopefully will result in positive change. As Title IX administrators frequently remarked in their interviews, the surrounding levels of the social ecology have a significant impact on individual behavior and wellbeing as well.

**Supervisor and colleague level.** The influence of work peers and supervisors plays a critical role in the development of compassion satisfaction, so strategies at this level are essential to fostering compassion satisfaction in the workplace.

Supervisors who lack personal work experience in emotionally intense jobs or have not supervised such workers require even more capacity building. Still, in emotionally intense jobs, workers might not always have time to consult with supervisors and must go beyond rigid rules to make decisions quickly in response to crises (Mastracci, Guy, and Newman, 2012). Therefore, regular supervision is essential, as well as non-accusatory debriefing spaces in which personnel can learn from their supervisors and hone their judgment and feelings of self-efficacy. Mentoring programs could help younger and newer professionals, who some studies indicate are at greater risk for burnout and who could benefit from the knowledge of their more seasoned colleagues. Supervisors can also provide critical mentorship (Bemiller and Williams, 2011).

Appropriate social sharing has been linked to compassion satisfaction, but this skill is rarely taught, especially outside of counseling programs. Research about Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) provides powerful evidence about the necessity for formal debriefing systems (Jacobson, Paul, and Blum, 2005). Administrators should also be encouraged to share coping strategies with each other and to encourage their colleagues to employ self-care and positive coping skills (McCann and Pearlman, 1990). As workers may be embedded within broader systems and be the only person doing a particular job, it is also critical to establish pathways for them to connect with others doing similar work as a means to receive encouragement and share concerns, as is done through the ATIXA listserv. Evans and Villanis (1997) suggested a structured group, but Way, Van Deusen, Martin, Applegate, and Jandle (2004) also pointed to the increased ability to make connections provided by the rise in accessibility of information technology and internet-based communication.

**Organizational and institutional level.** Organizational culture can be leveraged for prevention strategies (Martin, 2002). Echoing many of the interviewees’ sentiments, Henry et al. (2011) asserted that workers who are “in survival model [have] little energy to implement trauma-informed casework practices,” let alone foster compassion satisfaction with colleagues or build their own resilience (p. 183). Educational institutions need to set these employees up for success. Tehrant, Osborne, and Lane (2012) took this argument a step further to assert that ignoring the risk of compassion fatigue is actually
unethical due to the impact on both clients and workers. Multiple researchers have stated that trauma-informed systems with clients must mirror what organizations are doing with staff in order to achieve program goals and best serve clients (Bell, 2013; Bloom and Yanosy-Sreedhar, 2008; Glisson, 2007; Hormann and Vivian, 2005; Sansbury, Graves, and Scott, 2015).

Postsecondary educational institutions are currently placing themselves and their Title IX administrators at risk by not providing information on compassion fatigue and satisfaction. Alredge and Bloom (2001) expressed the necessity of establishing a trauma-informed system in such settings, noting that “the human dimension should always be at the forefront, with consideration given to the whole person, regardless of whether the person is a consumer, a clinician, or a program administrator” (p. 91). Holistic thinking is vital for fostering compassion satisfaction.

Universities can also institute policies that are likely to foster compassion satisfaction. They can recognize their role and acknowledge the severity of the trauma that their Title IX personnel encounter by prioritizing choice and care (Saakvitne, Gamble, Pearlman, and Tabor, 2000; Wharton, 1999). They can also provide continual opportunities for self-assessment of compassion satisfaction and fatigue (Sansbury, Graves, and Scott, 2015). Implementing supervision policies, shared coverage, and caseload caps, and providing increased time off or flexible time, while also decreasing conflicts, can improve compassion satisfaction (Acker, 2011; Saakvitne et al., 2000; Sansbury et al., 2015).

Implications for Research
While valuable information is available on fostering compassion satisfaction in the workplace, there are considerable gaps in the literature and a need for future research. Much of the existing research focuses on individual factors, and recommended interventions are almost solely at the individual level. There is a need for more studies to be conducted at the relationship and organizational level, but particularly at the policy and profession level, to provide guidance for more upstream approaches such as school-based interventions and training before an employee even enters the workplace. It would also be intriguing to learn about the impact of changing accreditation guidelines, evolving workplace standards, or professional codes on the issue of compassion satisfaction, including guidance provided to individuals working as Title IX administrators.

The recent proliferation of the Title IX administrator role on college and university campuses provides a powerful opportunity for research on compassion satisfaction. The confluence of a high level of scrutiny and national attention, a focus on trauma, location within an educational setting, a lack of professional training in emotional labor skills or trauma, and lack of hiring practices rooted in emotional labor skills make the Title IX administrator role an important labor sector for future study.

Conclusion, Limitations, and Next Steps
This research consisted of a pilot study on compassion satisfaction among Title IX administrators at colleges and universities that was grounded in available research and practice evidence. However, additional research is needed on this population. The Trauma-Informed Organizational Culture Survey also needs additional opportunities for validation, as the instrument currently does not have a scoring system that lends itself well to practice-based recommendations. These instruments, however, did provide robust information through an easy-to-complete format that yielded a high response rate.

Title IX administrators were also surveyed using a convenience sample of Association of Title IX Administrators members. Further research could compare this sample to Title IX administrators who are not affiliated with ATIXA. In addition, the author’s role as an Advisory Board member for ATIXA served as both a limitation and a strength. The author did not have to use time having administrators explain their jobs or current climate, and the relationship with ATIXA helped secure a sample and needed incentives to survey such a busy population. However, it is possible that those who responded to the call for participants were aware of the author’s tie to the field of gender-based violence prevention and advocacy on campus, and chose to participate or not based on their prior knowledge of the author’s professional and personal identities.

Through its ongoing work and through its support of the recommendations outlined in this paper, ATIXA can continue to lead the field in providing a supportive professional home to Title IX administrators and staff, while also preventing their burnout and fostering greater levels of compassion satisfaction.
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